Teaching Pack No. 5
Early Primary

Section 1  Literacy: Language Practice
Section 2  Numeracy: Measuring Time
Section 3  Science: Exploring Sounds and Music
Section 4  Social Studies: Investigating the resources we need for living
Section 5  Life Skills: Exploring Good Citizenship

Additional Resources:
• Group work in your classroom
• Working with large/multigrade classes
Literacy: Providing natural contexts for language practice

1 Classroom Management
2 Active Learning
3 Writing as a means of instruction

Key Question for the teacher:
How can you help students to practise language structures in a natural context?

Keywords: classroom management; games; recipes; instructions; processes

Learning Outcomes for Teachers:
By the end of this section, you will have:
• used classroom management to help students learn an additional language;
• used games and everyday activities to develop students’ language skills and vocabulary.

Overview
All of this requires a great deal of thought, planning and skill. This section will provide some approaches and techniques to help you.

How much natural exposure – through radio, books, magazines, speakers and TV – do your students have to an additional language to that used at home?

The answer might be, ‘Very little. They only hear and use it in their daily class at school.’ This means that you are responsible for providing the kind of exposure to the language that will help students:
• use and become fluent in new vocabulary and grammatical structures;
• communicate using oral language in social situations;
• develop their reading and writing skills.
1 Classroom Management

As a teacher, you will often give instructions of various kinds to your students. You can use these everyday instructions to develop new vocabulary and listening skills in the additional language. Instructions use the imperative form of the verb. If you use the imperative form consistently, in meaningful contexts, students will begin to understand and learn it.

When students learn a new language, listening develops more quickly than speaking. They need lots of opportunities to listen and respond to new language. In the early stages of language learning (and later as well), you can use activities that require them to respond with actions but that do not need them to reply until they feel more confident. (This is often called ‘total physical response’ – see below)

Total physical response ideas

This website gives information about total physical response (TPR) as a way of working in language learning: http://www.tpr-world.com/. There are also other discussions you might want to explore.

You can introduce your students to many new language structures through game-like activities that involve them responding to instructions with actions (total physical response). Here are some examples of the kinds of instructions that you can give. Focus on one type of instruction at a time, so that the students get used to the way the language works.

1. Body movements

Stand up.
Laugh.
Cough.
Cry.
Kick the table.

2. Activities and objects

Point to the door.
Pick up the pen.
Close the window.
Smell the flower.
Point to the mountain.
Point to the woman who is baking a cake.

3. Add possessives

Give Rose’s book to Sibeso.
Bring Pamela’s pen to me.
Give Songiso his book.
Give Lufwendo her glasses.
4. This and that; here and there

Give this to Sibeso.
Fetch that from her.
Take the pen and put it here.
Fetch the book and put it there.

5. Space relations

Put the pen between the two books.
Put the pen close to the ruler.
Put the eraser into the box.
Put the ruler on top of the box.

6. Add number, colour and size

Put two pens into the box.
Take three stones out of the box.
Pick up the red pen and give it to Rose.
Put the green book on the table.
Take the small book and give it to Pamela.
Put the big book into the box.

7. Instructions and descriptions, with some speaking

Do and listen
Student does the action. Teacher (or another student) says what they are doing (e.g. ‘You are standing.’)

Listen and do
Teacher (or another student) instructs the student (e.g. ‘Stand.’) Student obeys, doing the action.

True or false
Student learns to say ‘true’ and ‘false’. Teacher (or another student) does an action, and makes a true or false statement about what he or she is doing (e.g. ‘I am sitting.’) Student says, ‘true’ or ‘false’.

Adapted from: http://www.tpr-world.com/

Teaching Example 1

Mrs Mujawayo teaches a Grade 1 class in Kigali, Rwanda. She uses English for all her classroom management.

In the morning, she greets individuals in their home language, and asks for home news. After assembly, she says to the class (in English), ‘Line up, children,’ and gestures towards the veranda, where they should line up. ‘Walk in,’ she says, gesturing again. ‘Stand by your desks.’

Teacher and class greet one another in English. ‘Sit down,’ she says.
She then switches back to the home language to introduce story work, and continues in their home language until she puts them into groups, for different activities.

Each group has a letter. ‘A and B raise your hands,’ she says in English, raising her hand. ‘Take books from the box,’ she says, pointing to the book box. ‘Sit down, and read to your partner.’ If they seem uncertain, she mimes what they have to do.

She later gives further instructions to each group in English, without translation. Two groups are to illustrate their story, and one group will read with her in their home language from a big book.

Mrs Mujawayo finds that her students quickly become familiar with the English instructions, especially when she accompanies her words with gestures, and soon start trying to say the words.

Activity 1

In this well-known game, students respond physically to commands. You can use it to extend vocabulary and listening skills in a range of subject areas.

The leader gives the command and carries out the actions at the same time. Students are only to obey commands that come from Simple Simon. (You could change this name to that of a well-known local person.)

The game goes like this:

**Leader:** Simple Simon says, ‘Jump!’ (Leader jumps.)

The students jump.

**Leader:** Simple Simon says, ‘Touch your toes!’ (Leader touches her toes.)

The students touch their toes.

**Leader:** ‘Scratch your nose!’ (Leader scratches her nose.)

Some scratch their noses. Others do not. Those who scratch their noses are out (because the instruction did not come from Simple Simon).

And so on…

Use simple instructions for new language students, more complex ones for more competent students. Start fairly slowly, but build up to a quicker pace. The winner is the last person left in.
2 Active Learning

Providing natural opportunities for developing your students' skills in the additional language is important. Here we suggest ways that you can involve the community and use local skills and wisdom as a resource for classroom activities.

You have seen, in Teaching Example 1 and Activity 1, how everyday instructions can provide a useful natural context for language learning. Students listened and showed understanding through actions. In this part, we suggest you use local recipes and processes as contexts for instructions, giving students the opportunity to speak (and write) as well as listen.

The activities used here will be carried forward to Activity 3, where your class begins to compile a book of recipes.

Teaching Example 2

Some adult learners of ciNyanja were spending a day in the townships as part of their course at the local college. Each learner was accompanied by a language helper who was a ciNyanja speaker. The helpers supported the learners as they tried out the language they had learned; buying vegetables from hawkers on the streets and chatting with the families that were hosting them.

An important part of the day was cooking a meal. The learner was supposed to do the cooking, instructed by the language helper. The cooking had been practised and mimed, and often written down or recorded on tape, in classes the week before. In Zambian tradition, the men were given a list of things to go to the market to buy, while women were asked to stay at home and cook foods like impwa, cikanda, cibwabwa and tomato and onion gravy. They also talked of how they might swap roles around to help them learn the language.

When the meal was over, some Zambian songs were sung, and learners learned traditional Ngoni children's games. Once the dishes were washed up, a happy and exhausted group of language learners boarded taxis to go home.

Activity 2

Tell your students they are going to find out how certain household tasks are done and explain the steps of the process in the additional language. Ask students to bring the information from home or invite community members to school to demonstrate the skills.

• Divide students into pairs or groups (these could be mixed-ability groups), to work out and, if possible, write down the steps of one of these processes in the additional language. Go round and help them with new vocabulary they may need.
• Give the groups time to memorise and rehearse the steps, in preparation for instructing others. They could collect from home items that are needed for the process.

• The next day, let one student use the additional language to instruct a member of another group, while the class watches e.g. sweeping the house.

How well did the students respond to this kind of activity?
Could you use it with other processes to extend their vocabulary?
If so, how would you plan this?

3 Writing as a means of Instruction

Language is used for communication, and it is important that you create real reasons for students to speak, listen, read and write in the additional language. This is not always easy when your school is in an area where the additional language is not commonly spoken. However, the additional language may well be the language of books and written communication.

Around the world people exchange information on ‘how to do’ things; for example they give each other recipes or patterns for dressmaking. You have already done this orally; now students can do it in writing. Show your students conventional written formats for recipes, in the additional language. A recipe is often presented as a series of instructions.

When we write a recipe, or describe a process, we are not concerned about who does the action, but are concerned that the action is done.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Example 3</th>
</tr>
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</table>

In a school near Kabwe, in Central Zambia, students had been sharing recipes. They wanted to draw their recipes in diagrams and exchange them with their friends. Mrs Malambo, their teacher, thought it would be good for them to know different ways of presenting information. She showed them how to draw flow charts. Once they had drawn and labelled the flow chart, they wrote the process as a description as well (see Resource 2: Recipes for examples).

Mrs Malambo discussed with the students which they found easiest to do, and why. Over two-thirds of the class found the flow charts more fun and easier to do because they were able to break the recipes down into steps and the drawings helped them remember and understand the words.

Mrs Malambo used this idea of flow charts in other lessons, as this seemed to help her students to remember more. For example, in a geography lesson, she used a flow chart to write out directions from one place to another, and the students drew pictures of landmarks to make it easier to remember the words.
Activity 3

• Ask your students to find out how to make their favourite meals from home and share these with the class.

• Introduce your students to the format for a recipe before they do their own examples.

• Ask your students to write out their recipes neatly, each making one version for themselves, and another to go into a class book of recipes. The second version could use a different format to the first.

• Ask students to exchange and discuss their recipes.

Recipes

Here are three different ways of presenting the same recipe.

Making Curried Peaches

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peel 4 peaches</td>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Peaches" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slice the peaches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boil 100 ml vinegar</td>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Boiling" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Add the peaches, curry powder and salt</td>
<td><img src="image3.png" alt="Curry Powder" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simmer the peaches until tender</td>
<td><img src="image4.png" alt="Simmer" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leave them to cool</td>
<td><img src="image5.png" alt="Cooling" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottle them</td>
<td><img src="image6.png" alt="Bottling" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seal the bottles</td>
<td><img src="image7.png" alt="Sealing" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Curried Peaches (process description)

When peaches are curried, 4 peaches are peeled and sliced. 100 ml of vinegar is boiled, and the peaches, curry powder and salt are added. The peaches are simmered until they are tender, then they are left to cool. They are bottled and the bottles are sealed.
Ginger Beer

Ingredients:
1 packet ground ginger
1.5 kg brown sugar
1 tin yeast
20 litres water

Method:
Boil 20 litres water.
Add the ginger and sugar.
Cool the mixture.
Add 1 tin of yeast.
Divide the mixture between two containers, to leave room for fermentation.
Leave it to stand for one and a half days.
Numeracy: Measuring and handling time

1 History of time telling
2 Teaching time
3 Telling the time

Key Question for the teacher:
How can you help students to understand and measure time?

Keywords: time; clock; sundial; history; mixed-ability; cross-curricular; practical activities

Learning Outcomes for Teachers:
By the end of this section, you will have:
• used practical activities to enhance your skills in mixed-ability teaching;
• considered the benefits of cross-curricular teaching in measuring time;
• developed your skills in managing an active classroom and resourcing it well.

Overview

In order for students to understand time, they need to develop an awareness of time – past, present and future. This raises the question: How can students be helped to both tell the time and understand the passing of time through practical ‘hands on’ learning activities?

In this section, we consider a number of ways to do this, working in groups or pairs. As a teacher, you need to think ahead and plan activities. Collecting resources over time, such as card and paper that you can recycle to make models, is a good idea and will help you with the following activities.
1 History of time telling

A good introduction to telling the time is to first discuss the many ways people used to tell the time before the invention of clocks. You could ask your students how they think they might be able to tell the time today, without using clocks. Exploring these ideas first and listening to their answers will provide you with evidence of their current understanding. This will help you to judge how much they have learned after undertaking some activities about time.

Teaching Example 1

Mrs Tokunbo is a teacher in a primary school in Nigeria. She planned to teach ‘time telling’ to her students. She wanted to begin by helping them all to understand the need for a standard way of telling time.

First, she asked them to tell her what they thought about how to tell the time and listed these ideas on the board. She discussed other ways of telling the time long ago, including marked candles, sundials and sandglasses. For each of these methods of time telling, she asked students to think of what it would be like to depend upon such a method, and what problems it might cause. (See below for examples of what Mrs Tokunbo told her students.)

Ways of measuring time long ago

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sundail</th>
<th>Candle Clock</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Sundial Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Candle Clock Image" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A story about using the crowing of the cock to tell the time

Mr Ali is a village petty trader. He takes his wares to nearby villages on their market days. He normally treks to the villages. To know when to start his journeys, he used to listen to the crow of the cock early in the mornings; that tells him it is morning and he would set off. But one day, the cock crowed too early. Mr Ali thought it was morning and set off. On getting to the road, he found that it was still very dark and for a long time he had to travel alone in the dark. He also got to the market too early and had to wait for a long time before other people arrived. From that day, Mr Ali concluded that depending on cock crows to know when it is morning is not always reliable.

Original source: http://inventors.about.com

Activity 1

Begin your lesson by asking your students to think of ways people tell the time without a clock and write down all their ideas on the board. You may need to suggest some examples, such as the rising and setting of the sun, the opening and closing of flowers like Etinkanika.

Put them into groups of four or five and ask them how they know what time of day it is. Then ask them to discuss how reliable they think each of these methods are. Ask the groups to report back and have a class discussion, writing up relevant comments, of reliable ways to tell the time. ‘Some people can tell what time it is by looking at the sun. But I have never been able to make out the numbers’ (Attributed to a primary student).

2 Teaching time

You may find it helpful to work together with the history teacher to explore how time was measured in different cultures throughout history. This could become activity-based – your students will probably enjoy experimenting with some of these ancient methods of time telling, such as making a candle clock or sundial. It will show your students that mathematics is – and has always been – important in many areas of life and study.

Using other experts in your classroom will help you learn more about a subject and will motivate your students. The teacher in Teaching Example 2 takes this approach.

Teaching Example 2

Mrs Lengasha wanted to teach her students about time. She began by telling them stories of how people in her father’s village used to tell the time of day and how they knew when to arrange ceremonies and events. She asked them if they knew how the length of the shadow cast by a pole was used to determine when to do certain activities and the time for observing Muslim prayers.
Mrs Lengasha asked the history teacher to help by explaining how time was measured long ago. The history teacher told them about birds that sing at certain periods of the day or night, like cocks that crow in the morning, and of the relationship between the rainy and dry seasons and clearing-sowing-harvesting times. She told them of how some people used the moon to tell the time over a month.

By working with the history teacher, Mrs Lengasha showed her students that mathematics is not an isolated subject, and she herself learned some new examples and ideas about time that she did not know before.

**Activity 2**

Before the lesson, collect some sticks and chalk. You could also read the information below to learn more about sundials.

- Familiarise your students with sundials (or shadow clocks as they are sometimes called) and how they work.
- Ask each group of students to make simple sundials using card, a pencil or stick and some plasticine/mud (or put the stick in the ground).
- Use the plasticine/mud to hold the stick up on the card, and place the sundials outside. Ask students to mark the stick’s shadow at certain times of the day – ‘School begins’, ‘Maths class begins’, ‘Break time’, ‘Lunch time’ and so on, throughout the day.
- At the end of the day, compare the dials. Discuss how the shadow has moved. Can the students explain why?

They could use themselves as sundials by standing in the same position at certain points in the day and observing what happens to their shadows. Ask them to share their results and list the changes they notice about their shadows.

**Sundials**

The Egyptians formally divided their day into parts something like ours. Obelisks (slender, tapering, four-sided monuments) were built as early as 3500 BCE. Their moving shadows formed a kind of sundial, enabling people to partition the day into morning and afternoon. Obelisks also showed the year’s longest and shortest days when the shadow at noon was the shortest or longest of the year. Later, additional markers around the base of the monument would indicate further subdivisions of time.

Another Egyptian shadow clock or sundial, possibly the first portable timepiece, came into use around 1500 BCE. This device divided a sunlit day into ten parts plus two ‘twilight hours’ in the morning and evening. When the long stem, with five variably spaced marks, was oriented east and west in the morning, an elevated crossbar on the east end cast a moving shadow over the marks. At noon, the device was turned in the opposite direction to measure the afternoon ‘hours’.

In Europe, during most of the Middle Ages (roughly 500 CE to 1500 CE), technological advancement virtually ceased. Sundial styles evolved, but didn’t move far from ancient Egyptian principles.
3 Telling the time

There are several important facts students need to know about time but one of the most challenging aspects for young children is often being able to ‘read’ a clock face. The use of practical ‘clock hands’ activities should help students to be able to read a clock and tell the time.

Once you have a clock or clocks, begin with times that are easier, gradually moving on to the more difficult times:

• ‘on the hour’ (o’clock);
• quarter past, half-past, quarter to the hour;
• five minute intervals;
• one minute intervals.

Teaching Example 3 and the Activity 3 give examples of how you could do this.

Teaching Example 3

Mrs Ondieki wanted her students to be able to practise setting and reading different times from a clock face. She decided the best thing to do was to ask her students to make cardboard cut-out clock faces that they could practise with. She asked students to help her collect enough cardboard for every four students to be able to make quite a large clock face, and two hands for it.

When they had enough, she asked her students to cut out circular clock faces and hands from their cardboard; and showed them how to number them on the board, making sure they had the 12, 3, 6 and 9 at the key points. Mrs Ondieki had bought some ‘split pins’ to hold the hands on the clock faces.

Mrs Ondieki then explained to her students how they should use the clocks, starting first with telling the hours (one o’clock etc.). She showed the students a particular time on her own cut-out clock and they made their clocks say the same time. They worked in small groups, helping each other. (See Additional Resource: Using group work in your classroom) They used the clocks they had made for several weeks, until Mrs Ondieki was sure that all her students could tell the time confidently. Every day, she also brought to the classroom a little alarm clock. She looked at this with her class at different times of the day to see what time it was.

Activity 3

• Collect the materials and make cardboard cut-out ‘clock faces’ with your students.
• Begin with whole-class teaching to help students see how the hours and minutes work.
• When students have some confidence in this, you may ask pairs or small groups to challenge each other: either saying a time, and asking their peers to show it on the clock face, or making a time on a clock face, and asking their peers to say what time is shown.
• Ask them, in groups, to make a list of the key things they do during the day, including the times they do them. You may have to help younger children. You could do a picture for the time.

At the end of the lesson, or in the next lesson, ask them to draw clock faces in their books, and put in a time and then write down the time in words for each clock. (If you can, have one or two small round objects that students can draw around to save time.)

### Units of time

**Time**

- 1 minute = 60 seconds
- 1 hour = 60 minutes
- 1 day = 24 hours
- 1 week = 7 days
- 1 fortnight = 14 days
- 1 year = 12 months = 52 weeks = 365 days
- Leap year = 366 days

Many timetables and digital watches use 24-hour clock time.

Use this scale to change between 12-hour and 24-hour time.

![24-hour clock](image)

6.15 am → 0615
6.15 pm → 1815

Remember:

- a.m. is morning time (it comes from the Latin ante meridium, meaning ‘before midday’);
- p.m. is afternoon and evening time (it comes from the Latin post meridium, meaning ‘after midday’);
- the 24-hour clock always uses four digits.

Original source: [http://www.bbc.co.uk/schools](http://www.bbc.co.uk/schools)
Science: Exploring sounds and music

1  Identifying different sounds
2  Sound Waves
3  Musical Instruments

Key Question for the teacher:
How can you involve your students in assessment?

Keywords: sound; musical instruments; assessment; local resources; game; project

Learning Outcomes for Teachers:
By the end of this section, you will have:
- used peer assessment with your students;
- used resources from the local community to produce musical instruments with your students;
- used practical activities to develop your students’ understanding of how to produce different sounds.

Overview

From a very early age, we respond to familiar sounds – a baby will respond to its mother’s or carer’s voice for example – and we learn new sounds very quickly. Your students will have learnt to recognise a large number of different sounds. In this section, you support your students’ developing ideas about sounds and how they are produced. The emphasis is on practical activities and active learning. Do you play an instrument yourself? Or know someone who could visit your classroom to play to your students?

This section also explores ways for helping students to assess their own work. Being involved in assessment helps students understand their learning and set goals for future progress. It also builds self-confidence and enthusiasm for learning.
1 Identifying different sounds

It is always wise to start by finding out what students already know. Students will recognise many different sounds, but they probably haven’t considered different qualities of these sounds like pitch (low notes or high notes) and volume (loud or soft).

In Activity 1, you play a guessing game with your students, where they try to identify sounds and explain how they think the sounds were made. This involves students scoring their own answers, one way of involving them in assessment.

Don’t dismiss answers that seem incorrect – encourage students to explain their responses. You can learn much about their understanding from what they say. Afterwards, think about what they said – was there anything that surprised you?

Teaching Example 1 shows how one teacher used a local story as a starting point for students’ questions about sound. Do you know any stories from your own culture that you could use? Or could you ask a member of the local community to visit your school to tell a story? Could one of your students tell a story?

Teaching Example 1

Ms Sarpong, who teaches in South Africa, but comes from Nigeria, used a Nigerian folktale about a swallowing drum to introduce the topic ‘sound’ (see Resource 1: Sound story).

When she told the story to her students, she beat three different-sized drums to demonstrate the ‘bim’, ‘bam’, ‘bom’ sounds of the drums in the story.

After the storytelling, they discussed the sounds in the story and how they were made.

Some groups investigated how drums make sound, by using grains of dry rice on the surface of the drums to see the vibrations. They also tried to get different sounds from the same drum.

Other groups investigated what happened when they blew air over the tops of different sizes of empty plastic bottles. They made notes of what they found out, and later they shared what they had thought about and learned.

Finally, they made a list of all the questions they had about sound and displayed it on the classroom wall. Ms Sarpong encouraged them to think of ways they could find out the answers for themselves.

Activity 1

Gather 10–12 different objects that make interesting noises – include both familiar and unusual sounds. You might include sounds recorded on a cellphone. Before students come to class, you will need to set up a screen to hide from view both the objects and the action that makes the sound.

From behind the screen, make each sound in turn. Students need to write down how they think the sound is made.
At the end, show how each sound was made and students score the sounds they identified.

Finally, ask the students if all the sounds were equally easy to identify? How did they identify the more unfamiliar sounds? What clues helped them to identify the sounds?

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### 2 Sound Waves

Sounds are made by vibrating objects. The vibrating object causes the air particles to move closer together (compress) and then apart in a regular pattern – this is called a sound wave. Thus the air carries the sound to our ear.

#### Sound Waves

**What is sound?**

Sound is produced whenever an object vibrates. The object could be a string on a guitar, a flat surface such as a drum skin, the diaphragm in a loudspeaker or even the vocal cords.

Sound transfers energy away from the vibrating object, and it needs something to travel through. Sound cannot travel through a vacuum – in space, no one can hear you scream!

**Speed of sound**

Sound travels at different speeds through different substances. In general, the denser the substance, the faster sound travels through it. Sound travels at 5,100 m/s through steel, 1,480 m/s through water and 330 m/s through air. This is much slower than the speed of light.

Light travels nearly a million times faster through the air than sound does. This is why you hear the thunder clap after you see lightning in a thunderstorm, and why the sound of someone hammering some distance away does not match the hammer blows.

**Echoes**

Sound can reflect from the surface of an object. This is called an echo. Hard surfaces reflect sound better than soft surfaces.

**Loudness**

The loudness of a sound depends upon the size of the vibrations. Big vibrations transfer more energy than small vibrations, so they are louder.

**Pitch**

A sound can range from a high to a low pitch (high to low note). The pitch of a sound depends on how fast the original object is vibrating. If there are lots of vibrations per second, the frequency is high and the sound has a high pitch. If there are few vibrations per second, the frequency is low and the sound has a low pitch.
Checkpoint

The table summarises some features of sound waves and vibrations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size of the vibrations</th>
<th>Number of vibrations in each second</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sounds like</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quiet</td>
<td>Low pitched</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loud</td>
<td>High pitched</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whispering</td>
<td>Man talking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shouting</td>
<td>Child talking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hearing

We hear because sound waves enter the ear and cause the eardrum to vibrate. Three small bones in the inner ear carry these vibrations to the cochlea (pronounced ‘kok-lee-a’). The cochlea contains tiny hairs, which send messages to the brain when they vibrate.

A diagram of the ear

Adapted from: [http://www.bbc.co.uk](http://www.bbc.co.uk)

Hearing damage

Our hearing is easily damaged and as we get older we find it more difficult to hear very low or very high sounds. The three small bones may join together as we age, so they are not so good at passing along the vibrations from the eardrum to the cochlea.

Loud sounds can eventually damage our hearing. If the eardrum is damaged, it may repair itself again, but if the cochlea is damaged, the damage is permanent. People with damaged hearing may find it difficult to follow conversations and may need a hearing aid.
In Activity 2, you ask your students to use everyday objects to make sounds and see how they can change these sounds in different ways. The students should carry out this investigation in small groups. (See the additional resource in the Teaching Pack Additional Resources, Using group work in your classroom.) Spend some time at the end of the investigation talking to your students about how the groups worked; do they have ideas about how they could work together more effectively in the future?

In Teaching Example 2, a teacher uses an interesting set of questions to encourage students to think about their work – another way of involving them in assessment.

### Teaching Example 2

Mrs Antwi organised her multigrade class into groups of six students of different ages. Each group was given some wooden blocks. She asked them to find out how far the sound of blocks clapped together travelled. Each group organised their own investigation. When they had planned their investigation and decided who would carry out each task, she let them work outside. Groups recorded results on a poster. After they had completed their investigations, Mrs Antwi gave them the following questions to discuss in their groups:

- Did they get an accurate answer to the question (results)?
- Were they happy with their data?
- What would they do differently next time?

Mrs Antwi knew this was a good way of helping her students to reflect on their learning. The students came up with some excellent ideas, including that the wind varied and affected the results, not everyone’s hearing is the same and that other noises were distracting.

### Activity 2

Organise your class into small groups to investigate ways to change the sounds made by a range of objects. Give each group one set of equipment – here are some ideas:

- Use different-sized upturned tin cans as drums.
- Fill five identical glass containers with different levels of water and tap them with a pencil.
- Blow air over bottles of four different sizes.
- Use four identical plastic bottles filled with different amounts of sand as shakers.

Students could also choose something for themselves.
Ask your students to think about and then carry out investigations to find out:

- How are you making the sounds?
- How can you make the sound higher? lower? louder?

Each group records their results on a poster, including any patterns that they found. They also discuss:

- how well they have worked together;
- how they might organise themselves next time;
- how happy they are with the group ideas on changing sounds.

Groups could swap equipment if they want to do more experiments, but make sure that they have first recorded their results on the poster or in their book.

You may like to use the information below to help your students with their discussions at the end of the experiment

**Ideas students may have about working in a group**

Choose one of these methods to help your students talk about how they worked together in a group.

1. Write each of the following words on to a card, or on the board. Give each group of students a set of cards to help them develop three sentences to describe how they worked. They should try to use some of these words in their sentences:

   - decide, persuade, tell, ask,
   - argue, describe, agree, opinion,
   - listen, share, organise, lead,

2. Write these statements onto a set of large cards (keep these for different group work activities). Display the statements around the room and ask each group to choose the statements that describe the way they worked.

   - Everyone in the group had a chance to speak.
   - Everyone in the group was encouraged to speak.
   - Not everyone spoke during the activity.
   - We reached agreement in our group.
   - We listened carefully to each other.
   - Sometimes we found it hard to listen to others without interrupting.
   - Not everyone in the group agreed with our way of drawing the poster.
   - Not everyone in the group contributed to the poster.
   - Everyone in the group was able to add to the poster.
3. Choose one or more of these questions. Read it/them out to your class and ask each group to discuss the question(s) in their group for five minutes. Ask for feedback from some of the groups.

- How did sharing your ideas help you?
- Did everyone have a chance to speak?
- Did you encourage each other to share your ideas?
- Did you listen carefully to each other?

3 Musical Instruments

For centuries, people have developed musical instruments using local materials. These all involve plucking, hitting, blowing or rubbing to create vibrations of different pitch and volume. Many instruments also have a box of vibrating air to amplify the sound (make the sound louder). Try to find out about traditional instruments in your community – is there anyone who could come into your classroom and show their instrument?

Teaching Example 3 and Activity 3 involve students exploring musical instruments – either from the community or those students have made themselves. In both cases, students develop criteria to judge the instruments. In the activity, you could also ask your students to develop criteria to judge their presentations.

Inviting local musicians into the school to demonstrate their instruments and to hear the students’ instruments would be a wonderful way to end the activity.

**Teaching Example 3**

Mrs Osei involved her class in the choice of a musical instrument for the school choir. She planned a research project where students researched locally available musical instruments, such as the balafon (xylophone), musical bow, drums and trumpets. The class suggested the kinds of questions that would have to be asked, the points to be awarded for each answer and how they would report back. These questions were put together to form a questionnaire. Students worked in small friendship groups for homework to get answers to their questions.

**Ideas for judging each instrument**

1. These are some questions students could ask about each instrument.
   - Brainstorm a list of questions with your class.
   
   What is it made of?
   How old is it?
   How robust (not easily broken) is it?
   Does it need to be kept in a special place?
   How easy is it to carry around?
   How do you make a sound?
How do you make the note higher? lower?
How do you make a quiet sound? loud sound? Is this easy to do? Can you hear the quiet sound?
What is vibrating?
How easy is it to learn to play?
How much does it cost?

2. Decide which of these questions are important when judging the instrument. We suggest that students in your class choose a maximum of five criteria/questions to judge each instrument.

3. For each of the five criteria or questions your class has chosen, develop a scoring scale out of 5. The maximum for each instrument would then be 25.

4. Each group presents their instrument, the class gives them scores for each criterion.

5. These scores could be recorded on the chalkboard or a large sheet of newsprint on the wall.

Each group should summarise their work by saying:
The final score for our instrument is:
Our instrument is a good choice because … (strengths)
Our instrument might not be a good choice because … (difficulties and problems with the instrument)

To analyse the scores, Mrs Osei made a table on a large manila sheet (also in Resource 5 for hints). As the different groups brought in their reports, the scores were entered into the table. These points were all totalled up and, based on the instrument with the highest total score, the class decided to buy the small locally made wooden balafon.

Traditional musical instruments

The balafon (or ‘bala’) is a resonated frame xylophone of West Africa. It is a lamellophone with wooden keys. There are many different balafons in Africa. They fall into two main categories: the free-key type, in which the keys are independent of one another and of their supports, and those with fixed keys, in which the keys are permanently strung together and attached to their support. In the free-key balafons, the loose keys are assembled on temporary supports; for example, the player’s legs, banana-tree trunks, straw bundles or logs padded with grass. The fixed-key balafons are generally mounted on or suspended from a frame, with or without calabash resonators.
The keys themselves are suspended over the resonators by means of two lines of twisted leather cord, which pass through two ‘vibration knots’. Each key has its own particular length, width and thickness. The keys are struck with two beaters with rounded ends, formed by winding the tips with rubber strips.

Playing techniques

There are two main playing techniques for the balafon:

1) The balafon reproduces the timbres and tonalities of the spoken language. A tonal language is one expressing difference of meaning by variation of tone. Thus, the same word pronounced at different pitches will have a different meaning.

If the musician plays and sings:
- the balafon repeats a phrase that has been sung; or
- the singing repeats a phrase that has been played; or
- the same phrase is played and sung simultaneously. In this case, as the balafon playing is faster than speech, the musician performs melodic phrases to fill in. For this, each interpreter develops his own particular formulas. These formulas may sometimes be as simple as the repetition of a single note.

If the musician plays without singing, he expresses himself in a coded manner by transferring his speech to the balafon.

Balafons are played alone or in pairs, with or without accompaniment from other instruments. Some pieces may be played by two, or even three or four players on the same instrument. One or two of the keys of the balafon are sometimes struck rhythmically with the handle of the beater or with wooden sticks.

Adapted from: [http://www.masabo.com/balafon.html](http://www.masabo.com/balafon.html)
Activity 3

Organise your class into groups of three (or more if you have a very large class).

Tell them that each group will make their own musical instrument, using what they know about changing sounds.

Ask each group to draw a rough diagram, showing their instrument and a list of what they will need to make it.

Ask each group to organise themselves to bring in materials from home.

The next day, give time for each group to make their instrument and prepare a three-minute presentation to:

• show the different sounds the instrument makes (louder/softer, higher/lower);
• try to explain how the instrument makes the different sounds.

Depending on the size of your class, bring groups together or into four larger groups.

With the class (or large group), develop a set of criteria to judge the instruments. Make a list of these criteria on the board. Discuss whether they are all of equal importance.
Social Studies and Arts: Investigating the resources we need for living

1. Importance of natural resources
2. Natural resources and human settlements
3. Shortages of resources

Key question for the teacher: What different activities can you use to explore why people settle in particular places?

Keywords: resources; Teaching Example; group work; settlements; debate; questions

Learning Outcomes for Teachers:
By the end of this section, you will have:
• used small group work and debate to help students understand the resources needed for living;
• used pictures and maps to explore the relationship between the availability of resources and human settlement.

Overview

Every day of our lives we use resources of all kinds and as the population of the world increases there is great pressure on many of these resources.

As a teacher exploring these ideas with your students, it is important to start by finding out what they already know about the resources in their own environment. It is then possible to plan how to extend their knowledge and engage them in thinking more deeply about the issues. The teaching examples in this section show how some teachers explained these ideas and will help you think about what you will do in the activities.
1 Importance of natural resources

On their way to school, your students will see many natural resources that are used in everyday life. In this part, you will ask your students to brainstorm some of these natural resources and the ways people use them. By ranking them according to their importance for the people living in a particular environment, they will see how important these resources are. This will help your students develop their skills of observation and think about their role in using resources wisely. You will need to explore their understanding of the differences between natural resources and resources made by people.

You will also explore ways to use group work to manage your class. Working in this way helps them to share ideas and learn together.

Read Teaching Example 1 before trying Activity 1; these show different ways to find out what your students know. You can try both methods at different times in your classroom.

### Teaching Example 1

Mr Kaizilege is a teacher at Kitahya Primary School, which is near the Ileme village in Tanzania. Most of his students come from the village.

The village is located in an environment that has many natural resources – trees, water, a quarry and cultivated fields. Mr Kaizilege wants to develop his students’ abilities in observing and identifying the natural resources surrounding their village. He hopes this will help them understand their roles and responsibilities with respect to these local resources.

At the end of one day, he asks the students to note down all the resources they see in the village on their way home and bring their list to school. The next day, he divides the class into groups of eight and writes the following question on the board:

What resources do we have in our own environment?

One student in each group copies the question onto the middle of a piece of paper and each group shares their findings from the previous day’s observation exercise, drawing or writing their findings around the question. Mr Kaizilege displays these on the board, and together they reflect on how similar their brainstorms are. Mr Kaizilege suggests gaps that exist in their charts. For example, no one mentioned the quarry or the sun.

Mr Kaizilege then writes sentences on the board. Each sentence shows the use of one resource found in the village. He asks the groups to match each sentence to a resource. The groups share their ideas and reach agreement on them before copying them into their books.
Activity 1

- Write ‘Local resources’ in the middle of the chalkboard. Make sure they are clear about what you mean by ‘resources’. Ask your students to spend three minutes talking to one other person about the resources they use in their village or suburb.
- Then ask different pairs of students to give ideas.
- Record their ideas in two lists on the board – ‘Natural resources’ and ‘Resources made by people’.
- Now divide the class into small groups and ask each group to discuss some differences between the natural resources and those made by people.
- Ask each group to feed back to the class. Discuss with the class the key points that they have made.
- Ask each group to rank the list of all the resources available in their village/suburb, from the most important to the community to the least important.
- Ask each group to present and defend their order to the rest of the class.
- As a class, agree on one ordered list. You might want to organise this as a vote.
- Ask them to think about which resources are readily available and which are more difficult to get hold of or more expensive.

Did the students have a clear sense of the difference between natural resources and those made by people? Does anyone need more help?

2 Natural resources and human settlements

People have traditionally settled in places where they can find natural resources such as water, fuel and access to food, perhaps land to grow crops or keep cattle or fish from the sea or a lake.

To help your students understand why people choose certain places to settle, you will use a historical example to explore the issues of water. You can then relate the key ideas to their own lives.

Using group work will increase the interaction and exchange of ideas, which will help students explore their thinking and develop their understanding more.

Teaching Example 2

Mrs Mpata was teaching her Primary 6 students about the relationship between natural resources and human settlements. She decided to use, as an example, the importance of water as a resource to explain the settlement of people on the shores of Lake Victoria in the Jinja area.
She prepared some notes about life in Uganda in ancient times and wrote these on the board. (See below: Natural resources and human settlement.) She asked the students in pairs to identify the major natural resource that exists in the Jinja area and to discuss why people settled in various places. They were able to identify Lake Victoria as the source of the Nile, and water as the natural resource in determining the settlement of people in the country.

**Natural resources and human settlement**

**The shores of Lake Victoria**

The Lake Victoria Crescent covers the areas directly influenced by the Lake environment. It receives an annual rainfall of 1,500 mm and it is characterised by fertile dark loam soils, favourable for agriculture. The area is gifted with a tropical climate and has tropical forests. The physical natural environment of this region has attracted settlement activities, such as industrialisation subsistence and commercial agriculture, and eco-tourism among others. It is no wonder that this area is highly populated and full of many economic activities, especially around Jinja, Masaka, Kampala, Mukono, Mayuge, Iganga and Mpigi district.

Next, she asked her students to work in groups of eight and share with each other how important water is to the survival of their own village. She asked them to identify where the village gets its water from, and how this affects both the position of the village and the daily lives of the people. The groups shared their findings with the rest of the class, and Mrs Mpata wrote their ideas on the chalkboard. They discussed how important each idea was.

Mrs Mpata was very pleased with her students’ informed discussion – this meant that they understood the relationship between natural resources and human settlement.

**Activity 2**

Divide the class into groups and ask each group to think about the needs of early settlers (e.g. food, water, shelter). Ask one person in each group to list the ideas.

Ask each group to think what would be the best place for a settlement e.g. near a river, but away from flooding.

Ask each group to present its findings to the rest of the class and identify the common factors together.

Next, ask each group to think about and note down activities that might have been carried out by people in these settlements.
Now ask each group to design their own village. Give each group a large blank piece of paper. Ask them to mark these features on the paper:

- a river;
- houses;
- an area of high ground;
- a road or track.

Encourage them to use symbols on their maps and to include as many other features as they want.

Allow time at the end of the lesson for groups to present their village maps to each other and explain where the people in the village get their resources from.

### 3 Shortages of resources

Many resources are scarce and therefore need to be properly managed. Some resources, once used, cannot be replaced. Others are plentiful at the moment, but may not be if people do not look after them or use them wisely.

In Teaching Example 3, the teacher uses a class debate to explore one particular resource issue. If you have older students, you could try this strategy, choosing any topic which is relevant to your community. The success of the debate will depend on giving the students time to plan their speeches well and organising the class so that students are clear about their roles in the debate.

In Activity 3, you are encouraged to use another way to explore a resource issue in your area.

#### Teaching Example 3

Mrs Komuhangi wanted her Primary 6 students to explore the positive and negative effects of managing natural resources. She decided to hold a debate in her class on the issue of bush burning, which had been a problem recently in the local area.

She started the lesson by writing on the chalkboard: ‘Bush burning is harmful to the community’.

**How to debate an issue**

A debate is a formal argument or discussion. One side proposes the topic or motion and the other side opposes it. There are three speakers for each side and there is a time limit within which they have to give their point of view.
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**How to debate an issue**

A debate is a formal argument or discussion. One side proposes the topic or motion and the other side opposes it. There are three speakers for each side and there is a time limit within which they have to give their point of view.

- A chairperson introduces the topic and the six speakers.
- The first speaker from the team that is proposing the motion speaks first. The first speaker introduces the topic. They may speak for a limited time (such as a maximum of three or five minutes each).
- Next, the first speaker from the team that is opposing the motion speaks. This speaker also introduces the topic, but from the opposing point of view.
- They are followed by the second speaker from each side. The role of the second speaker is to enlarge on the argument by giving valid examples and evidence to back up their team’s point of view.
- The chairperson then opens the debate to the floor (the rest of the audience), who can question the speakers and challenge their arguments.
- The third speaker from the opposing team then sums up the team’s argument.
- The third speaker from the proposing team sums up the team’s argument.
- The class votes on the motion, based on the strength of the different arguments.

Mrs Komuhangi then explained how a debate works. She asked for three volunteers to propose – or support – the motion and for three volunteers to argue against the motion. She explained to both teams that they must gather evidence to back up their points of view. To help them find the evidence, she encouraged each team to speak to older people in the community about why the community often burns the grass in their area. She also gave both teams some information that she found on the Internet, which looked at the role of bush burning in traditional communities in Africa, and some ways to manage bush burning.
Bush burning:

Reasons for bush burning

A typical example of bush burning is when farmers burn their harvested fields to prepare their farms for the next planting season, or during dry seasons when farmers organise hunting parties for popular game often called ‘bush meat’. The bush is deliberately set alight to trap small animals during hunting. Other fires are caused by accidents during the dry season when most bushes and forests have dried up and are very combustible; cigarettes, matches, campfires etc. can spark up small fires that later grow bigger.

Bush burning management strategies

Bushfires can be managed by professional staff, such as rangers and park workers, with help from volunteers from rural areas. However, large fires are often of such a size that no conceivable firefighting service could attempt to stop the whole fire directly, and so other techniques are needed.

This might involve controlling the area that the fire can spread to by clearing control lines. Here the land is cleared of any vegetation either by controlled burning or digging a ditch. This takes time and does not happen often. This can interfere with the forest ecosystem.

Who is affected by bush burning?

Rural farming communities are rarely threatened directly by bush burning as the fires are usually located in the middle of large areas of cleared, usually grazed, land, where often there is very little grass left. People who live in urban areas that spread into forested areas are more open to threats of fire.

Adapted from: http://en.wikipedia.org/

Bush burning in Uganda

During every dry season, cattle keepers in Nakasongola district indiscriminately set fires on the vegetation so that it sprouts. The fires destroy habitats for the animals that live underneath the inselbergs. Those that escape hide in burrows, but birds’ nests do not survive the fires.

‘Bush burning is the major environmental abuse in the district,’ says Joseph Kimeze, a 28-year-old herdsman from Wajjala, Nakasongola. He adds that the prolonged dry periods are always accompanied by indiscriminate bush burning.

‘We do not all burn the bushes for fun, but we want fresh grass for our animals,’ Kimeze says. ‘Once we burn the old vegetation, the pastures regenerate … [and] are good for grazing.’

Kimeze and others do not realise that by burning bush, they are exposing the already harsh terrain to more destruction.

Nakasongola has about 20 inselbergs scattered in Wajjala, Sasira and Kasozi parishes. They stand out at around 1,097 metres above sea level.
An inselberg is a German word meaning a rocky mountain. It is a unique rocky outcrop formed as a result of wind erosion. In Uganda, inselbergs are also found in Karamoja. They are usually endowed with peculiar ecological diversity.

Kunobera says during the 2003 World Environment Day, the National Environmental Management Authority (NEMA) gave Nakasongola enough pine seedlings for two acres.

Other semi-arid areas of Uganda found in the cattle corridor of Kumi, Soroti, Katakwi, Moroto and Nakapiripirit districts also experience extensive bush burning and wind erosion during the dry season.

In response to the effects of drought, the district and development partners are promoting sustainable agricultural practices.

Water is being made available in the form of valley dams, in addition to promoting rainwater harvesting.

Different community and non-governmental based organisations are working hand-in-hand with the local government to promote tree-planting programmes.


Mrs Komuhangi gave the teams a week to prepare for the debate, including time in one lesson for all the class to think about the positive and negative aspects of bush burning. The rest of the class also tried to find out what they could from the local community and share this with both teams as appropriate. On the day of the debate, Mrs Komuhangi reminded the class of the rules of debating, and how important it was for them to ask questions if they did not understand.

At the end of the debate, a vote was taken and the motion was carried by a large majority. Mrs Komuhangi reminded the class that it was important to respect each other’s viewpoints and not to gloat as ‘winners’. She was pleased that both teams put forward interesting ideas to support or oppose the motion.

In the next lesson, Mrs Komuhangi asked her students to brainstorm ideas of how to develop community awareness of the negative effects of bush burning and provide alternative methods of managing the land in their community. She wrote their ideas on the chalkboard and encouraged the students to discuss the ideas with their families.
Activity 3

Choose an image of a different environment and pin it up in your classroom. If you have photographs from a visit to a different part of Nigeria or have access to images in a textbook or magazine you could use these. Try to choose a place that is very different to the environment of the school.

• Explain to your students where the photograph is of.
• Organise them into groups of three/four and ask them to think of between four and six words to describe the place.
• After five minutes, ask each group to give you one word. Write these as a word bank on the board or on a sheet of newsprint.
• Next, ask your students to work in their groups and to list the features of this place that are similar and different to their own environment.
Life Skills: Exploring good citizenship

1 Family rights and duties
2 Community responsibilities
3 Discussing citizenship

Key question for the teacher: How can you use different ways of organising students to develop their understanding of citizenship?

Keywords: resources; Teaching Example; group work; settlements; debate; questions

Learning Outcomes for Teachers:

By the end of this section, you will have:

• developed your skills to help you relate students’ previous knowledge to new knowledge about citizenship;

• found different ways to help students find out about community responsibilities;

• organised a school assembly.

Overview

Every day of our lives we use resources of all kinds and as the population of the Large classes present special problems for teachers – particularly if they are multigrade classes (see additional resources: Working with large and/or multigrade classes). In this section, we make suggestions about using different types of classroom management for developing students' understanding of citizenship.

Just telling students about their roles and responsibilities as citizens has much less impact than involving them in active experiences. This section helps you think about different ways to find out what they know and use this to extend their understanding.

All citizens, including children, have rights and duties (responsibilities), but these vary from person to person. In order for students to understand this, they need to explore what rights and responsibilities mean for them, share their findings with other students and consider the differences. To do this, they need to talk either as a whole class or in pairs or groups.
1 Family rights and duties

Citizenship is a difficult idea for young students and they may not understand it at first. It is a good idea, therefore, to relate it to something they know – such as the kinds of tasks that are carried out at home. With older students, you will be able to explore the topic more deeply and extend their understanding by thinking about their roles and responsibilities within the wider community.

Teaching Example 1

Mrs Nqwinda is a teacher in Malbena Primary School in Mndantsane in the Eastern Cape of South Africa. She has a Grade 4 class of 62 students who sit in groups of five around each desk. It is not easy to move the children or the desks, so she used desk groups to discuss the duties students have to carry out at home. She chooses the group work method because she wants to make sure that all the students have a chance to share their ideas.

As they discuss their duties for ten minutes, she moves around the classroom making sure that no one is dominating the discussion and reminding each group to think about the three duties they are to feed back on.

The students find this an easy task. As the groups feed back their answers, Mrs Nqwinda writes each new duty on the chalkboard. She is interested to find that most of the girls help their mothers with tasks around the house, like cleaning and cooking and looking after smaller children. Most of the boys help their fathers and uncles with fetching wood and water, and some of them work in the fields and gardens. They have an interesting talk about gender roles in the household.

Mrs Nqwinda then asks if they could say what things they were free to do in their family. The students find this task more difficult, so she encourages them to discuss in their groups before giving feedback. Mrs Nqwinda writes their answers on the chalkboard and explains that these things they are free to do are their ‘rights’. She checks they understand the difference between duties and rights.

See Resource 1: Rights and duties of children for the list of her students’ rights and duties in the home.

Rights and duties of children – Mrs Nqwinda’s class list

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Our duties are:</th>
<th>Our rights are:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Cleaning the house</td>
<td>• Somewhere to live – shelter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Fetching wood/water</td>
<td>• Food to eat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Looking after younger children</td>
<td>• Protection from harm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Cooking</td>
<td>• Care from adults</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Working on the land</td>
<td>• Medical care when sick</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Activity 1

• Discuss the word ‘duties’ with your class and make sure they understand what it means.

• Ask the students, in pairs, to discuss and list the duties they have to carry out at home.

• After ten minutes, ask each pair in turn to give a different duty and list these on the chalkboard (many will have the same duties). Make sure they all understand these are their duties. Ask each student to record their own list of duties in their book.

• Next, ask the pairs to discuss the things they are free to do in their homes (such as read books, go to worship, go to school, play inside or outside).

• List their ideas on the chalkboard and explore their understanding about how these are their ‘rights’.

• Ask them to list and draw the things they like doing most – duties or rights.

Did you find working in pairs easy to manage? If so, why? If not, why?

How would you change this activity to improve it next time?

Did the students’ knowledge and ideas surprise you?

We all live in a group or family, and our family is part of a group, such as a village or a community. Within our community we have rights and duties. This means we must do certain things in the community and the community must do, or provide, certain things for us. The Rights of the Child below will help you prepare for this topic.

Rights of the Child in Uganda

In line with the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child passed in 1990, the Ugandan Government passed a law in 1995 known as the Children’s Statute. The Rights of the Child are as follows:

A child in Uganda:

1. Should have the same rights as an adult, irrespective of sex, religion, custom, rural or urban background, nationality, tribe, race, marital status of parents or opinion.

2. The right to grow up in a peaceful, caring and secure environment, and to have the basic necessities of life, including food, health care, clothing and shelter.

3. The right to a name and a nationality.

4. The right to know who his or her parents are and to enjoy family life with them and/or their extended family. Where a child has no family or is unable to live with them, he or she should have the right to be given the best substitute care available.

5. The right to have his or her best interests given priority in any decisions made concerning the child.

6. The right to express an opinion and to be listened to, and, to be consulted in accordance with his or her understanding in decisions which affect his or her wellbeing.
7. The right to have his or her health protected through immunisation and appropriate health care, and to be taught how to defend himself/herself against illness. When ill, a child should have a right to receive proper medical care.

8. A child with disability should have the right to be treated with the same dignity as other children and to be given special care, education and training where necessary so as to develop his or her potential and self-reliance.

9. The right to refuse to be subjected to harmful initiation rites and other harmful social and customary practices, and to be protected from those customary practices which are prejudicial to a child’s health.

10. The right to be treated fairly and humanely within the legal system.

11. The right to be protected from all forms of abuse and exploitation.

12. The right to basic education.

13. The right to leisure which is not morally harmful, to play and to participate in sports and positive cultural and artistic activities.

14. The right not to be employed or engaged in activities that harm his or her health, education, mental, physical or moral development.

15. A child, if a victim of armed conflict, a refugee, or in a situation of danger or extreme vulnerability, should have the right to be among the first to receive help and protection.

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2 Community responsibilities

Students need to be able to meet expert people who are willing to talk with them about their ideas on this topic. This will help students to understand their responsibilities in the community and motivate them to learn. Before a visitor comes to your classroom, you may need to think about moving the furniture to make the atmosphere more welcoming. This will make the visitor feel comfortable and help the students’ learning because they can see and hear better.

**Teaching Example 3**

Mr Mabikke wanted his 48 Primary 4 students to discuss their community responsibilities. He decided that the layout of the classroom was not helpful for group discussion work so he made a plan for a new organisation of the desks. He discussed it with his head teacher, who approved the change. With a fellow teacher to help him, he reorganised the classroom into eight groups, each with three desks arranged to seat six students. The next day, the children were excited that the classroom was different. Mr Mabikke explained that the arrangement would mean they could do more group discussion.
He asked the students to discuss, in their groups, what the community provides for them – the rights of the people living in the community. But first he talked with them about taking turns to speak in their groups and listening to each other with respect. Each group was to make a poster showing the different things the community provides as their rights as members of the community.

His students knew that they also had duties along with rights so, in their groups, they discussed what their duties in the community were and then they marked these on their poster in a different colour and provided a key.

All the posters were displayed on the wall so the groups could see everyone’s ideas before they had a final discussion about which were most important rights and duties.

Activity 2

• Discuss with your students their duties in the community.

• Guide their talk towards care for the environment, respecting people and property, taking care of each other. Organise the class into groups and ask the groups to make a poster, write a poem or a story, or draw a picture to show their ideas.

• Discuss their rights in the community – help them understand they have a right to education, to medical care, to be safe in the streets and their homes, and to speak their opinions.

• Talk about community leaders and other important people in your community. Make a list of all the people who serve the community.

• Decide who they would like to visit the school to tell them about their work in the community. It could be a village elder, a community leader, a political leader, a nurse, a librarian, a police officer or a religious leader.

• Arrange the visit and prepare questions with your class to ask the visitor.

After the visit, discuss with the students what they found out about the work of the visitor.

3 Discussing citizenship

To qualify as a citizen of any country you have to meet certain criteria. These are usually laid down in the Constitution. Try to get a copy of the Constitution of your country and see what it says. Excerpt from the Constitution below lists criteria for qualification as a citizen.

Excerpt from the Constitution of Uganda, showing those who qualify to be a Ugandan citizen

Citizens of Uganda

Every person who, on the commencement of this Constitution is a citizen of Uganda shall continue to be such a citizen.
Citizenship by birth

The following persons shall be citizens of Uganda by birth:

(a) every person born in Uganda one of whose parents or grandparents is or was a member of any of the indigenous communities existing and residing within the borders of Uganda as at the first day of February 1926 and set out in the Third Schedule to this Constitution; and

(b) every person born in or outside Uganda one of whose parents or grandparents was at the time of birth of that person a citizen of Uganda by birth.

Foundlings and adopted children

(1) A child of not more than five years of age found in Uganda, whose parents are not known, shall be presumed to be a citizen of Uganda by birth.

(2) A child under the age of 18 years neither of whose parents is a citizen of Uganda, who is adopted by a citizen of Uganda shall, on application, be registered as a citizen of Uganda.

Citizenship by registration

(1) Every person born in Uganda:

(a) at the time of whose birth:

(i) neither of his or her parents and none of his or her grandparents had diplomatic status in Uganda; and

(ii) neither of his or her parents and none of his or her grandparents was a refugee in Uganda; and

(b) who has lived continuously in Uganda since the ninth day of October 1962 shall, on application, be entitled to be registered as a citizen of Uganda.

(2) The following persons shall, upon application be registered as citizens of Uganda:

(a) every person married to a Uganda citizen upon proof of a legal and subsisting marriage of three years or such other period prescribed by Parliament;

(b) every person who has legally and voluntarily migrated to and has been living in Uganda for at least ten years or such other period prescribed by Parliament;

(c) every person who, on the commencement of this Constitution, has lived in Uganda for at least 20 years.

(3) Paragraph (a) of clause (2) of this article applies also to a person who was married to a citizen of Uganda who, but for his or her death, would have continued to be a citizen of Uganda under this Constitution.

(4) Where a person has been registered as a citizen of Uganda under paragraph (a) of clause (2) of this article and the marriage by virtue of which that person was registered is:

(a) annulled or otherwise declared void by a court or tribunal of competent jurisdiction; or

(b) dissolved, that person shall, unless he or she renounces that citizenship, continue to be a citizen of Uganda.
Citizenship by naturalisation

Parliament shall by law provide for the acquisition and loss of citizenship by naturalisation.

One way to explore your students’ ideas on citizenship is given in Teaching Example 3.

School assemblies can bring a topic to a close in a way that will motivate your students. How to prepare for a school assembly is explored in Activity 3.

**Teaching Example 3**

Mrs Makoha, from a small rural school in Uganda, invited the Regional District Commissioner (RDC) to visit her Primary 5 class of 56 students. The RDC brought with him a photograph of the president, the national flag, coat of arms/national emblem, his identity card and passport. He explained to the children about the importance of these things in being a Ugandan. He explained what the different parts of the flag symbolise. They also sang the national anthem and made a list of all the events where they sing the national anthem.

After the visit, Mrs Makoha organised the class in small groups around their desks and asked them to discuss why it is important for them to be a citizen of Uganda. She moved around the class and guided the groups to stay focused on the task and to listen to each other’s ideas.

Next, she asked them to work individually and write their own reasons in their books. She collected in their work and was able to assess how much each student had learned about citizenship. There were five students whose reasons were less well developed and Mrs Makoha discussed the reasons with these students during break to assess whether they understood the ideas.

**Activity 3**

Ask your head teacher if you can hold a school assembly on ‘Being a good citizen’.

Discuss what the content of the assembly might be with your class.

Each group prepares their part and the resources needed. You might want to suggest to your students that the following need to be included:

- Who is a citizen?
- Rights and duties in the home.
- Rights and duties in the community.
- Symbols of national identity – flag, anthem, identity card, coat of arms, passport.
- Why is it important to be a good citizen?
Give groups different tasks and allow them time to prepare their contributions – maybe over several lessons.

Make the task clear, so that each student produces a piece of work that you can use to assess their learning.

Encourage them to write poems or texts for reading, paint flags or find a text they want to read or use.

Agree the order for the presentations and rehearse.

Present your assembly to the school.

Afterwards, discuss with the students what worked well and what could have been improved. How well did they think the rest of the school understood about citizenship?