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PRIMARY FIVE SCIENCE LESSON NOTES

P.5 SCIENCE LESSON NOTES TERM III

CHANGES IN OUR ENVIRONMENT

There are three changes in our environment:

a. Chemical changes.
b. Biological changes.
c. Physical changes.

CHEMICAL CHANGES

Chemical changes are changes in which new substances are formed from.

Characteristics of chemical changes

a) The changes are irreversible.
b) A new substance is always formed.
c) There is a change in weight.
d) Heat or light or both are produced.

Examples of chemical changes

1. Burning of wood to ash.

CN1 CO \j," LO

Rusting of metals.
Burning of candle wick to ash Burning of paper to ash Burning of wood to charcoal..

PHYSICAL CHANGES

Physical changes are changes in which no new substances are formed.

Characteristics of physical changes

i. The changes are reversible.
ii. No heat or light is given out.
iii. There is no change in weight.
iv. There is no new substance formed.

Examples of physical changes

1. Melting of ice to water.
2. Melting of plastic.
3. Melting of butter.
4. Melting of candle wax.
5. Freezing of water to ice.
6. Evaporation of water to steam.
7. Water turning into water.
8. Vapour turning into water.

BIOLOGICAL CHANGES

Biological changes are changes which take place in the life of living things.

Characteristics of Biological changes

a) Young ones grow mature and become old.
b) Small ones change size and become big.

Examples of biological changes

1. Body growth.
1. Development of breasts in females.
2. Growth of nails in animals.
3. Growth of hair.
4. Growing of a seed to seedlings/Germination.

OTHER CHANGES IN THE ENVIRONMENT

1. Formation of clouds.
2. Temperature change.
3. Occurrence of day and night.

Man made changes

1. Man has built roads t.
2. Draining swamps.
3. Man has improved on animals, plants and birds by crossbreeding.
4. Man has built bridges across rivers, lakes and valleys.
5. Forests have been cut to create land for Agriculture.
6. Man has planted trees.

Natural changes

1. Earthquake
2. Drought
3. Floods
4. Change in season
5. Land slides
6. Rain formation
7. Days and night

Effects of various types of changes to people, animals and plants

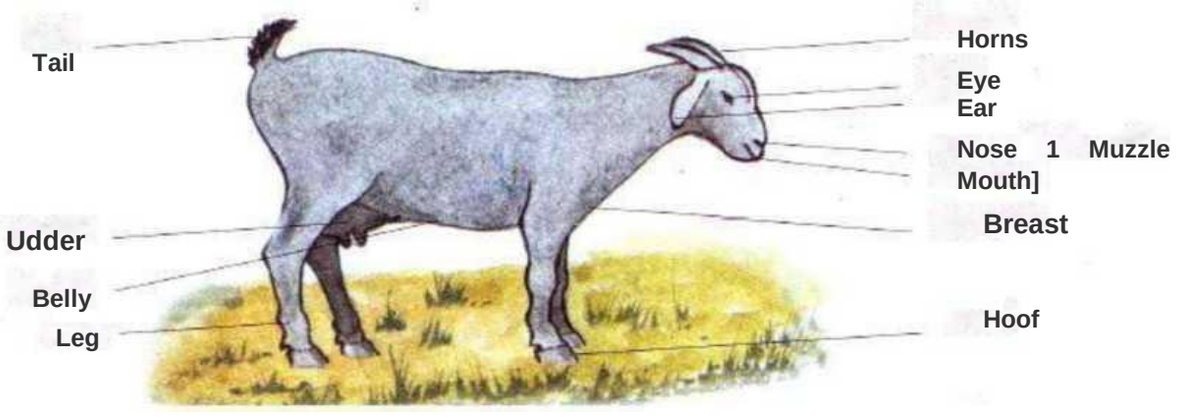
1. People change from young one to old ones and later die.
2. Animals grow old and become useless.

Plants grow and later die.
Some animals are improved by crossbreeding.
New varieties of seeds are produced after research work. Through research, plants and animals grow and mature quickly. Cutting trees cause drought.
Earthquakes destroy life and property.
Droughts cause plants to die.
Floods destroy property and lives.

GOATS

Reasons for keeping goats Meat production.
Milk production.
Skin.
Some provide us with mohair.
Source of income.
Cultural purposes.
Hooves and horn are used in the making of buttons and glue. Animal droppings are used as manure (farmyard manure)

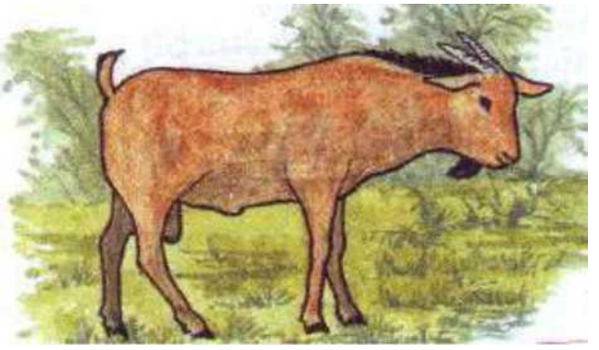
External parts of a goat



Breeds of goats reared in Uganda Mubende goats.
The East African small goats.
Boar goats.
Saanen
The Somali goats.(Galla) Toggenburg

7.

Anglo Nubian Mubende goats

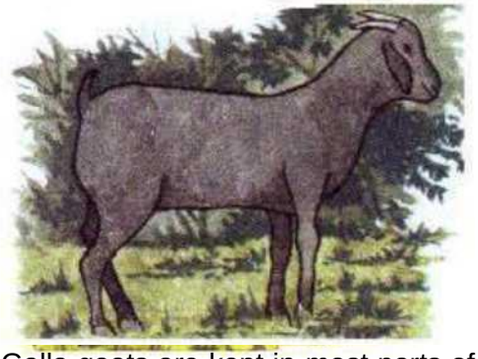


1. A mubende male goat is widely kept in Uganda. It weighs
2. between 40kg to 50 kg when mature.

1. The East African small goats are widely kept in Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. A mature goat can weigh between 25kg to 30kg.

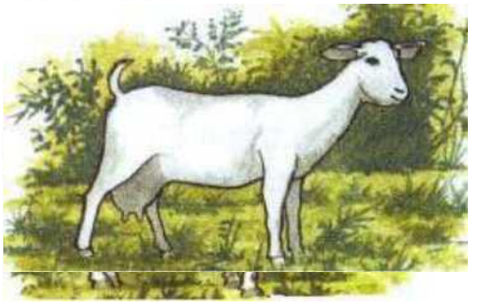
The East African small goats are of mixed colours.

The Somali goats (Galla)



1. Galla goats are kept in most parts of
2. East Africa. They were imported from Somalia.

Saanen goats



Saanen goats are white in colour.

1. They produce a lot of milk.
2. They were imported from Switzerland.
1. It can weigh up to 40kg when mature.
2. It holds (keeps) its ears (erect) upright.

NOTE: a. Saanen, Anglo nubian and Toggenburg are special breed mainly for dairy (milk production).

b. Angora goats are kept for its mohair.

Reasons for housing goats

1. To protect them from bad weather.
To prevent them from destroying crops.
To control spread of diseases and parasites.
To protect them from wild animals.

GRAZING

1. Grazing is the act of eating grass by livestock.

Examples of livestock:

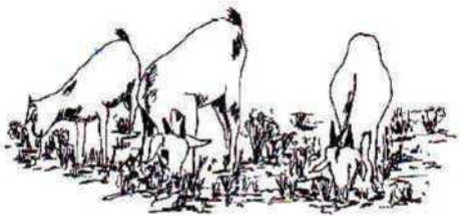
a. Cattle
b. Goats
c. Sheep
d. Pigs
e. Poultry.

Types (methods) of grazing livestock

a. Free grazing
b. Tethering method
c. Paddock grazing
d. Zero grazing

FREE GRAZING.

Free grazing is when goats are left to roam about to graze on their own.



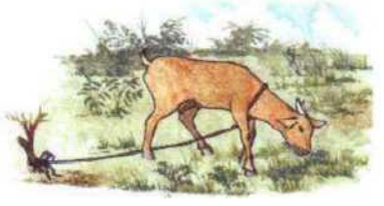
Advantages of free grazing

1. Animals get a variety of food which may enable them to get a balanced diet.
2. Animals get enough physical exercises as they move round looking for their food.
3. Free grazing cuts down the cost of feeding.
4. Manure in form of droppings is distributed all over the area the animals feed from.

Disadvantages of free grazing

1. The animals can easily get diseases and parasites.
2. The animals can get lost.
3. Thieves can easily steal the animals.
4. The animals can destroy crops.
5. The animals can be eaten by wild animals.

TETHERING METHOD OF GRAZING.



1. This is a method of grazing where animals are tied on a peg as they graze.
2. This method of grazing allows the animals to eat pasture around it.
3. Other feeds may be given to the animals at the position where they are tied.

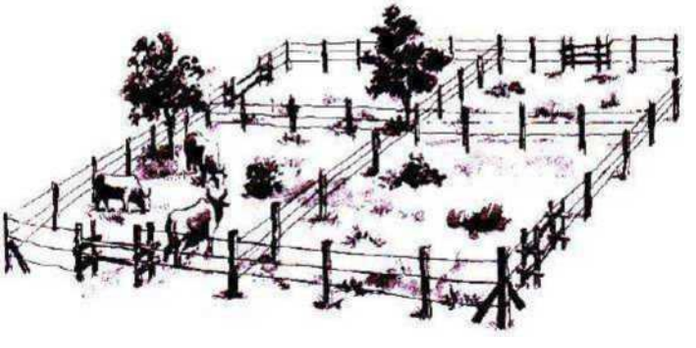
Advantages of tethering method.

1. It is very easy to collect manure.
2. Farmers with small land can also keep animals using this method.
3. It is easy to control parasites and diseases.

Disadvantages of tethering method.

1. The rope may injure the animal.
2. This method is only suitable for a few animals.
3. Replacement of worn out ropes tends to be costly.
4. The animals feeding is limited to the radius of the rope.
5. The animals can easily be attacked by wild animals.

PADDOCK GRAZING



1. This is the method of grazing where land is divided into small plots called paddocks.

2. Animals are grazed on one paddock for a few days before they are taken to another paddock.
3. When animals are grazed in one paddock, pasture in the already grazed paddocks is growing again.

Advantages of Paddock grazing

1. It controls soil erosion.
2. It controls overgrazing.
3. Grass is given time to grow.
4. Manure is distributed evenly in the pastureland.
5. It is easy to control parasites (worms and ticks).
6. Pasture is properly used.
7. Farmer gets time to do other activities.

Disadvantages of paddock grazing.

1. This method of grazing requires a big piece of land.
2. It is expensive to construct the paddocks.

ZERO GRAZING.

1. Is the method of grazing where animals are kept in a sheltered place all the time and are fed from there.
2. Farmers who have small pieces of land mainly practice zero grazing.

Advantages of zero grazing.

1. It is easy to control parasites and diseases.
2. Farmers with small piece of land can also keep animals.
3. It is very easy to collect manure.
4. Animals are more protected against bad weather.
5. Animals yield more.

Disadvantages of zero grazing.

1. It is expensive to maintain.
2. Animals lack enough physical exercises since they are indoors all the time.
3. It is tiresome to collecr pasture for the animal.
4. It requires a lot of labour to clean the animal shelter everyday.

DISEASES THAT ATTACK GOATS

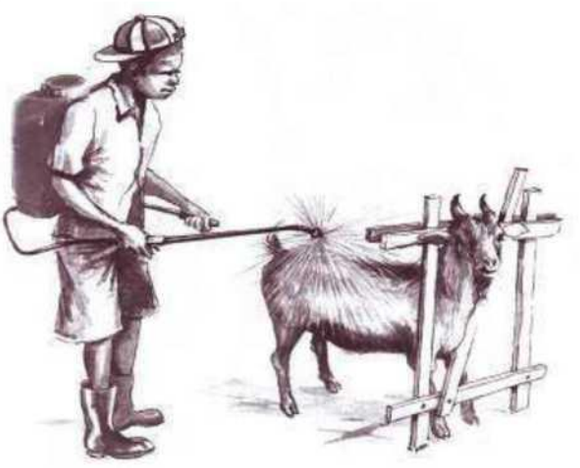
	DISEASE	CAUSE
1	Anthrax	bacteria
2	Pneumonia	bacteria
3	Foot root	bacteria
4	Heart water	protozoa
5	Nagana	protozoa
6	Red water	protozoa
7	Coccidiosis	protozoa
8	Nairobi disease	virus
9	Foot and mouth disease	virus
10	Rinder pest	virus

Parasites that attack goats

1. Internal parasites that attack goats include:
   a. Tape worms
   b. Liver fluke
2. Internal parasites can be controlled by Deworming

3. External parasites that attack goats include:
   a. Ticks
   b. Mites
   c. Lice
4. External parasites can be controlled by:
   a. Spraying using acaricides.
   b. By dipping.
   c. Hand picking.
   d. Paddock grazing.

Spraying using acaricides to kill external parasites



Terms used in goats keeping.

i. Kidding - Is the act of giving birth to a young goat.
ii. Kid - A young one of a goat.
iii. Billy - A mature male goat.
iv. Nanny - A mature female goat.
v. Mohair - Hair got from goats.
vi. Gestation period - The time a nanny goat gets pregnant to giving birth.

Note. The gestation period of goats is five months.

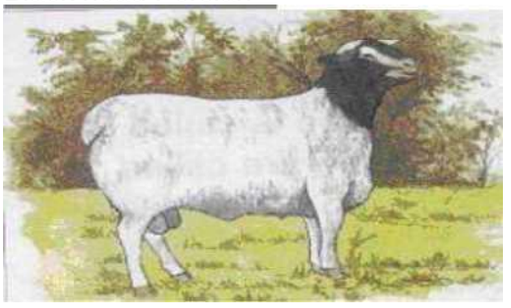
SHEEP
Types of breeds of sheep

a. Local breeds
b. Exotic breeds

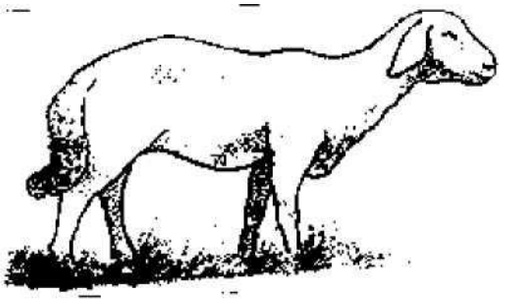
Local breeds

1. Local breeds of sheep are widely kept in most parts of Uganda.
2. Examples of local sheep kept in Uganda:
   a. Black head Persian
   b. The Masai
   c. The Somali sheep

Black head Persian



The Masai

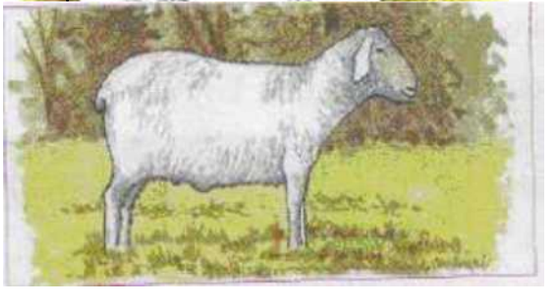


Exotic (foreign) breeds

1. These breeds were imported from out side countries.
2. Examples of exotic sheep kept in Uganda:
   a. The merino sheep
   b. Hampshire Down
   c. Romney marsh
   d. Corriedella The

merino sheep

Hampshire Down

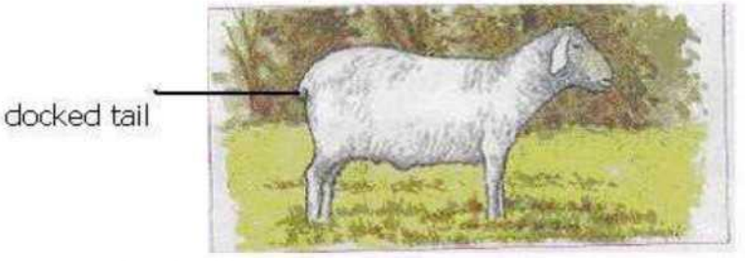


3. Special breeds of sheep kept for wool production include:
   a. The merino sheep
   b. Romney marsh

DOCKING

1. Docking is a practice of cutting short the sheep's tail.
2. Female sheep are commonly docked.

An illustration of a docked sheep



Reasons for docking

1. For easy mating.
   To remove hiding places for parasites.
   For hygienic purposes.

Ways of docking animals Sheep are docked using a sharp knife.

Gestation period of a sheep
The gestation period of a sheep is 150 days (5 months).

TERMS USED IN SHEEP KEEPING

1. RAM
   A ram is a mature male sheep.
2. A EWE
   A ewe is a mature female sheep.
3. LAMB
   A lamb is a young one of a sheep.
3. LAMBING
   Lambing is the giving birth to a lamb by a ewe.
4. DOCKING
   Docking is the practice of cutting short of sheep's tail.

PIGGERY

Piggery is the rearing and management of pigs.

BREEDS OF PIGS

a. Exotic breed of pigs.
b. Local breeds of pigs.
c. Crossbreeds.

d. Wild pigs.

LOCAL BREED OF PIGS

1. These are the pigs whose origin is within the country.
2. These local breeds of pigs can be improved by cross breeding.
3. Local breeds of pigs are also referred to as indigenous breeds of pigs.

WILD PIGS

1. These are the pigs commonly found in bushes
2. Examples of the wild pigs are the warthogs.
3. Wild pigs are sometimes known as untamed pigs.

CROSS BREEDS

Crossbreeds are got as a result of mating of two different breeds.

EXOTIC BREEDS OF PIGS

Exotic breeds are sometimes called foreign breeds.

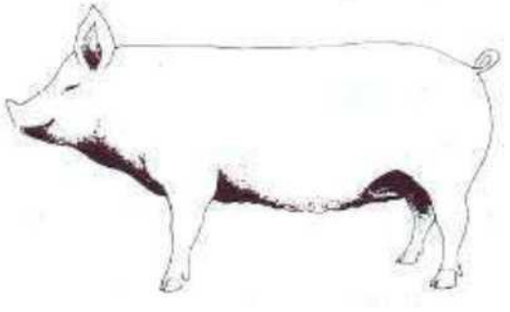
Characteristics of exotic breeds of pigs.

a. They have the same colour, shape and size when mature.
b. They produce a lot of pork; bacon or skin.
c. They have the same ability to produce the same number of piglets.
d. They grow and mature fast.

Examples of exotic breeds.

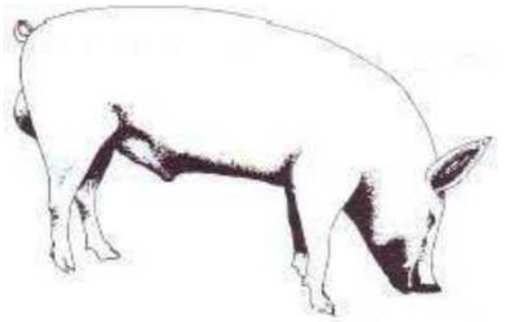
a. Land race.
b. Large white
c. Middle white.
d. Hampshire.
e. Poland China.
f. Wessex saddle
g. Large black.

LARGE WHITE.



1. It's the most common breed in East Africa.
2. It's white in colour.
3. Large white is also known as Yorkshire.

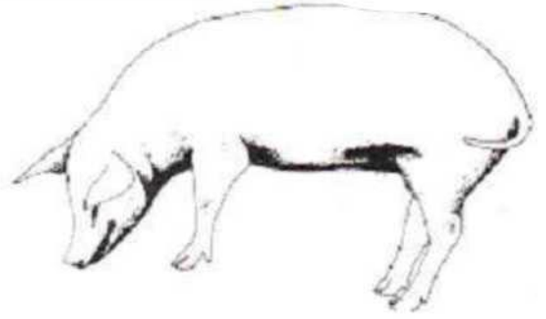
LANDRACE.



1. It is white in colour.
2. It is good for bacon.
3. Bacon is the meat got from the back and sides of a pig.

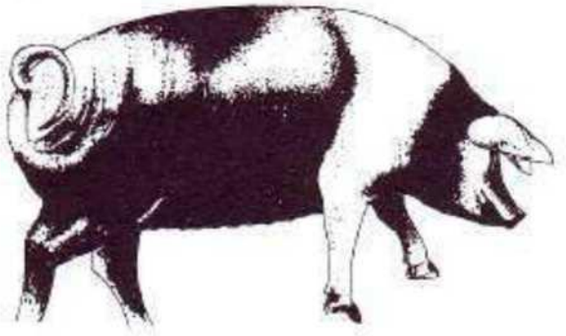
It is black with a white strip (saddle) at the shoulder.

MIDDLE WHITE



1. Middle white is white in colour.
2. It is smaller than the large white.

WESSESX SADDLE BACK



SYSTEMS OF KEEPING PIGS

There are two systems commonly used to keep pigs:

a. Extensive system
b. Intensive system

EXTENSIVE SYSTEM

1. This is the system in which pigs are allowed to roam about and housed at night.
2. Extensive system is also known as outdoor system.

Advantages of extensive system 1. It is cheap to maintain.

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Cuts costs of feeding because pigs look for their food.
Pigs get enough physical exercises.
Pigs get a balanced diet.

Disadvantages of extensive system

1. Pigs can easily destroy crops.
2. Can easily be stolen.
3. Easy spread of diseases and parasites.
4. It is hard to keep health records.

INTENSIVE SYSTEM

1. It is a system in which pigs are kept and fed indoor.
2. This system is also known as indoor system.
3. Pigs are kept in small structures called sties.

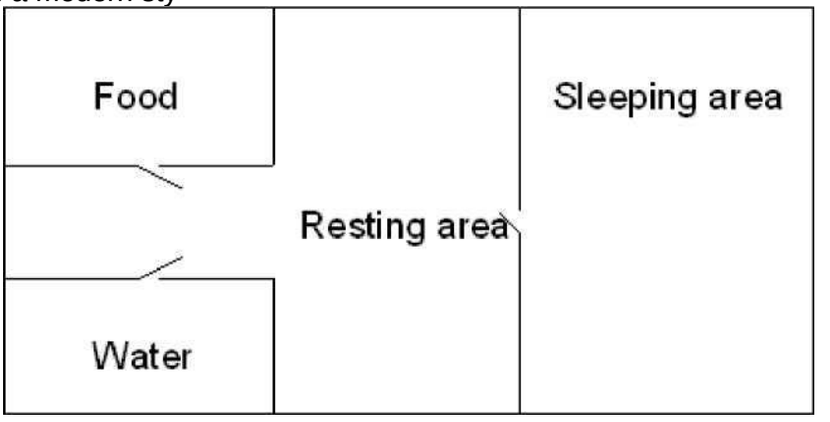
Advantages of intensive system

1. Pigs are usually free from infections.
2. Pigs grow and mature quickly.
3. Farm records are easy to keep.
4. Diseases and parasites are easy to control.
5. Low death rates due to close attention.
6. Animals yield more.

Disadvantages of intensive system

1. It is expensive to maintain.
2. It needs close attention.
3. It is tiresome to clean the sty everyday.

The internal structure of a modern sty



HOUSING OF PIGS

1. A house for pigs is called a sty.
2. Things or factors considered when constructing a sty:
   a. A sty should be well ventilated.
   b. A sty should be constructed in a well-drained area.
   c. The area should be warm and dry.
   d. The sty should be large enough for easy cleaning.
   e. The floor should be made slanting for easy cleaning.

GESTATION PERIOD OF A PIG

1. Gestation is the period from fertilization to birth.
2. The gestation period of a pig is three months, three weeks and three days.
3. During the last 45 days of the gestation the sow should be steamed up.

STEAMING UP

Steaming up is a special feeding a pregnant animal on foods rich in proteins.

Advantages of steaming up

1. The animal builds up its body in preparation to give birth.

2. Steaming encourages the foetus or embryo to grow well.
3. Steaming up leads to increased milk production by the sow.
4. Steaming up prevents low birth weight.
5. Steaming up lengthens the lactation period.

Note. Lactation is the period through which a sow is able to produce milk.

CASTRATION

Castration is the removal of testes from the male animals.

Method of castration

a. Open operation.
b. Closed operation.
c. Use of the loop.

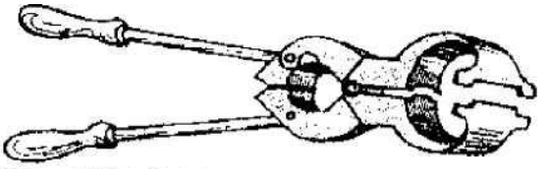
Open operation.

1. This is when a knife is used to cut a slit to open the scrotum vertically.
2. The testes are removed.
3. A hot iron is used to burn and seal off the sperm duct.
4. The wound is then disinfected using dettol or any other disinfectant.

Closed operation.

1. This is where an instrument called a burdizzo is used to destroy or crash the sperm duct.

A diagram of a burdizzo



Use of the loop.

1. In this method, an elastic rubber band is used to squeeze the sperm duct.
2. When the sperm duct and the blood vessel are broken, the testes shrink.

Reasons for castration

1. Castration makes animals docile.
2. Castrated animals tend to grow faster than uncastrated animals.
3. Castration prevents in breeding.
4. Castrated animals can be grazed or kept with females without trouble.
5. Castrated animals tend to fatten.
6. Prevent bad smell.

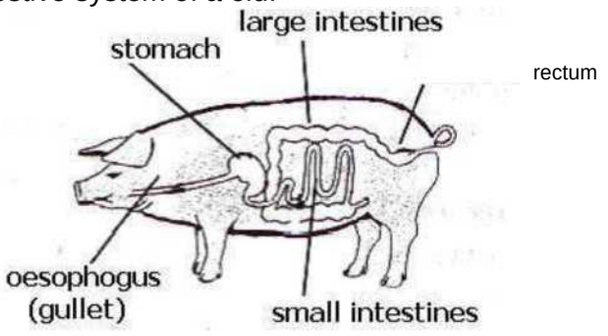
RUMINANTS

1. Ruminants are animals that chew cud.
2. Ruminants have four stomachs.
3. Examples of ruminants:
   a. Cattle
   b. Sheep
   c. Goats

NON-RUMINANTS

1. Non-ruminants do not chew cud.
   - Non-ruminants have one stomach.
   - Examples of non-ruminants:
     a. Pigs
     b. Man
     c. Rabbits

The dioestive system of a oid.



DISEASES THAT ATTACK PIGS

	Disease	Cause	Signs And Symptoms	Prevention And Control
1	African swine fever	virus	1. Fever. 2. Staggering. 3. Weakness 4. Difficult in breathing. 5. Diarrhoea 6 Constipation 7. Sudden death	1. Has no treatment. 2. Keep pigs in door. 3. Cull the pigs. 4. Disinfect the pig house. 5. Apply quarantine.
2	Foot rot	bacteria	1. Lameness due to blisters. 2. Fever. 3. Dullness 4. Loss of appetite.	1. Treat with antibiotics. 2. Isolate sick animals. 3. Vaccinate the pigs. 4. Cull sick animals. 5. Apply quarantine.
3	Anthrax	bacteria	1. Fever 2. bleeding through the nose and anus.	1. Treat with antibiotics. 2. Burry or burn carcass. 3. Vaccinate the pigs. 4. Report suspected anthrax as soon as possible. 5. Don't eat meat from suddenly dead animals.
4	Pneumonia	bacteria	1. Watery discharge from the mouth and nose. 2. High temperature. 3. Coughing 4. Difficulty in breathing 5. Loss of appetite	1. Treat with antibiotics. 2. Provide the pigs with enough space. 3. Proper ventilation in the sty. 4. Keep the pigsty warm and dry.
5	Nagana (trypanosomiasis)	Protozoa	1. Fever. 2. Dullness 3. Loss of appetite. 4. Runny eyes that lead to blindness. 5. Loss of weight. 6. death may occur after several weeks. 7. Anaemia	1. vaccinate the pigs. 2. clear all the bushes to keep away tsetse flies.
6	Piglet anaemia	Lack of iron		Administering iron injection

Terms used in piggery

1. Boar - mature male pig.
2. Sow - mature female pig.

3. Piglet - young ones of pigs.
4. Hog - castrated male pig.
5. Gilt - immature female pig.
6. Pork - meat from pigs.
7. Farrowing - the act of producing piglets.
8. Lard - fats got from pigs.

FOOD AND NUTRITION

1. Feeding
   Feeding is the taking in of food.
2. Food
   Food is something that is good to eat.

BREAST FEEDING

1. Is a natural way of feeding in which a baby sucks milk from the mother's breasts.
2. It is recommended that a mother should breast feed her baby up to 2-3 years.

Advantages of breast feeding to a baby

1. Breast milk provides the baby with all the nutrients.
2. Breast milk is easily digested.
3. Breast milk provides the baby with anti-bodies.
4. Breast milk is always at the right body temperature.

Note: colostrum is the milk produced by an animal in the first four days after delivery.

Advantages of breast feeding to a mother

1. Breast feeding can delay the next pregnancy.
2. Breast feeding is cheap to the family in terms of expenditure.
3. Breast feeding is time saving.
4. Breast feeding improves the health of the mother, asshe has to eat in order to maintain breast milk.

BOTTLE FEEDING

1. This is an artificial way of feeding in which a baby sucks milk from the bottle.
2. If bottle-feeding is done properly, it can substitute breast feeding in case the mother is not around most of the time.

Factors that make a baby be bottle fed

1. In case the mother is dead or not around.
2. When the mother has AIDS.
3. When the mother has severe breast cancer.
4. When a baby refuses breast milk.
5. When the mother's breast cannot produce enough breast.

Disadvantages of bottle feeding

a. Bottles can easily be contaminated by houseflies.
b. Bottles are difficult to clean properly causing germs to grow and spread.
c. Bottle milk can get contaminated causing sickness to the child.
d. Cow's or tinned milk or powdered milk is expensive to buy.
e. Some babies are allergic to cows milk.

WEANING CHILDREN

Weaning is the gradual introduction of solid foods to a baby'sdietin addition to breast

milk.

Reasons for weaning at six months

1. The baby needs more nutrients because the body is growing.
2. To prevent deficiency diseases.
3. The baby needs to get iron from other foods because breast milk does not contain it.
4. To supplement on breast milk.

Common foods used during weaning

a. Mashed Irish potatoes.
b. Porridge.
c. Sweet banana.
d. Mashed egg yolk.
e. Mashed beans.

Note: Weaning is done at the age of six months to supplement breast milk.

FOOD TABOOS AND BELIEFS

A taboo is a cultural or religious custom that forbids people from eating certain types of food.

Examples of religious food taboos

1. Moslems are not allowed to eat pork.
2. Moslems are not allowed to eat meat of an animal slaughtered by a non-moslem.
3. Catholics do not eat meat on Fridays during lent.

Examples of cultural food taboos

1. In Buganda, girls and women were not allowed to eat chicken and eggs because they make them barren.
2. Men were not allowed to eat oil nuts because they can make them impotent.
3. Children suffering from measles are not allowed to eat meat because it makes them more sick.
5. Babies were not allowed to eat liver and eggs because they make them take long without talking and also make them urinate and defecate on their beds.

Advantages of food taboos and beliefs

1. Certain people and tribes have plenty of foodstuffs to eat.
2. Certain animals and plants are conserved in areas where they are not eaten.

Disadvantages of food taboos and beliefs

1. Food beliefs and taboos can result into malnutritional diseases.
2. Pregnant women may become malnourished and produce underweight babies.

VULNERABLE GROUPS OF PEOPLE

These are groups of people whose health can easily be harmed if they are not given enough of the correct food to eat.

Examples of vulnerable groups of people:

a. Pregnant women.
b. Sick people.
c. Elderly people.
d. Weaning children.
e. Breast feeding mothers.
f. Breast fed babies.

PREGNANT WOMEN

6. Pregnant women need to eat food that will be enough for themselves and for the foetus growing in their wombs.
7. A pregnant woman needs a balanced diet containing the following:

Proteins
To build the body tissues of the foetus growing inside her womb and also repair the worn out cells on her body.

Carbohydrates
To give enough energy to carry the in their womb.

Iron
To enable formation of more blood enough for the mother and the foetus.

Calcium

To build strong bones of the foetus inside the womb Vitamins

To protect her and the foetus from certain diseases SICK PEOPLE

1. Sick people need food and extra fluids in order to help the body to fight sickness.
2. Most of the foods include the following:

Proteins
Proteins to repair worn out cells during sickness.

Vitamins and mineral salts
The most important are vitamin C, calcium and iron to build the body defence and also help in the manufacture of blood.

Fluids
Fluids to prevent dehydration. Such foods include clean boiled water, fruit juice, soup from meat, chicken or fish.

Freauent feeding
Sick people may not be able to eat very much at one time so they should be fed with easily digestible foods.

ELDERLY PEOPLE

1. When people grow old, they often lose their teeth which cause health problems such that they do not crush their food for easy digestion which can cause indigestion or constipation.
2. Elderly people need the following:
   a) Foods that are easy to eat such as minced meat, mashed fruits etc.
   b) Frequent feeding because they may not be able to eat very much at one time.
   c) Stomach walls are weak to churn the food.

STAPLE FOODS FOR DIFFERENT COMMUNITIES A staple food is the food commonly eaten by a particular community.

Common staple foods.

a) Matooke
b) Millet
c) Maize
d) Cassava.
e) Sweet potatoes
f) Irish potatoes.

g) Yams
h) Sorghum.

Examples of staple foods for different communities

The Iteso
a) Millet
b) Cassava for mixing the millet.
c) Sorghum

The Baganda
a) Matooke.
b) Cassava
c) Sweet potatoes.

The Basoga
a) Sweet potatoes.
b) Cassava.
c) Millet.
d) Yams

The Banyankole
a) Matooke.
b) Millet
c) Cassava
d) Irish potatoes.

The Acholi and langi.
a) Cassava
b) Millet.
c) Sorghum

Reasons why different communities prefer the above foods.
a) Climate in the regions favour their growth.
b) The type of soils in their areas.

PRIMARY HEALTH CARE

1. Primary Health Care is the essential health care where individuals, families or communities work together to solve their own health problems.
2. Primary Health Care is commonly abbreviated as PHC.

Note: Health is the state of physical, social and mental welfare.

Elements of Primary Health Care

a. Sanitation
b. Family planning
c. Nutrition
d. Immunisation
e. Hygiene
f. First aid
g. Antenatal and postnatal care.
h. Provision of safe water.

Principlals of PHC

a. Equal care for every for everybody.
b. It should be affordable for all.
c. It should be accessible to all.
d. It should be available toall.

Some of the ways how to inform and educate people

1. Through songs, plays, story telling which interest and excite people to increase their activities in health.
2. Through radio, news papers, talks and discussions with health staff and community health workers.
3. School pupils can pass health information to their relatives and community in general.

AN INDIVIDUAL AND PRIMARY HEALTH CARE

1. Bathing regularly.
2. Brushing teeth every after a meal.

Cutting finger nails short.
Washing hands after visiting the toilets.
Washing hands before and after eating.
FAMILY AND PRIMARY HEALTH CARE The family can participate in Primary health Care by:

a. Collecting and burrying rubbish.
b. Boiling drinking water.
c. Fetching water.
d. Washing utensils.
e. Scrubbing the toilet.
f. Sweeping the compound.
g. Elders educating the young ones how to keep health.
h. Preparing a balanced diet.

THE COMMUNITY AND PRIMARY HEALTH CARE

1. A community is a group of people living and working together in the same locality.
2. A community can participate in Primary Health Care by:
    a. Organising regular community clean up campaigns to do the following:
        i) To pick up broken glass.
        ii) To pick up plastic bags and papers.
        iii) Sweeping and removing rubbish.
    b. Reporting any unusual occurrence of a disease in a community.

c. Assist in community education i.e. talking to groups about health, discussing a radio or Television programme on health.
d. Ensuring that all children in a community are immunised.
e. Protecting wells and other water sources, construction of communal, rubbish pits, latrines.

Suitable lifestyles and good health practices.

1. Observe proper hygiene of the body and food.
2. Observe proper sanitation.
3. Eat foods containing a balanced diet.
4. Smoke and keep pit latrines clean and always flash toilets after use.
5. Dump household garbage in dustbins or waste pits and burry them.
6. Cover left over foods or reheat food before eating.
7. Utensils and cutlery should be kept clean all the time. h. Avoiding alcoholism, drug abuse and smoking.

PEOPLE WITH SPECIAL NEEDS.
These are groups of people who need special help to enable them survive.

Examples of people with special needs
a. The sick.
b. The Elderly.
c. The disabled.
d. The young.

THE SICK, INVALID AND CONVALESCENT A sick person
This is a person suffering from a disease or an illness and has shown signs and symptoms of a disease.

An invalid

An invalid is a person who is totally down with sickness and can not help him or

herself.

Convalescent
A convalescent is a person getting treatment and is recovering after an illness or sickness.

How to care for the sick, invalid and convalescent
The following must be observed:
a. Washing for them their clothes
b. Preparing their beds.
c. Preparing their food.
d. Reminding them to take medicine.
e. Bathing them.
f. Taking them to health centers.

How to care for the elderly
a) Washing for them their clothes
b) Preparing their beds.
c) Preparing for them a balanced diet.
d) Giving them easily digestible food.

e) Giving them company
f) Helping them to bathe.
g) Taking them to health centers for routine check ups.
h) Helping them to do some physical exercises.

How to care for the disabled a) Helping them get water.
b) Helping them reach where they can't.
c) Helping them get a balanced diet.
d) Help them understand messages through sign language.
e) Helping them maintain their hygiene.
f) They need devices to help them hear, see or walk.

How to care for the young
a) They need a balanced diet to prevent deficiency diseases.
b) The young need protection.
c) The young need medication.
d) They need to maintain their hygiene.

SCHOOL HEALTH CLUB

1. A school health club is composed of teachers, pupils, community health workers and interested parents.
2. It is advisable for every school to have a School Health Club.

Activities of a School Health Club

1. It prepares health campaigns against pupils who smoke anddrink alcohol.
2. It prepares health campaigns for immunisation.
3. It invites health workers to talk to pupils about healthmatter.
4. A health club raises money for the first aid kit.
5. It organises members at school to clean the school by picking litter.

HEALTH PARADES

These are assemblies intended to check children's health and hygiene.

Activities carried out on health parade.

1. Teachers check r children whose heads and bodies are not well cleaned.
2. Teachers check childrenwhose nails are not well groomed.
3. Teachers check childrenwho donot brush their teeth.
4. Teachers check childrenwho donot comb their hair.
5. Teachers check childrenwho donot clean their clothesand bags.

Note: While checking is going on, records are made on each individual child.