

07

NIVEL 1

SKI / SNOWBOARD

BASES OF THE TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS

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FOUNDATION

The subject tries to favour the acquisition of basic tools that will be able to develop the construction of professional identity.

This subject is affected by two main axes: the chronological and the theoretical. These are not isolated axes but they are constantly interacting; that is why we suggest approaching the topics of human development and the bases of learning theories together.

Due to the extension of the syllabuses dealt with compared to the duration of the classes, we try to work on wide and rich concepts, from the theoretical point of view that will build up tools for the students' future professional jobs.

OBJECTIVES AND PURPOSES

- To stimulate the approach of different perspectives about human development.
- To know the general characteristics of cognitive, emotional and social developments.
- To facilitate the interpretation of learning theories.
- To promote the construction of the teaching role.
- To analyse teaching proposals.

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FOUNDATION

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INITIAL QUESTIONNAIRE

- Why do I want to become a ski or snowboard instructor?
- Which is my future objective?
- How do I picture myself as an instructor?

UNIT 1: INTRODUCTION - BASIC CONCEPTS

PROFESSIONAL PROFILE

The certificate of Ski or Snowboard Instructor Level 1 enables its holder to teach lessons based on technical and methodological principles which arise from Ski and Snowboard Argentine Technique (TAE), up to Intermediate 4 from methodology progression with all its objectives included; Both for children and adults, in individual or group lessons, teaching the lessons on marked runs adapting the terrain to the psychophysical conditions of the student, providing optimal safety conditions.

Observations: The Instructor Level 1 is recognized by all the schools and clubs and he can only perform his activity inside them.

CONCEPT FOR EDUCATION

Two-way process through which the instructor communicates knowledge, values, customs and ways of acting. Education is not only generated through speaking but it is also present in all our actions, feelings and attitudes.

The process of cultural, moral and behavioural relationship and awareness. Thus, through education, the new generations assimilate and learn the knowledge, rules of behaviour, ways of being, ways of viewing the world of previous generations, creating, besides, some new ones.

Aristotle, one of the biggest thinkers, gave us one of the most interesting definitions:

"Education consists of directing pleasure and pain feelings towards the ethical order"

INTENTIONALITY: Education, understood as a dynamic of cooperation, involves an intentional relationship between the instructor and the student.

The information does not reach the student skeptically; along the way (or even from its original source), it arrives full of several intentions (sometimes obvious, sometimes not) that respond to a certain way of understanding the world.

Thus, when we study the theories on the origin of the Universe, we are learning something more than just data, facts and concepts. Besides, we discover that the societies of each period had a different way of understanding the origin of things. These perceptions were so established that they caused situations as the ones Galileo had to experience.

Therefore, we learn that there are ideas like religious intolerance, ethnic discrimination, personal convictions, among others. But this is not only so, as both teachers and students will have their own perceptions about the subject. They will label the situation as fair or unfair, the solutions as correct or incorrect, as good or bad; in a few words, they will generate an opinion or judgement about some information that brought about a series of previous judgements: the historians', the scientists', the actors', the school books writers', the teachers' themselves and, finally, why not, the students'.

The education act is made up of people who have intentionalities and orientations. It is not possible to expect the existence of a neutral education proposal. Education is 'full' of values.

TYPES OF EDUCATION

UNESCO's definition, generally accepted, recognizes the existence of three types of education:

FORMAL EDUCATION: It is related to the educational system hierarchically structured, with courses set in a chronological order. It starts with primary school and goes up to tertiary institutions.

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION: consists of an organized activity with educational aims apart from the established official system and intended for a specific area in search of determined educational objectives.

INFORMAL EDUCATION: It consists of a process through which the individual assimilates attitudes, values, skills and knowledge by means of everyday experience with family, friends, mates who share the same interests, news media and other factors that affect a person's environment.

Informal education is a way of spontaneous learning which the individual acquires through interacting with his environment. This is the scenery of human life in which we all coexist with beings, objects, things and facts and everything that arises from cooperation and the contact among human beings, and whatever surrounds them. That is to say, he lives immersed in a set of realities that impacts on him from before his birth.

- The knowledge and the job qualifications are acquired, in general, by means of formal education.
- A certain number of skills, both personal and social, are acquired by means of informal education.
- The acquisition of an ability for living and attitudes based on an integrated system of values is possible thanks to non-formal education.

PEDAGOGY

Pedagogy is a set of wisdoms that deals with education as a typically social and specifically human phenomenon. It is, thus, a psycho-social science which is intended to study education in order to know and perfect it. Pedagogy is an applied science which makes use of sociology, economy, anthropology, psychology, history, philosophy, medicine...

We must take into account that pedagogy is the science that studies education whereas the teaching approach is the discipline or group of techniques that favours learning. It is a discipline of pedagogy.

In brief:

EDUCATION

- The action of communicating and receiving knowledge
 - It is practical
 - Pedagogical fact: intentional, scientific and systematic education.
 - Fields:
 - 1.- Educative art.
 - 2.- Educational philosophy
 - 3.- Teaching approach or educational methodology.
- Without pedagogy , education would not have scientific meaning.

PEDAGOGY

- The discipline which is in charge of studying the educational facts.
 - It is theoretical
 - Educational fact: to be immersed in the educational process, consciously or unconsciously, intentionally or unintentionally.
 - Sequential stages:
 - 1.- As a real, natural-social human fact.
 - 2.- As a philosophical reflection
 - 3.- As a technological activity.

TEACHING APPROACH

It is a discipline of pedagogy. It is a science that deals with the study of the teaching learning processes with the aim of improving and adequating the tools, techniques, methods, norms and standards in order to be appropriate and efficient.

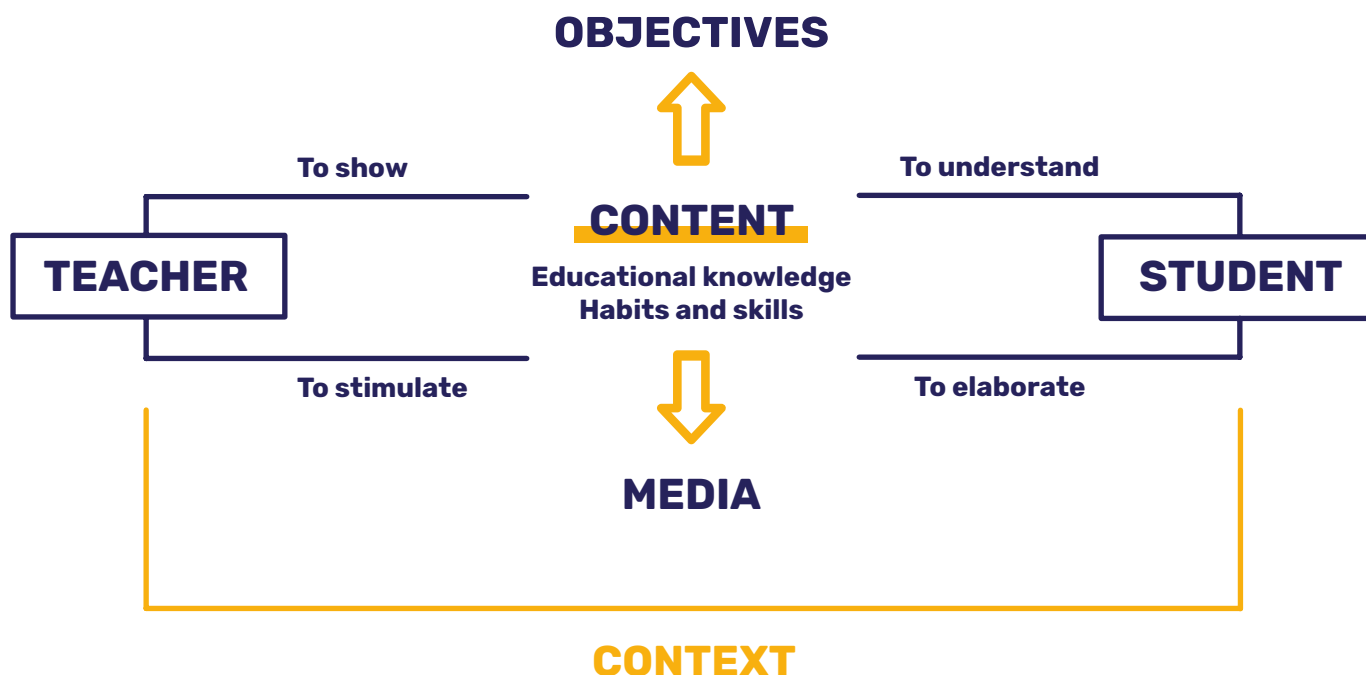
TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS

Teaching and Learning make up a unique two- way process that is intended to educate the student. The etymological reference of the word "teaching" in Spanish (enseñar: to show): to point out something to somebody. It is not just to teach anything, it is to show what is unknown.

This implies there is a person who knows (the one who can teach), and another one who does not know (the one who can learn). The one that can teach wants to teach and knows how to teach (the teacher). The one who can learn wants and knows how to learn (the student). There will be, thus, some willingness from the student and teacher.

Besides these agents, there are some contents, that is to say, what is wanted to teach or learn (curricular elements) and the proceedings or instruments to teach or learn them (media). When something is taught, it is in order to reach a goal (objective). On the other hand, the teaching-learning process takes place within a certain frame given by physical, social and cultural conditions (context).

The figure shows the teaching-learning process emphasizing the role of the basic elements.



Regarding the preceding information, we can consider that the teaching process is the act through which the teacher shows educational contents (knowledge, habits, skills) to a student or stimulates him, according to some objectives or within a context (social, institutional, group, and so on).

The learning process is the complementary teaching process. Learning is the act by which a student tries to understand and elaborate the contents exposed by the teacher, or by any other source of information. He reaches this goal through media (study or intellectual working techniques). This learning process is done according to objectives, which may be identified or not with those of the teacher. It is performed within a certain context.

The teacher is not just a source of information, but he must stimulate the learning. He must serve as a catalyst who increases the possibilities of the success of the process by motivating the student in his study. The teacher will try to guarantee the learning by organizing and planning the lessons, by using an adequate language, by preparing the contextual conditions of the lesson and so on. The teacher must maintain the educational or teaching space.

Thus, in the teaching-learning process there is a close relationship between the teacher, the student and the knowledge. It is within this relationship where the verbal and non-verbal language will make the interaction to generate knowledge possible. Therefore, language must be qualified, adapted to the student's characteristics, to his evolutionary stage and to his experience.

In this process, we will go through stages, which are exploration (get in touch with knowledge), appropriation (elaborate the content) and production (response).

ACTIVITIES UNIT 1

- 1) Exemplify each teaching style. Give at least three examples of each.
- 2) Think of any personal Teaching-learning situation, either ski or snowboard and develop it.
- 3) Analyze that situation according to the scheme of Teaching-Learning process.

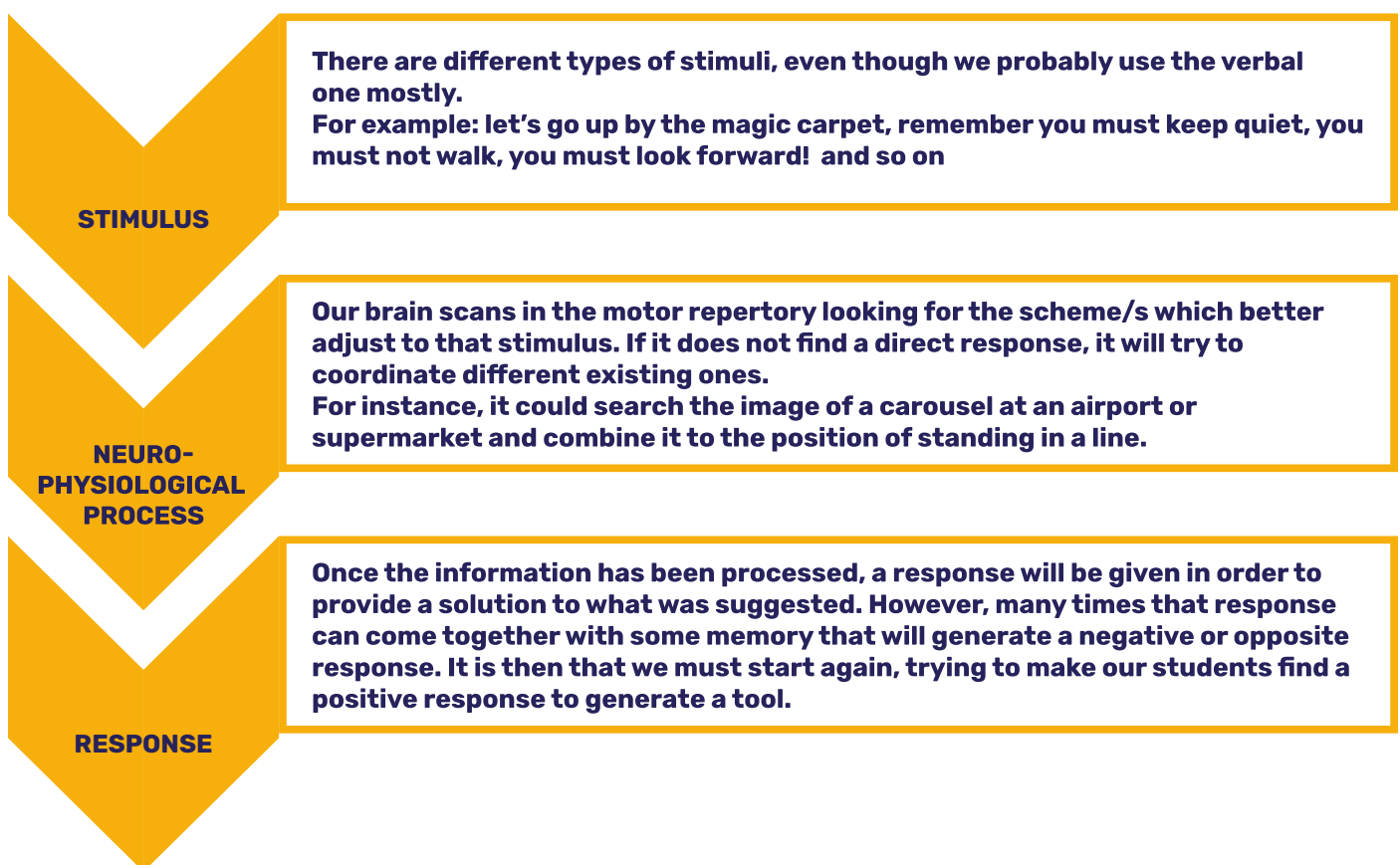
UNIT 2: THEORIES OF LEARNING

THEORIES OF LEARNING

The theories of learning make up a varied group of theoretical frameworks which often share aspects and question others or even suggest hypotheses that are absolutely contradictory.

There are a lot of experts in this field, but the only logical basis of all theories is that every learning is done in three phases:

1. a stimulus
2. that activates a neurophysiological process, which
3. generates a response



There are four large groups which enable us to organize the theories of learning and their thinkers. These groups of theories are not strict, and in most cases, they blend and look the same. The groups of theories are:

1. Behaviourism
2. Cognitivism
3. Constructivism

1. BEHAVIOURAL THEORIES (STIMULUS - RESPONSE)

Their main thinkers are:

1. Pavlov's Theory of conditioned reflex.
2. Thorndike's exploratory or trial-and-error theory of learning.
3. Skinner's functioning theory of knowledge.

These are behaviourism-based theories which state the learning through conditioning by means of the stimulus-response method. (S---> R)

Behaviourism has the objective of modifying behaviour. That is why behaviour is studied in order to be controlled and predicted.

For the most elementary behaviours, the classical conditioning is used. To get the desired response, we must generate the adequate stimuli.

For complex behaviours, the instrumental and functioning conditioning is used. Behaviour reinforcers are looked for. These reinforcers are rewards or punishments. Rewards are used to stimulate a positive behaviour whereas punishments are used to reduce or make a negative behaviour disappear. The clue is to use the right stimuli in order to modify behaviour successfully.

The acquisition of new conducts and behaviours is what behaviourism will define as learning. The knowledge will then be a combination of information, where there is no cognitive process in creativity or discovery. On the contrary, the teacher is the person in charge of generating the adequate stimuli. In formal education, rewards and punishments are related to assessment. Assessment mostly ignores the process and focuses on quantifying the knowledge.

2. COGNITIVE THEORIES

Their main thinkers are:

1. Theory of shape or Köler's Gestalt.
2. Letwin's theory of the field.
3. Piaget's theory of equilibration.
4. Dewey's and others' theory of functionalism or feedback information.

Constructivism regards learning as a process in which the student actively builds up new ideas or concepts based on present and past knowledge. In other words, 'learning is acquired by means of our own knowledge from our own experiences' (Ormrod, J. E., Educational Psychology: Developing Learners, Fourth Edition 2003, page 227)

Learning is, thus, a very personal effort by means of which the internalized concepts, the rules and general principles can consequently be applied to a concept of a real and practical world. According to Jeromy Bruner and other constructivists, the teacher acts as a facilitator that encourages students to discover principles by themselves and to build up the knowledge by working on the solution of real problems or simulations, normally together with other students. This collaboration is also known as a social process of knowledge construction.

Some of the benefits of this social process are: The students can work in order to clarify and put their ideas in order and they can also share their conclusions with other students. This gives them the opportunity to elaborate what they have learned. The cognitive theorists, as Jean Piaget and David Ausubel, among others, stated that learning was the consequence of imbalance in the student's comprehension and that the environment had vital importance in this process.

Constructivism itself has several variations, such as generative learning, cognitive learning, learning based on problems, learning by discovery, contextualized learning and knowledge construction. Besides these variations, constructivism promotes the free exploration of a student within a frame or a given structure which may be of a simple level up to a more complex level, where it is convenient for the students to perform activities centred in their abilities. In this way, they can consolidate their learning adequately. The formalisation of the theory of constructivism is generally attributed to Jean Piaget, who created the mechanisms through which knowledge is internalised by the one who learns.

We will only explain the theory of shape or Gestalt and that of functionalism or feedback information, which are the two mentioned in our technique.

Theory of shape or Gestalt (Köhler): Fundamental presumption: 'The whole is more than the sum of the parts' This theory emphasizes the fact that the learning is not a result of the previous elements (associationism), but it constitutes an organized whole that is imposed on the subject. The whole can be divided into elementary units, but it is not the same as summing up its parts. Students learn globally. His experiments made him confirm that the individual is able to learn without going through an exploratory process because he has a brain, organised system that understands the meaning of reality and enables him to see this as a whole, which, besides, makes it possible to link his need to an element which will satisfy such need.

Köhler made experiments with monkeys, he left them food high and some boxes on the floor, observing that the monkeys piled up the boxes in order to get to the food and take it. That is to say, they reached the response putting things together as a whole. Practical application to ski: the movement (which is a whole, simple or complex, but a whole), cannot be divided into elementary units. Its parts can be cognitively reasoned to better understand its performance technique, but the performance itself is a whole with cognitive, motor and affective participation and an unbreakable relationship between sensory and motor parts.

STIMULUS PROCESS RESPONSE Perception

NEUROPHYSIOLOGICAL behaviour Organization of perceptions according to the interaction of elements in presence

RESPONSE: An organized whole

Theory of feedback information: The 'functionalism' was really defined and started to take shape with Dewey. His main point was that the activity cannot be taken as something that starts with a stimulus, goes through a central process and then emerges in the shape of a response. Instead of that, the activity is a 'whole cycle', in which the response can look for or build up the stimulus. The relationship with the next stimulus can be as important as the one it has with the previous stimulus.

Therefore, this means 'the reciprocal interaction between the motor function and the sensory information, automatically regulated by the neurophysiological processes'. (The neurophysiological processes not only regulate the memory and learning but they also determine the energetic changes and the physiological adjustments typical of each movement. The theory of feedback is the only one which states that learning is not only determined by external stimulus but also, by direct kinesthetic sensations or stimulating effects of own or self-managed movements.

Thus, the stimulus (visual, tactile, auditive) is not the only sensation triggering the neurophysiological process. The stimulus does not only produce the motor act but also the neurophysiological process which is put into practice by stimuli coming from memory. In this theory, behaviour is organized by direct sensations under a continuous feedback between sensations and movement in a close circle during the neurophysiological process.

The somesthetic sensations that are involved in this process are:

- *Exteroceptive sensation*: (informs about the outside environment). One or more sensory nervous terminals are stimulated by the immediate outside environment (ear, skin or sight)
- *Proprioceptive sensation*: (Informs about the muscular stretching, the position of the limbs and the balance) One or more nervous terminals at muscle spindles level and tendons are stimulated directly or internally.
- *Visceral sensation*: (informs and asks for regulation of internal organs). Many nerve endings in the organs communicate with each other by means of inter neurons and their own units.

STIMULUS Perception

NEUROPHYSIOLOGICAL behaviour. Feedback Immediate sensory control and automatic analysis of the motor act. Through kinesthetic sensations (proprioceptive and interoceptive), information is sent to the brain cortex for analysis and elaboration of the new motor act, especially sequential gestures. The instructor operates with his own methodology at external and internal stimuli level. It is important for the instructor to connect orally with the proprioceptive and interoceptive information that he has got from the student. Stimulus-perception Automatic organization with the help of memory, intero and exteroceptive perceptions according to the interaction of elements in presence. Creation of the ideal image of the motor gesture. A product or observable result. In the motor act a Performance. A closed circuit in the feedback system

RESULT: behaviour

3. CONSTRUCTIVE THEORIES

These theories state that the student is the protagonist of learning. The student will be the one who relates learning schemes and action already stored in his memory to the new situations to be able to solve experiences and situations. However, the experience and relationship with the environment 'will condition that learning'.

Main theorists:

- Close Development area Lev Vygotsky
- Jean Piaget's theory of Cognitive Learning
- Kurt Lewin's Field theory
- Paul Watzlawick's Human communication theory
- Humberto Marturana's Biology of Knowledge.
- Ausubel's Significant learning

In this sense Vygotsky states that learning will occur by the interaction with the social context. His main assumptions are:

- The individual learns through interaction with others.
- There must be a process of internalization: behaviours or acts are observed to be reconstructed internally and thus, be able to reproduce them.
- Development and learning are interdependent: there is no development without learning, or learning without development.

For Vygotsky, learning and development will arise in the close development area (from Spanish ZDP Zona de Desarrollo Próximo) using scaffolding as one of the tools. Human beings have a real development area (what we can do ourselves, real ability of the person at that moment) and a potential development area (what we can do with the help of another person). Between these two areas there is the ZDP (the student's ability and what he can reach with the help of somebody else). In this area we put scaffolding into practice as an external structure that will enable us to accompany other students during the learning process and that will be removed little by little to let him reach his autonomy.

On the other hand, Piaget states that the individuals develop themselves constantly adapting to the environment that surrounds them throughout their lives in a process called adaptation, which is made up of two parts: assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation is the incorporation of situations or objects in our mental schemes. Accommodation is the modification of the mental schemes according to those objects.

ACTIVITIES UNIT 2

- 1) How could we apply the conductive theories to the ski/snowboard teaching? Give an example
- 2) Would you use rewards and punishments?
Why? In which situation? What for?
- 3) Under what circumstances would you use a cognitive approach?
And under which would you use a constructive one?
- 4) Think of a Teaching-learning situation and analyze it according to the three movements.

UNIT 3: EMOTIONS AND FEELINGS

EMPATHY

When we are asked the meaning of this term, we define it as 'putting ourselves in somebody else's shoes'. However, it is even more than that; it means being able to identify moods, emotions, feelings and being able to understand them, which does not mean we are justifying them, or that we share their way of seeing things or their opinions. Basically, it is to be able to see, analyse and interpret the other from his point of view.

There are three types of empathy:

- **Cognitive empathy:** It enables us to take other people's perspective, understand their mental states and manage, at the same time, our emotions, while appreciating theirs.
- **Emotional empathy:** It enables us to connect with other people to the point of feeling the same they are feeling and experiencing, in our body, an echo of any happiness or sadness they are experiencing.
- **Empathic worry:** This makes us take care of others and help them, if necessary. It implies an active worry about their welfare.

Daniel Goleman states that in order to be empathic, we must develop certain competences:

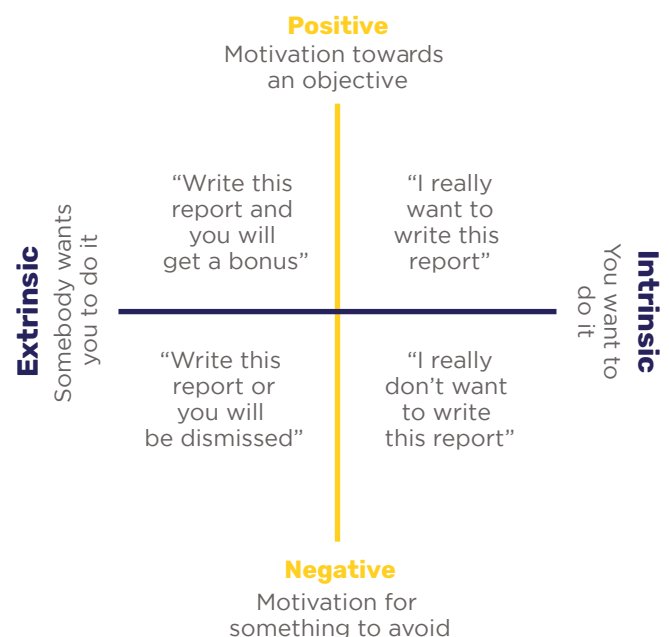
UNDERSTANDING OF OTHERS: Being sensitive and understanding others' points of view. Pay attention to emotional signals and have an active listening.

DEVELOPMENT OF OTHERS: Recognize and compensate the strength and achievements of the others. Set a feedback, in which criticism and applause are used as a balance. Promote positive hopes and help determine their own goals by means of security and confidence in people that surround us.

EXPLOITATION OF DIVERSITY: Respect and know how to relate with different kinds of people, understanding diversity as a great opportunity. In order to get that, we must face prejudices, stereotypes and intolerance.

POLITICAL CONSCIENCE: Be able to warn and interpret the group's emotional relationships easily in an internal or external way (from inside or outside the group). People who have a rich social network of relationships often recognize and perfectly understand what happens around them.

4 TYPES OF MOTIVATION



"Empathy stops giving benefits when the aim of the relationship is lost, which, in this case, is communication of knowledge" Mercedes Bermejo, Director of Pozuelo Psychologists

MOTIVATION

Motivation is what makes people do a certain action or task. It is the strength which guides the learning.

There are four types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic, positive and negative. The intrinsic motivation is inherent to the person. When we face a problem, we generate a desire to overcome it. On the other hand, the extrinsic motivation is due to external conditioning; the person needs to be encouraged, accompanied by another to do the task. The positive motivation is provided by the need to get a reward and the negative motivation, by the necessity of avoiding damage or punishment.

Motivation must have a direction (provided by the objectives to reach), a certain intensity and continuity.

Motivation may change throughout the task, that is why we must be attentive to be able to regulate it according to student's needs. The changes we can observe are:

- **Reduction of motivation:** In general it happens when the activity is monotonous or because it is too easy, or because it takes too long, or because it is too difficult.
- **Very motivated students:** the student overworks, in order to accomplish his objective which can be distorted. There may be frustration.

STRESS: EUSTRESS AND DISTRESS

We can define stress as the physiological response to a situation that can be something new or a situation that appears as a threat. In this sense, stress is neither good nor bad. Stress will become a problem when we are submitted to it for a long time.

There are two types of stress: the eustress or positive stress and the distress or negative stress. Next, we will describe each of them.

EUSTRESS: It is the adaptation we make over a short period of time in front of a threatening or totally new situation which requires a major effort. This enables us to leave our comfort zone in order to get to self-fulfilment.

DISTRESS: It is the one that exceeds the capability of adaptation, causing, for instance, tiredness, anger, anxiety and so on

FEAR

Fear is one of the six primary emotions together with happiness, sadness, anger, surprise and disgust. The emotions start in our brain and generate changes in the organism. These emotions are universal and the main representation of them is reflected in our face, in our facial expressions, which let us recognize them. It is not only reflected in our face but it also produces a series of physiological, emotional changes, in cognitive and motivational behaviour. For instance, when we feel afraid, our heart rhythm, nausea, perspiration increase, the pupils dilate, we secrete hormones, there is more muscle tension, feeling of horror, inhibition of movement, and a wish to be far from that situation.

Its main function is self preservation. It enables us, for instance, to leave when a situation represents a physical or emotional threat, as well as a threat to our self esteem, reputation and so on. In general, it is related to our ideas and beliefs. Therefore, fear is a controller of our behaviour. If we did not feel fear we would act in a frightening way or even put ourselves at risk.

There are three types of fear.

- Rational fear (physical threat, damage)
- Psychological threat (humiliation and moral sanction)
- Primary fear (to witness violent situations)

In front of a situation which causes fear there are three possible responses which are related to genetic and cultural conditions as well as those of personal experiences:

- Paralysis
- Escape
- Confrontation

Tools to handle fear:

- Positive thinking: picture ourselves having fulfilled the task
- Abdominal breathing
- Accompany our students. Give them support.
- Try to generate a safe environment.
- Look into their eyes, if possible.

ACTIVITIES UNIT 3

- 1) In which situations where you must be empathic, would you find yourself in a class?
 - 2) How would you motivate your students? Why?
 - 3) How would you work with a student who is afraid?
 - 4) How would you motivate a student who is afraid?
- 5) Think of a situation in the mountain in which you have been afraid.
What could you do in order to avoid that feeling today?

UNIT 4: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

The changes that a human being goes through over the course of his life are called human development or life cycle. These changes are psychic, physical, cognitive, intellectual, motor, social and so on. Even though they are different depending on the sociocultural contexts of each person, all of us go through these stages. They are:

1. **Prenatal stage** (from conception until birth)
2. **First childhood stage** (from birth until 6 years old) *
3. **Childhood stage** (6 to 10 years old) *
4. **Adolescence stage** (10 to 20 years old) *
5. **Youth stage** (20 to 25 years old) *
6. **Adulthood stage** (25 to 60 years old) *
7. **Old age stage** (60 until death) *

*Ages are referential

Down below, we will describe the main aspects of human development from early childhood until old age.

Early childhood:

The development follows two principles, cephalocaudal and proximal distal. That is to say, the first one from head to 'tail' and the second one from the centre of the body to the limbs.

There are many factors that impact on the development of the human being, but they can be divided into two big groups: genetic inheritance and childcare or environment in which we grow up.

By: Daniel Oscar Rodriguez Boggia
Specialized Educator and Speech Therapist

DEVELOPMENT FROM 2 TO 3 YEARS

NEUROLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

He starts to do short runs little by little.
Later, from 4 to 5 years he will improve and will be able to change direction and race.

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

- Mental combinations that enable him to represent the object by means of symbols (he can anticipate the consequences of his actions)
- He can see the object as something permanent and independent from his action. He can search for hidden objects though he does not know the track they have followed.
- Delayed imitation (without really witnessing the object).

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

- Exact perception of the sounds of language
- He has the elements and the most basic mechanisms of language
- Complete sentences, though they are not grammatically correct.
- Telegraphic stage.
- He can elaborate some components better than others, or skip some parts of the sentence (for instance: the predicate more elaborate than the subject)
- Missing: articles, prepositions, conjunctions
- Telegraphic style
- Juxtaposition of phrases
- Language is the most important symbolic activity

SOCIO-EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

- Ego feelings. Egotism. Possession and control desire. 'Mine'
- Dissenting
- His position is more self-preserving than aggressive.
- Negativity
- Tantrums
- Bladder and bowel control
- Great conflicts between his desire of independence (me alone) and the need of the adult
- He starts to play with other children and simulate situations with toys, though the parallel play mainly takes place.
- He can wait and anticipate.

PSYCHOMOTRICITY

- Motor empowerment: he runs, stops and turns.
- He coordinates eye-foot, goes up and down the stairs with both feet.
- He has good wrist rotation
- He can keep balance on different surfaces.

LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

- When the child is 30 months old, the indefinite article 'a/an' appears in his language
- When he is 30 months old, the pronoun 'I' appears and it matches 'mine' and 'I', 'you' and 'yours'.
- From 24 months old, the first prepositions appear and these indicate possession and its holder 'to (me)', 'for (me)', 'car (mine)'
- Certain adverbs of place appear between 30 and 36 months old, for instance: in, on, under, in front, behind

INTELLIGENCE AND LEARNING

- Between 18 and 30 months, the child should:
 - Ask for things using words and gestures
 - Understand personal and possessive pronouns, commonly used around him
 - Show important progress in the comprehension of statements
 - Understand and produce new words
 - Produce statements of two or three words

GAMES

- When the child is about three years old, there is an identification, through typified imitations, for instance: to smoke, to carry a handbag, to buy, and so on.
- He takes hold of an object as a mediator, which is his treasure.
- He starts to ride tricycles, at first with help and supports and lately alone
- He moves his body to the rhythm of the music

DEVELOPMENT FROM 3 TO 4 YEARS

NEUROLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

- Dynamic balance during walk and run
- He jumps on both feet
- Around 6 years old, he manages to have good coordination
- Space and time structures

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

- Pre operational period
- Symbolic thought
- Egotism
- He does not separate his ego from the environment around him
- Difficulty in taking into account the other's point of view
- Artificiality (ultra-things). He attributes the origin of some events to strange beings.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

- He understands the relationship between one event and another and he expresses it linguistically
- Progressive use of personal pronouns, prepositions and adverbs.
- Coordination of clauses through conjunctions
- He orders events and expresses them in his sentences.
- He starts acquiring relative clauses and complex ones
- Verb tenses: past (verbs - adverbs), future (plans of immediate actions)
- He pays more attention to the meaning than to the form of oral speech

SOCIO-EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

- He understands emotional expressions from others
- He enjoys playing alone and with other children
- He can be docile and rebellious
- He has a more sociable behaviour
- 'Crisis of independence'
- Reinforcement of ego
- Some conflicts in his identification with the adult appear
- He assumes sexual differences
- Symbolic game

PSYCHOMOTRICITY

- Self confidence, spontaneity and harmony in his movements
- Control over the beginning and ending of a drawing.
 - He speeds up and controls his motion at will
 - He starts to be able to stop
 - He develops fine motor skills
 - He starts to show more influence on one side than on the other
 - He restrains involuntary movements better
 - He develops segmental independence

LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

- Between 36 and 42 months the definite articles appear.
- He starts emitting pronouns (personal, reflexive, objective)
- He keeps on using prepositions of place: in, on, under, near
- The infinitive form appears 'I don't want to eat'
- The present progressive is used 'the baby is sleeping'
- The auxiliary verbs 'to be' and 'to have' appear
- He uses subordinate clauses (relative and complex) without a relative pronoun or a subordinate conjunction 'mother says you must come'

INTELLIGENCE AND LEARNING

- When the child is about 36 months old: he understands and makes questions using: Who? What? To whom? Where?.
- When he is about 48 months old: he understands and produces negative statements, integrating the negative form in the body of the statement, for instance: 'The boy hasn't slept'

GAMES

- He does not look for the adult's approval.
- He uses the adult in case of need.
- He does not establish rules in games.
- Labile and spontaneous activity. When the child is about four years old, he represents social roles, for instance, seller, carpenter, policeman, doctor, baker, and so on.
- He gives importance to clothes and make up.
- He makes onomatopoeic sounds, for instance: HEN (cheep-cheep), duck (quack), cat (meow) and so on

DAILY LIFESTYLE

- He informs when he wants to urinate or defecate.
- He needs little assistance to wash his hands or face
- He brushes his teeth with the help of an adult.
- He needs little assistance of the adult to take off his clothes
- He uses cutlery
- He drinks from a glass or cup
- He has a set time to go to bed
- He plays alone for about 15 minutes
- He puts the toys away with some help.
- He goes upstairs putting one foot on each step.

DEVELOPMENT FROM 4 TO 5 YEARS

NEUROLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

- Dynamic balance
- Beginning of static balance
- Laterality: when the child is about four years old, the dominating hand is used more frequently
- Around this age lateral dominance is developed

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

- Great fantasy and imagination
- Magic omnipotence (possibility to change the course of events)
- Finalism: everything exists and has been created with an aim
- Animism: to attribute human life to natural elements and nearby objects
- Syncretism: impossibility of dissociating the parts that make up a whole
- Child realism: subject to a direct experience. He does not differentiate between objective facts and the subjective perception of them (in the drawing: he draws what he knows)
- Little by little the thought becomes more logical.
- Conversations
- Seriations
- Classifications

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

- He starts using subordinate clauses of cause and consequence.
- He begins to understand some passive voice phrases with verbs of action (even though in the majority of the cases, it involves a great difficulty until very advanced ages, because of the need to consider an action from two points of view and encode syntactically one of them, in a different way
- He can correct the form of an emission although the meaning is right

SOCIO-EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

- More independence and self confidence
- He spends more time with his game mate
- Irrational horror appears

PSYCHOMOTRICITY

- He learns how to use the pair of scissors
- Because of his emotional maturity, he can remain more time sitting down although he keeps on needing movement.
- Figurative representation: human shape

LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

- He produces possessive pronouns 'mine' and 'yours'
- From 36 months old, they were preceded by expressions such as 'my mine', 'your yours' and 'his his/her hers'
- 'With' appears to express instruments, for instance: Hit with a hammer
- Adverbs of time appear 'today', 'yesterday', 'tomorrow', 'now', 'soon'
- Between 54 and 60 months, adverbial clauses of cause and consequence appear. 'He wins because he goes fast', 'He is bad, that's why I hit him'

INTELLIGENCE AND LEARNING

- To group and classify determined material or images by their use, colour, measure.
- Start to distinguish elements, characters and simple sequences of a story
- The child learns more complex syntactic structures, the different forms of speech: affirmative, negative, interrogative and they become more and more complex
- The prepositions of time are used very frequently
- The children start to appreciate the different effects of a language by using it (riddles, jokes, songs) and to judge the correct use of it.

GAMES

- The most important goals during this period are the acquisition and the reinforcement of lateral dominance, which make the space orientation possible and reinforce the body scheme structure.
- From four to five years, children seem to show a functional improvement that determines more coordinated and precise movement and kinesthesia in all their bodies.
- The fine mobility is greatly developed
- The development of laterality makes the child establish his own body topography and use his body as a way to orient himself in the space.

DAILY LIFESTYLE

- He goes to the bathroom when he needs to urinate or defecate
- He washes his face on his own
- He cooperates at shower time
- He eats in a reasonable period of time, about $\frac{3}{4}$ hour
- He plays quietly for about half an hour
- He kicks the ball at a considerable distance
- He accomplishes simple assignments

SUMMARY OF 2 TO 6 YEARS

This period is a vital one for the motor development of the child

It is the stage when he acquires basic motor abilities or essential movements, actual kinetic cores. This ability to move more independently each time, is related to different factors:

- **Neurological maturation** that allows more complex movements
- **Body growth** that at the end of this period of time will be shown in the muscular system, which will enable them to have more possibilities of training
- **Availability of more time.** Most of the time, these children do quite varied motor activities, standing out the expressive character of them

This period is not only outstanding because of the acquisition of the bases for a more complex mobility in the future, but also because the thought and the action are mixed up. It is a period of BASIC LEARNING in all aspects, mobility-stained learning.

The main characteristics of their way of learning are trial-and-error, the exploration, the discovery of new ways of acting, the imitation, in the end, the attempt to know the surrounding environment and space, fully applying his ability of movement.

It is the appropriate time to deal with the possible perceptive-motor problems.

The recreational behaviours will be an exceptional scenario where the mobility will show itself with all its magnificence and richness. The recreational function is the way through which the child develops his psychomotor possibilities.

The success, the gratification that children receive through playing, invites them to repeat the behavior that leads to that gratification. The recreational component does not have to disappear from the moments dedicated to the development of infantile mobility.

The INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES: at these ages, not every child has the same need of movement. Neither do they choose the same type of games, nor they have the same type of body. The toddler who is overweight or obese does not move the same way as the one who is not. The management of gesture and a refined psychomotor development are important elements to determine a leadership among children this age.

Difference between both sexes begins to be shown.

The effect of the people surrounding them and contributing to their process of socialization show the expectation that society has regarding boys and girls. It causes differences in their mobility already at this age.

It is a period of richness, expressiveness, plasticity, exploration and basic learning in general.

CHILDHOOD (10 TO 12 YEARS)

NEUROLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

- They can jump, can throw things while moving forward and/or sideways.
- They can keep balance on one foot without looking
- They develop accuracy in the grasp
- They increase the speed of run
- They increase height in the jumps
- They can jump alternating between one and two feet

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

- Specific operations period
- Conservation, seriality, transitive inference, classification
- Count fluently
- Development of morale
- Development of short-term memory

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

- At the beginning of this stage, he starts to control the phonetics of language and the combination of sounds.
- The vocabulary increases as experience does
- He improves the use of tenses and moods
- The meaning of words is enriched.
- They master the gender and number of words

SOCIO-EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

- They get personal and social development through their emotional control
- They develop the empathy, noticing the other's needs and sensibility or feelings.
- They develop their self-concept, self-esteem and self-image

PSYCHOMOTRICITY

- The development is slower and more balanced
- The biggest muscular groups develop faster than the small ones
- The ligaments become stronger
- Calcification of cartilaginous osseous areas
- Connective and muscular tissues have a great elasticity
- Fine mobility management.

GAMES

- Games with rules. They begin to create and accept rules
- Games of fight, chase and hits
- Pre-sportive and sportive game

DAILY LIFESTYLE

- He uses the bathroom without help
- He brushes his teeth
- He can dress himself without help
- He can eat without help
- He has a set time to go to bed
- He makes order without help
- He develops time and space notions

Children keep on experiencing great changes during this stage.

- Between **6 and 12 years**, children grow between 5 and 8 centimetres and they almost double their weight. These measures are orientative, as they depend on the children's genetics and build. The growth is slower than when they were younger, though it is constant, until the burst of growth around **9 years** for girls and **11 years** for boys. This stage of growth generates an important osseous increase that may cause the famous **growing pains** during the night.
- Another important moment in childhood is the **first teeth falling out** between six and seven years. At this stage most of the baby teeth are changed into permanent ones.
- **Fine psychomotricity** is very much developed and this enables the child to **write and draw** more accurately.
- During this stage, children mature constantly and dynamically at a physical level, being able to coordinate and synchronize movements much better than in previous stages. Their strength and muscular resistance are increased, as well as their flexibility, but if it is not worked out, it will be lost little by little between 9 and 10 years old. For this reason, it is a great moment to start practising a sport, in a recreational way, as they can understand the rules of the practice and critical ability to improve themselves.
- When we talk about physical development, we refer to more aspects than only motor ability. The **changes** in organs are as important as the brain ones; these are vital for their **intellectual and cognitive development**. Between 7 and 8 years the prosencephalon grows significantly and also the corpus callosum matures. These changes enable the child to better his **learning ability**, to be more creative and to understand increasingly complex concepts
- Talking about health, the respiratory system no longer has so many infections (cold, otitis, tonsillitis) as their **immune system becomes more mature** and strong. On the other hand, many times refractive problems start to be found, like **myopia**, about 10 years old.

Intellectual development

- During the school stage they start to read and write, as they have not only all the physical and cognitive tools needed to do so, but they are interested in these learning areas as well. For this reason, many countries do not begin to teach reading and writing until six years old.

Curiosity moves them and is their motivation to learn. Thus, they learn each time more complex and abstract concepts really fast.

- The logical ability and the symbol recognition to solve problems is increased throughout the school stage. This ability of logical reasoning enables them to get out of the magical reality of previous stages and to issue causality judgements.
- Frequently, at this stage, the child starts to develop his first hobbies, collections or pastimes depending on his preferences and interests. He is also able to set and reach objectives.
- As they are able to understand the rules, table games can turn out interesting. Although they understand the rules, nuances are difficult to be appreciated. Thus, in this stage things are 'black or white', without the possibility of perceiving shades at the beginning of this stage
- Talking about complex concepts, they start to understand the intention of actions and the death.

ADOLESCENT

DISTINCTIVE ASPECTS OF YOUTHFUL AGE.

Psy. María de los Angeles Vergara

We will use the word adolescence to refer to the life stage that goes from about 10 to 20 years old (although the chronological age is not the vital criterion to determine the beginning and ending of it). It is a stage characterized by fast and difficult changes in the young person, which brings about a typical situation: personality alteration and difficulty in his relationship with adults; all this has contributed to defining this stage as critical or chaotic. For a better understanding of the variety of changes that occur throughout this period of time, it has been divided into 3 sub-stages that represent the most significant moments of all this process of transformation.

They are:

- Pre-puberty
- Puberty
- Adolescence

Pre-puberty (about 10 to 12 years)

During this sub-stage, the first and maybe the most sudden changes in physical build and personality of the young person appear. The typical behavioural signs are: sudden changes in mood, irritability, hypersensitivity and bipolarity between introversion and extroversion; on the whole, a personality that appears to be disintegrated and unstable. What makes the changes that occur in this stage more noticeable is the contrast with the previous stage (school years) in which the child's personality and physical shape are very stable and predictable. We will analyze these transformations in the main areas where they appear:

Biological area

There is a slow increase in hormone levels, which impacts on physical growth and development of secondary sexual characteristics (beard, pubic hair, breast). There is a significant size

increase, much greater than the one previously experienced by the youngster, which is accompanied by other characteristic signs: quick growth of the limbs, feature widening, acne, and so on. These quick physical changes contribute to getting a personal image that is changeable and unstable, and many times, to a scarcely graceful body, and even, motor incoordination (unproportional growth) that generally brings about negative self image problems, which are increased when these features take longer to appear. All these changes are perceived by the youngster who experiences feelings related to them, which are shown in the other areas we will analyze.

Emotional area

There is a general emphasis on impulses which are not well defined and can be shown as diffused excitability (irritability, change of mood, hypersensitivity). This tends to reduce the natural vitality of the school years. Thus, there are active moments alternated with passive moments and introversion. One of the characteristic feelings of this stage is the one of being misunderstood, which is related to his own perception of being neither a child nor a youngster. They are usually bored or do not know what to do, as their interests of the previous stage are gone and the ones of the new stage are just being born. Meanwhile, the sexual impulse appears, and it starts to differ from the rest of his psychological life, but, yet, there is no consciousness of it, which is also shown here as diffused excitability that affects his changes of mood.

Social area

There is a breakage in his interpersonal relationships in different areas (family, friends). There is an emphasis on the desire of independence which brings conflicts in his relationship with his parents. This fluctuates between a fit of independence and infantile actions that require protection and dependence, which is looked for, because of the basic insecurity experienced as a result of multiple changes. This intensifies his expression of stubbornness. Many times his previous groups of friends become unstructured because of the changes of interests or new ones are structured, with diffused objectives or goals (i.e. gather around to bother or disqualify some other groups). There is a trend to antagonism between sexes, mostly forming unisex groups.

Cognitive area

A new way of thinking begins to arise. This enables the youngster to transcend the earliest level he handles at school age. This new way is called hypothetical thought. Due to its brand new existence, it appears in an oscillating way (as most of the pre-pubertal features), fluctuating between moments of hypothetical-deductive reasoning and others of previously mentioned reasoning.

Puberty

Puberty refers to the process of physical changes where a child's body becomes an adult's, liable to sexual reproduction. Growth is accelerated in the first half of puberty and reaches its full development at the end. Their genitals are almost the only body differences between boys and girls before puberty. During this period, there are more noticeable differences regarding size, shape, composition and functional development in many structures and systems of the body. The most obvious are the secondary sexual features. Strictly speaking, the term 'puberty' refers to body changes in sexual maturity more than to psychosocial and cultural changes this brings about. Adolescence is the period of psychological and social transition

transition between childhood and adulthood. Adolescence expands over a great period of puberty, but its limits are less defined, and it refers mostly to psychosocial and cultural characteristics mentioned above.

Physical changes of puberty

In women

The dominant hormone in the female development is oestradiol, an oestrogen. While oestradiol promotes the growth of breasts and uterus, it is also the main conducting hormone of pubertal growth and epiphyseal maturity and closure. The oestradiol levels go up earlier and stay longer in a low level in women rather than men.

The physical changes in girls are:

- *Beginning of menstruation and fertility*

The first menstrual bleeding, also known as menarche appears between 10 and 16 years (in average). At the beginning, the menstruation periods are almost never regular and monthly during the first years. Ovulation is necessary for fertility and can appear or not in the first cycles.

- *Changes in pelvic shape, redistribution of fat and body composition.*

During this period, also in response to rising levels of oestrogen, the lower half of the pelvis widens (providing a wider birth channel). Their adipose tissues increase to a higher percentage of body composition than boys', especially in the typical distribution in women of their breasts, hips and thighs. This shapes the typical woman's body.

- *Growth of facial and body hair*

During the following years and months of the appearance of pubic hair, other skin areas develop thicker hair approximately in the following sequence: armpit hair, perianal hair, hair above the lips and periareolar hair (in nipples)

Increase of height

Growth is induced by the oestrogen and starts approximately at the same time as the first changes in breasts, or even several months earlier, making it one of the first signs of puberty in girls. The growth of legs and feet accelerates first. The growth rate tends to reach its maximum speed (just as much as 7,5 -10 cm per year).

- *Body odour, changes in the skin and acne.*

Rising levels of androgen can change the composition of the fatty acids of perspiration, resulting in a more 'adult' body odour. This frequently occurs one or more years before thelarche (beginning of the development of the breast) and the pubarche (appearance of pubic hair). Another induced effect by the androgen is the increase of oil secretion (sebum) in the skin and variable quantities of acne. This change increases susceptibility to acne, which is a characteristic feature of puberty, which varies in severity.

In men

- *Body hair*

The hypothalamic-hypophyseal-adrenal axis is the first axis which is affected in puberty. It starts to generate hormones, such as androstenedione and dihydrotestosterone (DHT) around

7 / 8 years in girls and 9 / 10 in boys. This increased activity of the H-H-Adrenal known as 'adrenarche' (increase of sexual hormone production) causes the appearance of pubic hair, armpit hair, facial hair (beard and moustache), legs and arms hair, a hairy line from the pubis to the navel, on the chest, among other things.

- *Voice deepening*

When a child is in the development stage, his vocal cords become thicker; as a result, his voice will be deep and male. This happens gradually. At the beginning, he may have a cracked voice when speaking and later, his voice becomes deeper.

- *Body odour*

When reaching puberty, the child begins to expel some characteristic odours, especially after physical exercise. The perspiration expelled by sweat glands is increased during puberty, which is the main cause, though not decisively, of body odour. This odour can be usually qualified as disgusting, and its intensity can vary from person to person and from moment to moment.

- *Height increase*

The boy who has reached puberty starts a new process of height increase that lasts longer than that of girls. This process usually lasts until 23 years old in males and 21 in females. However, the size growth can occur until 26 years.

SUMMARY

- Body growth
- Development of sexual characters
- Building of identity, self-concept, self-image
- Need of independence
- Need of belonging to the group. Assumption of roles
- Development from concrete to abstract thought
- Contradictions in their behaviour and mood changes.
- Conflicts with their parents.
- Analytical. They develop hypothesis
- They reach their own conclusions
- Egocentric
- They hold their group leader's ideals
- The ego of the adolescent defends itself, it changes: love-hatred, dependency-rebellion, respect-admiration
- The adolescent boys and girls act differently

YOUTH (20 TO 25 YEARS)

This stage goes from the end of adolescence to the start of adulthood, from about 20 to 25 years. We could say this stage is not defined by physical changes, as the previous ones; but it is, by social, psychic, cognitive and so on. It is strongly defined by building and searching for identity

The transition to adulthood is defined by five events, which can occur in a sequential, alternate or simultaneous way:

- End of school years
- To work and be economically independent.
- To live alone
- Marriage
- To have children

The youngster must integrate new abilities, roles and appearance. He will try to get intimate relationships without losing his intimacy and independence. Thus, love will be considered passion, intimacy and commitment. The importance given to each one will depend on his origins, customs, and specific time in his life. The search for his identity can last all his life, it is not considered a stage, it is part of his development.

Intimacy can be analyzed in two different ways, emotional or psychological intimacy, generally related to women and sexual intimacy, generally more related to men. The psychological intimacy is the mainstay of interpersonal relationships. This intimacy depends on at least two people, one of them shares his experiences from deep inside his being. For this, he must know what he feels or thinks, be ready to share that experience, be able to express his feelings or ideas through words. The other subject, the one who listens, must listen empathetically, feel as a privilege of being the one the other person shares his experiences with. When the speaker and listener take shifts, it is the basis of friendship and love relationships.

Nowadays, economic independence from parents takes place later because of the economic crisis and lack of opportunities. The entry into the labour market is much more competitive, strongly marked by experience, academic and professional training.

Today, we still live in a patriarchal society, even though we are evolving in this sense. People are still typecast according to gender. Thus, we can determine what is right or which behaviour is adequate for each gender and which ones must be avoided or repressed.

That is how we try to standardize gender and establish the differences with the others. What is feminine or masculine is socially pre-established. Social mandates establish, for instance, that the man should be the support of the family and the woman should deal with the household activities, although nowadays this reality is changing by enabling both men and women to reach their self-fulfilment and autonomy.

ADULTHOOD (25 TO 60 YEARS)

It is the period which goes approximately between 25 and 60 years. During the last century this has undergone changes; thanks to medical advances, life expectancy has increased.

In this stage, there is a double role: parents of adolescents who want to become adults and children of parents who are getting old and must adapt themselves to new circumstances. In this stage, parents have to face two circumstances: 'empty nest syndrome' when children start leaving home, which gives them a new perspective of freedom and fulfilment. Even though parenthood lasts all life long, what starts changing is the relationship with their children. Therefore, in the first years of this stage, there is a relationship with the child and his

growing up. In the middle of this stage, there is an 'assessment' of how the upbringing was and according to the results, it is determined whether fulfilment was achieved.

The child's role, in this stage, involves offering the necessary care to the parent who is aging. To work and look after the elderly person can be a stressful situation; furthermore, if the child has his own family to take care of, and so on.

In this stage, there is a struggle between productivity and stagnation.

Some physiological changes take place, such as, menopause in women and the andropause in men:

- Hormonal changes
- Changes of mood.
- Changes in weight and height
- Loss of bone and muscular mass.
- Wrinkles, white hair, and expression lines. Loss of skin elasticity and spots.

OLD AGE (60 YEARS AND UP)

Old age, ageing, elderly, third age, senior adults, gerontes are terms used to describe this stage of life.

As human beings become old, they reduce their interest in activities and objects, generating a system of isolation from social life. The person who ages isolates himself from other people's lives, he emotionally commits himself less and he focuses on himself. That's why emotional attachment must be promoted as long as possible. Thus, the message is conveyed: life is still worth living.

We can help the elderly with their physical and cognitive deterioration typical of old age by looking for physical and cognitive activities according to their possibilities.

Common conditions in old age:

- Arthritis and arthrosis
- Mental illnesses (Alzheimer, Senile dementia, Parkinson, and so on)
- Osteoporosis
- Diabetes
- Food imbalances
- Cancer
- Heart diseases
- Respiratory diseases
- Sleep disorder
- Fibromyalgia
- Visual (myopia, cataracts, presbyopia and so on) and auditive problems

ACTIVITIES UNIT 3

- 1) According to the above described characteristics for each stage of development, mention the differences between a lesson for infants, children, adolescents, youngsters, adults and senior adults.
Regarding psychomotor characteristics, rest times, demands, terrain.
- 2) Set an objective. Develop an activity or game according to that objective for each stage and account for it.

UNIT 5: THE GAME.

WHAT IS `PLAYING`?

It is the first creative act of human beings. It begins when the child is a baby, through the bond that is established with external reality and fantasies, needs and wishes he starts acquiring. When a child picks up any object and makes it fly, he is creating a unique and unrepeatable moment which is absolutely his. Because that `playing` does not know of preset rules, it does not understand the environmental requirements, there is no `do it well`.

DOES EVERY TOY LEAD TO A GAME?

The toy is the means which is used to play: it may include a small sheet, as well as a doll, a ball, an ant, or even a computer. All these elements may also be used for educational purposes. But if they become a teaching tool, they will lose their gaming entity. Many parents, when they sit down to play with their child, confuse `playing` with `teaching`. That is why the child, who wanted to play on a like-for-like basis, without demands, without learning anything, becomes frustrated. He can learn pleasantly, by creating a bond of knowledge and affection, between the one who teaches and the one who learns. This is very good and necessary. But it should be made clear that the game with rules is a tool by means of which the goal is trying to be reached. One knows, but the other does not. As time goes by and the child becomes an adult, the game itself is lost. It would be very positive if we started to incorporate games in our work, in our couples, with friends and rediscover it in ourselves with the help of our children.

WHY DOES THE YOUNG CHILD PLAY WHAT HE PLAYS?

There are several theories regarding this which have been dealt with thoroughly by different authors. That's why we consider it useful to make a critical synthesis of them with a projection towards the educational use of the game.

Definition by K.Groos: He argued that the game is a preliminary exercise that represents both in the early age of human beings and in that of animals, an instinctive process of acquisition of behaviour adapted to those situations adults will have to face later.

This arises from the fact of considering this activity an adaptive behaviour, based on three ideas:

- A. The game serves the purpose of developing useful instincts for everyday life,
- B. It enables the development of the organs and their functions,
- C. The instincts are due to a natural choice.

This theory of biological nature is useful in explaining some elementary games the child plays, but it puts aside some subjective aspects in different forms of games such as symbolic and social ones. Moreover, it does not take into account the relevance of the game for the child himself, either as a way of expression of his historical and vital moment or as a way of interpreting the reality of his life.

Schiller: together with the philosopher Herbert Spencer, they state the game as an excess of energy.

Claparede: The child performs activities which will be useful for him later. It is understood to be an exercise of mental activities, of psychic functions such as: observe, manipulate, associate with partners, and so on.

Buytendijk: He tends to point out that the game depends on the infantile dynamic, stating that the child plays because he is a child. That is to say that the characters typical of his dynamics stop him from doing anything but play.

Jean Piaget: He notably enriches the attempts of comprehension of the children's game, as after recognizing the value of the theories, he points out that we cannot talk about the game as a unit, but according to the variation of the evolving stages and overcoming steps, there are differences in the game according to each age.

Eric H. Erikson: Regardless of children's constraints, which express a playful renewal, he indicates that he can clearly see the condensed statement of a dominant theme in a person's destiny. If they seem to be governed by some need to communicate, they will certainly seem to serve as the joy of self-expression as well. If they seem to be sensitive to the exercise of cultivating faculties, they may also seem to serve the mastery of a complex life situation.

Huisinga: The game constitutes the very basis of culture as it is the only behaviour irreducible to the elementary survival instinct. It is present in the origin of all social and art institutions.

Elkonin: At different times in history, children practised different themed games depending on sociohistorical, geographic and domestic concrete conditions of life. The themes of children's games are different depending on the different social classes, such as free people, oppressed people, Nordic and southern people, the children of industrial workers, fishermen or farmers.

Bauzer Madeiros: The games are ways of recreational behaviour, they are usually social activities where participants, as members try, out of ability or luck, to reach a determined goal, adjusting themselves to the rules of the game.

Vygotski: The child sees the activity of adults around him, he imitates it and turns it into a game, and through it, he acquires the fundamental social relationships.

- The game improves communication
- It strengthens the links.
- It generates participation.
- It distributes the power of decision.
- It enables us to experience the importance of the organization.
- It increases self-esteem
- It favours creativity.
- It generates autonomy. He discovers his potential and what he must do to improve his performance.

TYPES OF GAMES, ACCORDING TO PIAGET

The game is an activity which has an objective in itself. The subject does not try to adapt himself to reality but to recreate it, with predominance of assimilation over accommodation.

GAME OF EXERCISE

SENSORY-MOTOR PERIOD

It consists of repeating motor type activities which initially had an adaptive aim but are then done for the pure pleasure of functional exercise and are useful to consolidate what was acquired. Many sensory-motor activities turn, thus, into game. Symbolism is still absent. It is an individual type of game though sometimes children play with adults, as in 'coo-coo', clapping and 'Eeny, Meeny, Mini, Moe'

SYMBOLIC GAME

DOMINANT BETWEEN 2-3 AND 6-7 YEARS

It consists in using a rich symbolism which is formed through imitation. The child reproduces scenes of real life, modifying them according to his needs. The symbols acquire meaning in the activity: the pieces of paper turn into notes to play shops, the carton box into a lorry, the small stick into a syringe the doctor uses. Many toys are a support for this type of games. The child practises the social roles of the activities that surround him: the teacher, the doctor, the professor, the shopkeeper, the driver and that helps him to manage them. The reality he is constantly exposed to in the game submits to his wills and needs.

GAME OF RULES

FROM 6 YEARS TO ADOLESCENCE

Social type, it is played by means of rules all the players must stick to. This makes two elements necessary: cooperation, as there will be no game without the effort of everybody, and competence because an individual or a team generally wins. This implies taking the other's point of view to be able to anticipate and not let the other one win. Besides, it requires a coordination of points of view, which is very important for the social development and to overcome 'egocentrism'

The game in the lesson:

Games in the lesson will have different aims. That is why we try to plan games in different moments of the lesson to let us develop a dynamic and amusing lesson. For this reason, as a game coordinator, he must decide whether the game is appropriate and complies with the objective. Is it possible to plan a lesson only with games? Yes, it is. We will have to set each part of the lesson clearly and choose what game or games are appropriate for each moment and each group. That is why, for instance, in the warming-up period we can choose a medium intensity motor game, being its objective: to entertain and motivate students, preparing them psychophysically for the next activity. During the body of the lesson, the motor games must be high-intensity,

promoting the anatomical physiological development and the motor capabilities according to the set objectives for the lesson. In the cool down section, the motor games must be of low intensity, sensorial; they will have as an objective the psychophysical recovery and relaxation.

There is a series of aspects we must take into account when suggesting a game:

- **Objectives:** reachable, according to the student's or group's characteristics.
- **Quantity of students:** It will be decisive when choosing the type of game
- **The terrain of the game:** It must be safe, it will determine the type and intensity of the game (presence of ice or too soft snow, obstacles, surrounding people, slope, area, type of traffic and so on)
- **Teaching material:** We must have all the appropriate material to develop the game, trying to keep adequate waiting times.
- **Rules:** We must define what we can and what we cannot do. As well as the space or area in which we will develop the activity.
- **Time of game:** It will vary according to whether they are used in the warm-up period, body of the lesson or cool down section.
- **Effort control:** Alternate high intensity games with others that will enable students to recover. Take into account the intensity according to our students' ages
- **Motivation control:** We will check if the game is of interest to our students, its duration, if it is according to their motor abilities, the moment of the lesson, the tiredness and so on.

How do we plan and introduce the game to our students? First, we must prepare the game, that means, choose the game/s we are going to develop, prepare the teaching material and the terrain or place where we will perform it. Next, we will introduce the game to our students, how it is played, rules and so on. We place the students adequately so that they can hear and see us; if necessary, we will make a demonstration or test run and we will clear doubts. We start the game, we motivate and arbitrate the game, taking action in case it is necessary.

For adolescents, youngsters, adults and senior adults, it is also important to play. At present we consider it child-like and we forget about or relegate these activities as we are mired in the responsibilities of adulthood. However, the game or the ludic act becomes socializer as we grow up. Recreation is a human necessity and as time goes by, we continue playing the same games though some of them may have changed because of technological advances.

Games in adults bring emotional, mental and physical benefits. As regards emotion, they connect us with the others by means of fun and laughter, we develop empathy, cooperation, compassion though, sometimes, we also develop competence.

The game is a means to stimulate imagination, creativity, curiosity. It keeps our mind active. When we play, we release endorphins; playing is something pleasant which makes us feel well. Playing with other people enables us to develop empathy and feel accompanied.

UNIT 6: THE LESSON AND THE LESSON WITH CHILDREN

When working with children, we are working with the most precious human being a parent may have. From the beginning to the end of the lesson, we will be responsible for it, with children it is not different. We will be responsible for those children until they go back with their parents or person in charge.

In a lesson we will meet people with different characteristics within the same group. Working with children, we will certainly have someone who misses his parents, someone who is more absent-minded, someone who does not want to do the activities because he is tired and so on. Each person is different and has different needs.

Group or individual lessons must be planned, and this does not change when we work with children. When planning a lesson, I am developing a plan of action, which will enable me to make the lesson safe, optimize time, make it dynamic, be able to have a progression, and so on. This does not mean that the planning must be strict or cannot have variables, but it will be the most efficient means to reach the set objectives for that student or group.

What is a group? A group is a party of people who have mutual interaction and as a party, a certain history or objectives in common, functions and roles inside the party, behavioural patterns, and so on.

For instance, one of the main aspects when forming groups of children is that they must all be going through the same evolving stage, that the group is the same age, that the groups are reduced, if possible. Although it may occur that because of operative issues of the school or parent's economy, among others, children share the lesson with others of different ages (for instance family group, classmates and a small brother and so on). In this case, our lesson must adapt itself to that situation.

For a group to be attractive to a child, it must fulfil some of his particular needs: to be accepted, recognized, safe and so on. A child will enjoy his group depending on the structure, tasks, objectives and members who make it up. Within the group, there may be mechanisms which affect the dynamics and cause discomfort.

Some of these are:

- **Authoritarianism:** Domain of one over others.
- **Competence:** Conflict between the members on interests.
- **Antagonistic subgroups:** they resist to integrate and cause aggression.
- **Disqualification:** open or undercover
- **Instrumentalization:** use of some by others
- **Aggression:** physical or verbal.
- **Elitism:** exaltation of some and depreciation of others.

It is convenient to distinguish the aspects associated with group dynamics between the attitudinal (aggression, competence and so on) and the technical (objectives, tasks and so on). The technical aspects are much easier to reverse than the link ones which put psychological and relational aspects of the person at risk. It is important to generate a link structure which will be able to solve conflicts adequately.

Teachers will be facilitators of the group environment and will be the authority in the class. When we speak of authority, we refer to someone who orients and organizes the task, sets limits. The one who is in authority has certain competencies, abilities and skills to perform some task. There are three types of authority:

- Authoritarian: the person who is in front of the group, gives orders, sets the guidelines, does not allow criticism or suggestions, does not permit or start a debate, the task is centred in his needs.
- Democratic: He makes group discussion possible, he encourages participation. Politeness predominates.
- Laissez Faire: he leaves the group on their own, he does not give guidelines or directions, he only answers questions. People work very little and the work is interrupted.

There is not a better style than others. We, as teachers, will be the three types of authority under different circumstances, to gain the recognition and acceptance of the group.

Basic attitudes of a learning facilitator.

- To be able to be oneself in the teacher 's role, an authentic person
- Attitude of acceptance, appreciation and confidence.
- Empathic understanding.

For a good group atmosphere, limits are essential. To frame our class in what can or cannot be done, limits are necessary. They favour clarity in the relationship and feelings, they enable our students to feel safe.

Qualities of a good facilitator.

- The teacher is in charge of the leadership of the group and the task adopting an authentic, emphatic, polite and enthusiastic attitude.
- Firmness will be perceived in the conviction, clarity and enthusiasm with which the task is introduced; the guidelines and organization of the work together with the objectives he wants to reach.
- Acceptance and respect to all. Accept and respect each student in his personal dignity and with identical firmness, do not tolerate lack of respect.
- Do not attack anybody and do not allow aggression towards yourself or among students.
- Do not engage in disqualifying conducts. Students' development and progress is stimulated by emphasising his achievements rather than his mistakes.
- Avoid comparisons among students
- Stimulate students in their personal growth
- Generate attitudes which will integrate the group.

In front of a feeling of failure, boredom, rejection or discrimination, pressure, students may react aggressively. In this sense, the instructor's speech before an aggression must be brief and never offending or threatening. He appeals to the student's positive side, opens a communication channel. In order to be able to act before an aggressive situation, we must know the events and circumstances, listen to the parts involved. We must work in groups or individually.

■ GAME APPENDIX ■

SOME OBSERVATIONS WE MUST NOT FORGET:

The SAFETY of our class, above all!...

- Chasing games on skis or boards limit mobility. Our students must always be able to control speed and manage to brake in reduced spaces.
- Take into account weather conditions, hardness of snow, quantity of skiers or tourists around, presence of obstacles.
- The helmet, gloves and boots must be well placed and well adjusted
- Well-regulated skis and in good conditions
- Define the playing area, count our students, know where they are!

CHASING GAMES

THE TAG OF THE LONG NOSE

One is 'It' and tries to touch others, who become chasers as soon as they are touched, but they must move around with their hand on their nose.

THE CHAIN

One is a chaser and must touch the others who are running. When they are touched, they become chasers that must form a chain hand-in-hand, until there is only one to be chased.

Variation: It is the same, but when there are 4 in the hand-in-hand chain, they will let loose and become 2 chasing couples. The game ends when every player is part of one of the chains.

HENS FOXES SNAKES

We mark 3 areas on the terrain; one for each animal. We give some colour strips to each team to distinguish ones from the others. At a signal, hens chase snakes, these chase foxes, and foxes chase hens. When the chaser touches the chased one, he takes him by his hand to the chaser's area as a prisoner where he cannot escape from. While this is happening, the chaser cannot be touched by the ones who are chasing him. The game ends when there are only players of one team who were not hunted.

THE PAT

We make two teams: A and B and we place each team on one line at 20 meters one from the other. Team 'A' starts the game, one of them approaches the line of the opposite team where the players are with their outstretched palms. The player hits the palm of one of the players of team

'B' and runs towards his line chased by the other. If he is touched by his chaser, team 'B' gains one point. If he does not, team 'A' gains it.

Variation: The one who moves towards the opponent team hits everyone softly until he hits one of them strongly. This will become his chaser. If the chaser catches him, he will become a member of the opposite team. The team which has more players is the winner.

HANDKERCHIEF WAR

All the players with a strip or handkerchief on their waists must try and gather as many handkerchiefs or strips from their opponents as they can, without losing their own. When a player gains another handkerchief, he hangs it from his waist besides his own. The player who gets more handkerchiefs is the winner.

COUNTER HIDE-AND-SEEK

Variation of hide-and-seek. One of the players hides and the rest must look for him. Those who find him must hide together with him. And so the game goes on until everybody is hidden or a few players are left to find the hidden group.

FUNGI AND ELVES

There is a chasing elf and a chased elf. The rest of the players are the fungi, who are crouching down on the floor. If the chased elf wants to save himself, he will jump over a fungus. Thus, the chased elf will become a fungus, the chasing elf will become the chased one, and the fungus will become a chasing elf.

GENERIC GAMES

EARTH AND SEA

The instructor and a child will hold a rope, which each of them will grab at an end. The players will be scattered on the playing area. The instructor and his partner will run from one end to the other within a previously delimited field and they will say EARTH!. Everybody must throw himself onto the floor without letting the rope rub them. If they say SEA!, they must jump over the rope.

COLOURFUL

The players place themselves in a circle around the instructor, who gives each player a colour in an orderly way. He also marks a direction (left/right). When the instructor mentions a colour and a direction, for instance: GREEN RIGHT, all the players of that colour run around the circle in the marked direction up to the starting point. The last one to reach this point is excluded from the game.

THE SNAILS

The instructor chooses a point which he will mark with something. At a signal, the players will leave their different positions in the playing area and will try and move towards the pennant without being seen or recognized by the instructor. Those who have been identified or called by him will be excluded from the game.

ORANGE LEMON STRAWBERRY AND TUTTI FRUTTI

Children sit down in a circle, with one of them in the centre. To start with, the instructor himself sits in the centre. He gives each child the name of a fruit, repeating the sequence as many times as necessary, ORANGE, LEMON, STRAWBERRY, ORANGE, LEMON, and so on. The instructor, or the one who is in the centre, mentions one of the fruit. The ones named after that fruit must run and look for a different place from the one they had before. The one who does not find a place stays at the centre. When he says TUTTI FRUTTI, everybody starts running looking for a different place, and the player who does not find one stays in the centre. Variation, With names of animals and FOREST.

AMOEBA RACE

To build the 'amoeba', 5 or 6 players make a circle giving their back to the centre and they stand arm-in-arm with the mates on both sides of them. Other four players go inside the circle and form another mini circle and another player inside this mini circle. The aim is to cover a set distance without breaking the amoeba.

EDUCATIONAL SQUARES

Draw numbered squares on the floor or mark them by using newspapers. Each team must follow the order of the squares the instructor enumerates.

KNIGHT ON YOUR HORSE

Players, in couples, are divided into two circles. The outer ones are KNIGHTS and the inner ones HORSES. When the instructor gives the order, the knights turn around the circle. If the teacher claps once, the knights must run onto their horses (keeping the same direction). If the teacher claps twice, the knights must go under the legs of the horses and they become horses themselves. If he claps three times, the same as when he claps twice, but the new knight must ride onto the new horse. The last players to reach their horses are excluded from the game.

FOLLOW ME AND GO AWAY

There are four teams forming a cross. One of the players stays out. When the instructor gives a signal, the player will run around the four lines. At a certain time, he will tap the last player of any line on his shoulder and he will say 'follow me'. At this, all the line must go behind him, make a whole round and fit into the empty space. The last player to do so stays out. If, on the contrary, the player says 'go away', the team he has tapped must go in this player's opposite direction. In this game there are no winners or losers.

RELAY GAMES

SNAIL RELAYS

We divide the teams into couples of identical weight and height. The players link their arms together and they must reach the finishing line walking, one of them forwards and the other backwards. When they go back to the starting point for another couple to catch up, the one who walks forwards, will walk backwards and the other way round. It is not allowed to let loose or carry the partner on his back.

ROLLING TRICKS

The teams must lie down on the floor. The members of each team must be completely close to each other, alternating head and feet, by the shoulders. When they are all in their positions, another member of the same team lies on top and the ones underneath must carry him to the finishing line by rolling all at the same time. When the one who was carried on top reaches the finishing line, he will join the other members on the floor and, in turn, the last in the sequence will be carried on top. The winner will be the team which carries all its members to the finishing line first.

THE FAMILY

It will be like a common relay race, but when the player lets the second one out, this will hold his hand and will run with him. The game goes on like that until everybody is hand-in-hand like a good family.

BLIND MAN'S GUIDE

The one who runs is blindfolded and his team must tell him the way. When he comes back, he must hand in the handkerchief to the following participant. The game ends when the first team finishes.

CIRCULAR

All the teams form only one circle. Each member has been given a number previously. When the instructor gives the order, all numbers 1 stand up and run around the circle once, all in the same direction. As they reach their place, they sit down and number 2 stands up and does the same. The winner is the team whose members complete the whole round and sit down first.

CRAZY RACE

It is a common relay race, but the first participants run normally, the second ones backwards, the third ones on all fours, the fourth ones wheelbarrow and so on.

NEWSPAPER

The instructor hands out as many newspapers as the number of teams there are. He gives the newspaper to the first in the line. Once the instructor gives the order, the first member of each team must put the pages of the newspaper on the floor so that his mates can step on them. When they reach the finishing line, they will come back by stepping on the same newspapers, but the last member will pick up the pages.

BLOWING UP BALLOONS

Each participant must go through five controls placed 15 metres from each other. At each control, there is one balloon. The participant runs towards the control, picks up the balloon and blows it up until it bursts. When the balloon bursts, he runs up to the following control.

INDOOR GAMES

SHIPS AND PLANES

Every child makes his own paper ship with his name, puts it in the swimming pool, in the water, and the children together with their family wave the water in order to push the ship up to the finishing line. They do the same with planes, but throw them into the air and see which covers the greatest distance.

KNIGHT. HORSE. PRINCESS

Everybody sits down in a circle. The instructor indicates a character to each, alternating, knight, horse, princess, knight, horse... , and he places himself in the centre. The game starts when the instructor tells a story and every time he mentions one of the characters, all the participants who have that character must change places. The instructor will also take a place and the participant who cannot find a place will go on the story. We can add more characters or invent others.

Variation: Fruit, Animals

SKI/ SNOWBOARD.

Everybody sits in a circle. The instructor who is in the centre starts telling a story. Every time he says the word ski/ snowboard , everybody starts running so as not to be caught. The one who is caught will continue the story.

PRISONERS

Everyone but six makes a circle hand-in-hand. Those six stay in the centre and try to escape. The rest must try to stop this.

EARTHQUAKE

Everybody in groups of three, two of which are holding hands, one in front of the other, the third one between them. The first two are TREES and the third one is a SQUIRREL. Besides, there is an extra participant who does not belong to any group that is in the centre. This one will shout: 'trees', and these will move to a different squirrel while the squirrels remain in their place, 'squirrel' and these will move while the trees remain in their place, or 'earthquake' and everybody will move and form a new group. The last child to take a place will go to the centre of the circle.

COLA/FANTA

A rope is put on the floor or a line is painted on it. Every child stands behind it. The instructor explains that one side of the rope is COLA and the other one is FANTA. When the instructor gives the order, the participants must jump from one side to the other according to the instruction. Those players who make a mistake will be excluded from the game. (There is a faster version: crocodile, Pepsi, Sprite)

FIND YOUR PARTNER

Everybody is given an animal whose 'sound' they must imitate. There are two of each kind. Each participant must find his partner through the sound.

SPIDER CRAB

All the participants are crabs. Thus, they must walk on their arms and feet but, at the same time, on their backs. One participant is the spider crab, and he must touch somebody else's shoulder with his head. The one who is touched becomes a spider crab. The participants can only move around sideways or backwards.

EATING-COLOUR WITCH

All the children spread out in the playing area. One, chosen at random, is the witch who will say: 'The witch eats blue'. Everybody must touch an object or clothes of that colour. Meanwhile, the witch will try to catch them. The one who is touched will become the witch.

THE BURNT HAND

Everybody must stand in a circle with their palms up. There is a player in the centre who will try to hit the other players' palms, while these will try to remove them. The one who is hit twice or three times must cross his arms until the end of the game.

PLIS-PLAS

Everybody stands hand-in-hand in a circle over a piece of newspaper. The instructor who is in the centre will say PLIS and everybody will move one sheet of newspaper to the right, PLAS and they will move to the left. Before starting, they get ready by jumping on their place, leaning and so on. Nobody loses.

THE MESSAGE

We draw two parallel lines separated by 10 to 20 metres. The players of each team are divided into two groups. Each group stands behind one of the two lines in front of their partners. The players on one side are even numbers and the others are odd numbers. All the players must sit on the floor one behind the other. The numbers 1 of all teams will get a message from the instructor in their ears. They must cross the room running and pass the message into the ears of the members of their team who are number 2. Next, they must sit behind the last one in the line of even numbers. The game will follow like this until everybody has communicated the message. The winning team is the one who takes less time and communicates the message better to the last player.

FACE TO FACE

In a circle in twos. The instructor will give the orders 'on your back', 'hands on the shoulders'... When he says 'face to face', they must all change their couples. The instructor will take part in the group, and the one who is left out will give the orders.

Variation: with music.

RUN FOR YOUR LIFE

Every child must look for an object and leave it in the centre. Everybody will dance, run, hop and so on until the instructor gives an order. All the participants must pick up an object. The player who cannot get one will lose. The instructor will have previously taken an object.

POISONED CIRCLE

A circle is drawn on the floor. Everybody must run around it hand-in-hand without touching the circle. On the other hand, they will try to make the other players step on it. Those who do will stay inside. The more players excluded the smaller circle they make.

FOX, HEN AND CHICKENS

Everybody standing in a line holding each other by the waist. The first player is the hen and the rest, its chickens. The fox stands in front of them and tries to grab the last chicken in the line while the rest try to avoid it. If the fox succeeds, the chicken becomes a fox and the fox will stand behind the hen.

SHEEP AND WOLF

All the sheep will be hugging simulating a flock. The wolf must eat all of them, trying to separate a sheep from the others by tickling it, and so on.

CLUMSY ANIMALS

Everybody standing up in a circle is given an animal. When the teacher mentions this animal in the story he will retell, the players must sit down.

Variation: Everyone is given the same animal so they will all sit down at a time.

CLOWN

Everybody but one stands in a circle. This player will act as a clown and in the centre, he must make others laugh. The one who laughs at him must go to the centre and try himself.

WITH CIGARETTE PAPER

In couples, try to keep a cigarette paper in the air as long as possible by just blowing it.

CANDY FISHING

One of the children or the instructor takes a stick with a string imitating a fishing rod. At the end of this string, there is a candy. Standing on a chair, he must move about the candy over the other participants' heads who will try to grab it with their mouths without the help of their hands.

LEARNING, ALWAYS.



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