

Revision Guide

for BTEC First Award / Extended Certificate
in Applied Science

Unit 1: Principles of Science

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Teacher's Introduction

This pack is designed to give your students a focused and accessible review of the required knowledge for the Unit 1 external exam entitled Principles of Science, which is part of the BTEC Firsts Applied Science courses. The resource is applicable for students studying the Extended Certificate, First Award or First Diploma, for which Unit 1 is mandatory.

It is mainly designed as a revision aid, with each section easily photocopyable to give a set of comprehensive notes for revision. The notes and questions can also be used as a summary in the event of staff absence, or to fill gaps in students' notes. The sample assessment materials have been used as a guide for the pitch and depth of material, ensuring that students' revision best prepares them for the actual exam.

The resource is divided into six chapters, corresponding to the learning aims outlined in the specification:

- **Key concepts in Biology**
Chapter A – exploring cells, organs and genes
Chapter B – exploring the roles of the nervous and endocrine systems in homeostasis and communication
- **Key concepts in Chemistry**
Chapter C – exploring atomic structure and the periodic table
Chapter D – exploring substances and chemical reactions
- **Key concepts in Physics**
Chapter E – exploring the importance of energy stores, energy transfers and energy transformations
Chapter F – exploring the properties and applications of waves in the electromagnetic spectrum

Features included:

- Each chapter contains revision notes with 'Quick questions' every few pages, designed to test students' surface knowledge of a topic. These should be answered elsewhere, e.g. in a student's workbook.
- There are 'Exam-style questions' at the end of the chapter, which will require a deeper level of understanding. They are provided in reduced photocopying non-write-on format within the resource, but there are also full write-on versions available in the appendix which will prepare your students for the style and layout of the BTEC examinations.
- A write-on checklist is also given at the end of each chapter, so that students can self-assess/evaluate their understanding of the topics.

Answers to both the quick questions and the exam-style questions are given at the end of this pack.

Remember!

Always check the exam board website for new information, including changes to the specification and sample assessment material.

Chapter A: Cells, organs and g

In this chapter you will learn about cells and how they work in animals and about the genetic information contained in cells, and how characteristics are



A1: Cells, tissues and organs

	Definitions
Cell	The smallest unit that is alive
Organelle	a part of a cell, e.g. a nucleus or a chloroplast
Tissue	a group of similar cells that work together to perform a
Organ	a body part which is made up of different tissues and pe e.g. the heart and the liver are organs
Photosynthesis	a chemical reaction that enables plants to make their ow
Respiration	a chemical reaction that releases energy from food for t

All living organisms are made up of cells. Organisms can range from a single bacterium, through to complex organisms like trees or mammals, which have

Some cells are highly specialised in what they look like and what they do.

Parts of a cell are called **subcellular structures**, or **organelles**.

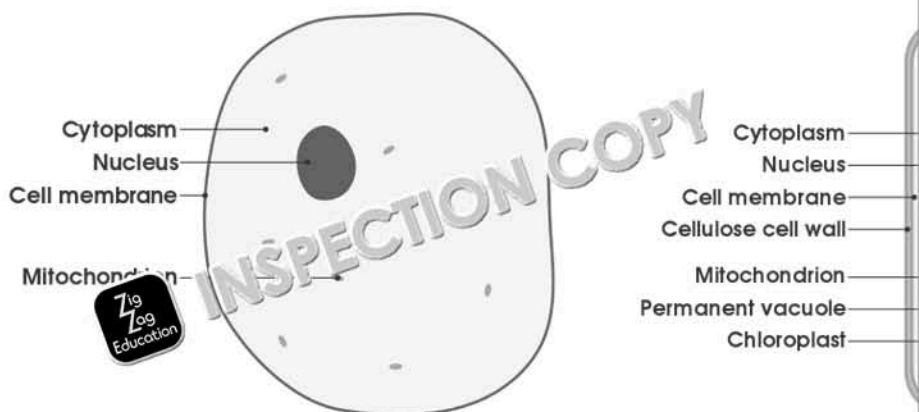
Animal and plant cells

Most animal and plant cells have the following parts:

- ★ A **nucleus** which contains DNA and **controls the activities of the cell**
- ★ **Cytoplasm**, a liquid gel where most of the chemical reactions take place
- ★ A **cell membrane** which controls the movement of substances into and out of the cell
- ★ **Mitochondria**, which provide the **energy** for the cell through **respiration** by converting glucose into carbon dioxide and water and releasing energy. Cells which are specialised for energy production, such as liver, nerve and muscle cells, have more mitochondria.

ANIMAL CELL

PLANT CELL



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Plant cells also have:

- ★ A **cell wall** surrounding the cell membrane. This is made of cellulose. It is rigid and helps to strengthen and support the cell.
- ★ A **vacuole** – large permanent central space filled with cell sap, which is a weak solution of sugars and mineral salts. The cell sap helps to keep the cells rigid and support the plant.


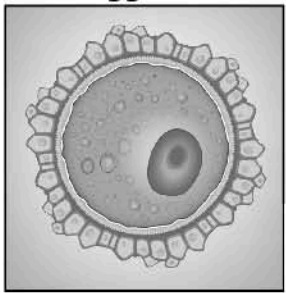

These two features are important for the support of the plant – plants have without this support they'd just be floppy and shapeless.

- ★ Green plant cells have **chloroplasts**. These contain the green pigment that allows plants to make their own food by **photosynthesis**, absorbing the energy from light and taking in carbon dioxide and water into glucose and oxygen.

Specialised cells



Many animal and plant cells do specific jobs, and they have special features. You need to be able to relate the **structure** of a cell (what it looks like) to its function. Here are some examples you need to know about:

Animal cells

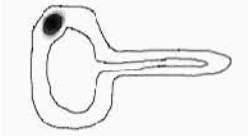
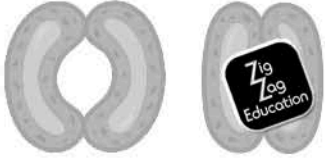
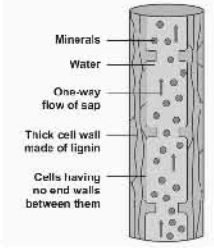
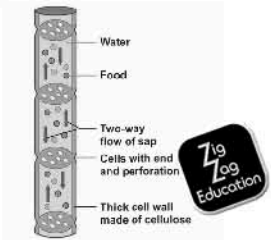
Cell	Function	
<p>Nerve cell (neurone)</p> 	<p>Carries electrical signals around the body.</p> <p>Joins up with other nerve cells to pass on the signal.</p> <p>Sensory and motor neurones are covered in more detail in Chapter B.</p>	<p>Long insulated wire, to keep right direction.</p> <p>Lots of points of contact with other cells.</p> <p>Many mitochondria for the electrical signals.</p>
<p>Egg cell</p> 	<p>Joins with the sperm cell during reproduction.</p> <p>It needs to stay alive for several days without a blood supply and be penetrated by just one sperm.</p>	<p>It's a large cell containing many mitochondria for cell division.</p> <p>Protective outer layer.</p>
<p>Sperm cell</p> 	<p>Swims up through the female reproductive system to fertilise an egg.</p> <p>Penetrates the egg cell and joins with it.</p>	<p>Long tail for movement.</p> <p>Lots of mitochondria for energy to move.</p> <p>Long, thin structure for sperm to swim.</p> <p>Pointed head.</p>

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Cell	Function	Adaptation
<p>Red blood cell</p> 	<p>Carries oxygen around the body.</p> <p>Needs to be able to get through very tiny blood vessels.</p>	<p>No nucleus, so there's more space to carry oxygen.</p> <p>Large surface area helps oxygen get out of the cell quickly.</p> <p>Contains haemoglobin, which carries oxygen.</p> <p>Round flat shape means it can squeeze through tiny blood vessels.</p>
<p>White blood cell</p> 	<p>Kills disease-causing bacteria and viruses.</p>	<p>The cell membrane and cytoplasm are flexible, and this allows them to squeeze through the walls of blood vessels to reach infected tissues.</p> <p>Some white blood cells can be called antibodies, which destroy pathogens.</p>

Plant cells

Cell	Function	Adaptation
<p>Root hair cell</p> 	<p>Absorbs water and nutrients from the soil.</p> <p>Needs to be able to absorb as much as possible.</p>	<p>Root hairs give a large surface area for absorption.</p> <p>Large vacuole to store water.</p>
<p>Guard cells</p> 	<p>Guard cells open and close any holes in leaves called stomata.</p> <p>When the stomata are open, carbon dioxide can enter the leaves for photosynthesis, and water can evaporate out of the leaf.</p>	<p>The cell wall is thick on the outside of the cell, so the cell is well hydrated. When the cells swell up in water, they open the stomata.</p>
<p>Xylem cells</p> 	<p>Xylem vessels transport water up the plant from the roots to the leaves.</p> <p>They also support the plant.</p>	<p>Xylem cells have no end walls, so they form a continuous tube for water to flow through.</p> <p>The cell walls are thick with a tough water-repellent called lignin.</p>
<p>Phloem cells</p> 	<p>Phloem tubes carry glucose and other food substances from the leaves to other parts of the plant.</p>	<p>The end walls of the cells have perforations so that substances can be transported.</p> <p>The cells are cylindrical so they stack together.</p>

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Tissues, organs and systems

In complex living creatures:

- ★ A group of similar cells working together form a **tissue**.
- ★ A group of tissues working together form an **organ**.
- ★ A group of organs working together form an **organ system**.
- ★ A group of organ systems form a whole body **organism**.

The cells of multicellular organisms **differentiate** and become adapted for their functions. A tissue is a group of specialised cells that have a similar structure and function.

Examples of tissues include:

- ★ **muscle tissue**, which can contract to bring about movement
- ★ **glandular tissue**, which can produce substances such as enzymes and hormones
- ★ **epithelial tissue**, which covers internal surfaces in the body

Organs are made up of lots of tissues. One organ may contain several different tissues. e.g. the heart is mainly made up of muscle tissue but it also contains nerve tissue.

Organ systems are groups of organs that work together. The human body has several organ systems, including:

- ★ The cardiovascular system, which transports oxygen and nutrients around the body
- ★ The digestive system, which absorbs nutrients from the food we eat.

The heart is part of the **cardiovascular** system, together with the blood vessels.

Each system in the body has a specific function and together they make up the whole organism.

Quick questions 1

1. List **three** structures that are present in both animal and plant cells.
2. Give **three** ways in which a plant cell is **different** from a human cell.
3. What is the function of a sperm cell?
4. Put these terms in order, starting with the smallest:
organ, organism, cell, organ system, tissue

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A2: Plant organs and systems

Most plants are multicellular organisms. They contain specialised cells, tissue

	Definitions
Stomata	tiny pores in the surface of a leaf that allow carbon dioxide to enter the leaf for photosynthesis
Transpiration	the evaporation of water vapour from leaves through stomata
Transpiration stream	the transport of water from the roots to the leaves
Turgid	a plant cell is turgid when the vacuole is full and it is swollen
Flaccid	a plant cell is flaccid when it is dehydrated. The vacuole is empty and the cell becomes floppy.

Organs of plants

- ★ **Roots:** anchor the plant firmly into the ground and absorb water and mineral ions from the soil. Root cells have *root hairs* **to increase the surface area** so that the plant can absorb substances more quickly.
- ★ **Flower:** contains the reproductive organs.
- ★ **Leaf:** carries out **photosynthesis** to make food for the plant. Photosynthesis uses light energy to convert carbon dioxide and water into a sugar called glucose.
- ★ **Stem:** transports substances up and down and keeps the plant upright so that the leaves get sunlight.

Flowering



The **stem** contains these two specialised transport tissues:

- ★ **Xylem** vessels extend from the roots to the leaves. They transport water and mineral nutrients to the leaves and other parts of the plant. Xylem consists of dead cells with no end walls and a substance called lignin to form stiff tubes.
- ★ **Phloem** tubes carry the sugars such as glucose from the leaves where they are made to other parts of the plant. This sugar can then be stored, e.g. as starch. Phloem is formed of living cells which are lined with cytoplasm, with perforated end walls called sieve plates.

Example

Leaves are plant organs, and their main function is photosynthesis. Explain **one** way in which leaves are adapted for this function. (2 marks)

The key word here is 'explain', and it's a 2-mark question, so for 1 mark you say how it is adapted, and for the second mark you say how it helps with photosynthesis. Leaves have a large surface area, which means they can absorb a lot of light. Leaf cells contain many chloroplasts, which are specialised for photosynthesis. Leaves have stomata, which allow carbon dioxide to enter the leaf for

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Transport

Plants make their own glucose through **photosynthesis** but only some parts. For example, the roots cannot photosynthesise because they do not get any light.

Therefore, they need a transport system to get food from the leaves to other parts. They also get water from the roots up to the leaves for photosynthesis.

This system is made up of many tiny tubes and vessels that branch throughout the plant's circulatory system.

- ★ The roots take up **water** and transport it to the leaves in **xylem** vessels.
- ★ Minerals dissolved in the water are also transported in **xylem** vessels to other parts of the plant.
- ★ **Food** (the product of photosynthesis) travels from the leaves in **phloem** vessels to any part of the plant to any part which needs it (for growth or for storage).

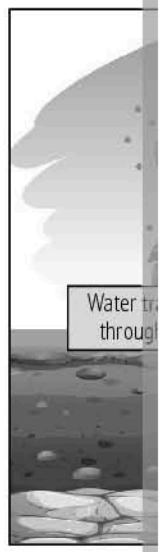
Transpiration

When the water reaches the leaves some of it is used up for photosynthesis, and the excess water evaporates and escapes through tiny holes in the leaves called **stomata**. This evaporation is called **transpiration**.

As water evaporates, more water is sucked up from the roots. The passage of water through the plant is called the **transpiration stream**.

Guard cells

Plants control the amount of water lost through transpiration by opening and closing their stomata (singular: stoma).



A stoma is just a hole controlled by two **guard cells** which change shape to open and close the hole. Water enters the cells and so they swell up and change shape to open the hole.

In dry weather, if the plant is dehydrated, the guard cells lose water and go back to their original shape, closing the hole to keep water inside the plant. See page 4 for a diagram of guard cells.

- ★ Transpiration happens more rapidly in hot, dry, windy conditions, just like evaporation.
- ★ Most of the stomata are on the lower epidermis of the leaf. The lower epidermis is closer to the ground so the plant won't lose too much water.

Quick questions 2

1. Which **two** substances are transported in **xylem** vessels?
2. What is **transpiration**?
3. From which part of the leaf does transpiration occur?
4. Name **one** environmental condition which would increase the **rate** of transpiration.

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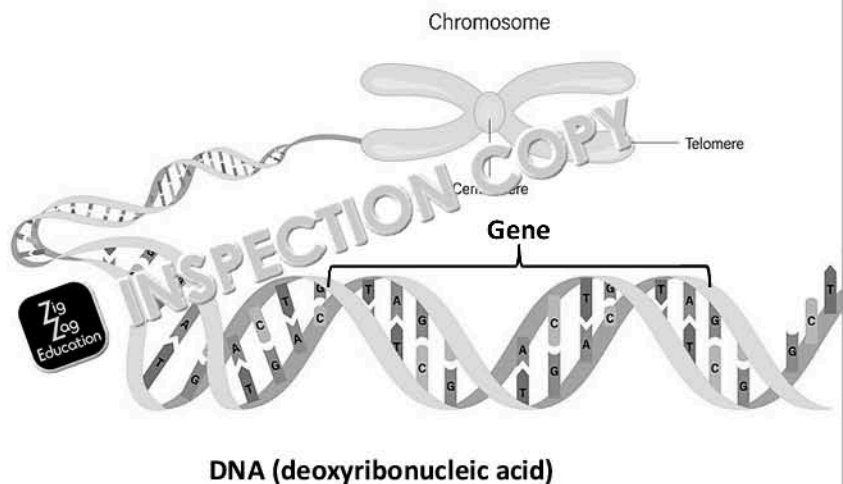
A3: DNA, genes and chromosomes

The genetic code is carried by a molecule called **deoxyribonucleic acid**, or

	Definitions
Gamete	a sex cell. In humans, the male sex cells are called sperm and the female sex cells are called eggs or ova
Characteristic	a feature of an organism, such as eye colour or blood group
Double helix	the name given to the shape of the DNA molecule
Bases	the four chemicals in DNA that contain the genetic code
Chromosome	a long strand of DNA, containing a large amount of genetic information
Gene	a small section of DNA which codes for one characteristic
Allele	one of the different forms of a particular gene
Mutation	a change in the order of bases in a gene

The DNA strand looks a bit like a twisted ladder. Scientists call this shape a **double helix**.

Inside the nucleus of our cells, long molecules of DNA are coiled up into **chromosomes**. Inside each chromosome there are hundreds of **genes**. Genes are small sections of DNA that code for a particular characteristic.



DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid)

The DNA molecule and base pairs

The rungs of the DNA ladder are made up of pairs of **bases** connected to each other. The bases that carries the actual genetic code.

There are four different base molecules. Each is usually known by the first letter of its name: **Adenine (A), Cytosine (C), Guanine (G) Thymine (T)**

The way the bases join up in pairs is fixed. **A and T always join together, and C and G always join together.**

These are called **complementary base pairs**.

So, if the sequence of bases on one side of the DNA molecule is
 Then the sequence on the other side will be

Exam tip
 Just remember: A and T always join together, and C and G always join together.

C	T
G	A

The order of the bases controls the types of **proteins** that the cell makes. The proteins then control the organism's characteristics.

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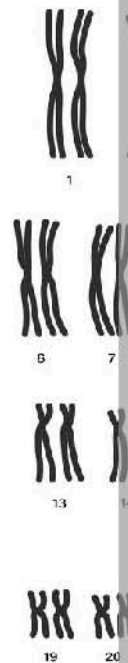
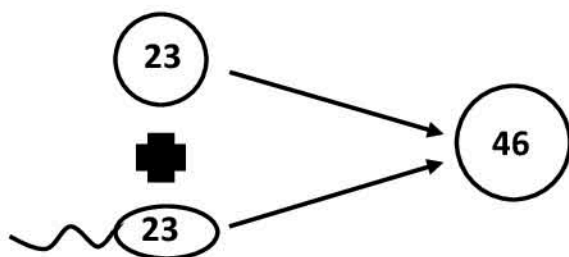


Chromosomes and genes

Humans have 46 chromosomes in our body cells, arranged in 23 pairs. When stained and photographed under a microscope, they look like this (see right):

We inherit one chromosome in each pair from our mother and one from our father.

Gametes (sperm and egg) contain 23 single chromosomes. When the nucleus of an egg and the sperm fuse together in fertilisation, the new life has the full 46 chromosomes in its cells.



Notice that all the pairs are identical except for the 23rd pair. These are the sex chromosomes: the long one is called an X chromosome, and the short one is called a Y chromosome. Females have XX, males have XY.

All normal eggs produced by a human ovary have an X chromosome.

In the case of sperm, however, half the sperm carry an X and half carry a Y.

A human baby's sex is determined when an X egg is fertilised by a sperm. If the fertilising sperm is an X sperm, the baby will be a girl. If the fertilising sperm is a Y sperm, the baby will be a boy.

Since we inherit particular chromosomes from our parents through the egg and sperm, we inherit particular characteristics coded for by the **genes** on those chromosomes.

Mutations

Body cells divide to make other body cells and to make gametes. Sometimes there is a change in the order of the bases in a gene.

For example: the base sequence of a gene begins A C A G T C ...

If one of the bases got damaged, it might be A C A **G** T C ...

The new base sequence would be A C A T C ...

This is called a **mutation**.

This gene will now produce a different protein, and this can result in a new characteristic.

Mutations happen all the time; some happen spontaneously, and some are caused by external factors such as radiation or toxic chemicals.

If a mutation happens in a gamete, the mutated gene will be passed on when the gamete is used in fertilisation.

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Mutations increase the genetic **variation** between individuals of the same species.

Most mutations have no effect on survival or are harmful and die out, but some are beneficial which produces a characteristic that helps the organism to survive.

Mutations that help the organism to survive will over time become more common. More organisms with the mutated gene will survive and reproduce. This is called natural selection.

For example: Most bluebell plants have blue flowers, but sometimes you find a white one. If an insect was introduced to the habitat and that insect ate the blue flowers, then after a few years nearly all the bluebells would be white.



Alleles

Because of mutations over many generations, many of our genes have more than one form. Different forms of the same gene are called **alleles**.

For example: The gene for flower colour in pea plants has two alleles: red and white. A young plant grown from a seed will inherit one allele from each parent pea plant, so it could inherit either:

Red and red or White and white or Red and white

The combination of alleles will determine whether the plant has red flowers or white flowers.

Quick questions 3

- Put these parts in order of size, starting with the smallest:
nucleus gene cell chromosome
- Copy and complete these sentences:
The shape of the DNA molecule is called a
The parts of the DNA molecule that carry the genetic code are called
- The bases on one side of a section of DNA are **T C G A**. Write down the other side in the correct order.
- In humans, how many chromosomes are there in the nucleus of:
a) a muscle cell? b) a sperm cell? c) a fertilised egg?
- Which pair of sex chromosomes is found in human males?



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A4: Inheritance

For this section, it's important to understand these words and be able to use them.

	Definitions
Genotype	the alleles that an individual has in their cells
Phenotype	the physical effect of an individual's alleles – their characteristics
Homozygous	a pair of alleles that are both the same
Heterozygous	a pair of alleles that are different from each other
Recessive	an allele that only shows in the phenotype if the individual has two copies of the allele
Dominant	an allele that shows up in the phenotype if it is present at least once

Most of our characteristics are the result of several genes acting together, and can be influenced by environmental factors such as nutrition. However, some characteristics are controlled by **genes**, e.g. eye colour and the shape of the earlobe.

As stated in the previous section, these genes may have different forms, called **Alleles**. Alleles can be **dominant** or **recessive**:

- ★ The characteristic controlled by a **dominant** allele develops if the individual has at least one copy of the allele on the chromosomes in a pair.
- ★ The characteristic controlled by a **recessive** allele develops only if the individual has two copies of the allele on the chromosomes in a pair.

The **genotype** of an individual tells you which alleles they have.

- ★ If both alleles are the same, we say the individual is **homozygous** for that characteristic.
- ★ If the two alleles are different, we say the individual is **heterozygous** for that characteristic.

Scientists use letters to show which alleles an individual has. The dominant allele is shown as a capital letter, while the recessive allele is shown as a lower-case of the same letter.

For example, in humans the allele for brown eyes, **B**, is dominant, while the allele for blue eyes, **b**, is recessive.

A person who inherits one or two alleles for brown eyes will have brown eyes. A person will only have blue eyes if they inherit two copies of the allele for blue eyes.

- ★ A person with brown eyes could have the genotype **BB** or **Bb**.
- ★ A person with blue eyes can only have the genotype **bb**.

Therefore, two brown-eyed parents could have a blue-eyed child, if they are both heterozygous with genotype **Bb**. If the child inherited a **b** allele from both parents, it would have the genotype **bb**.

However, it is impossible for two blue-eyed parents to have a brown-eyed child, because neither of them has the **B** allele to pass on.

There are various ways of showing the alleles involved and we can use them to predict the offspring of two individuals. You need to know about:

- ★ Genetic diagrams
- ★ Punnett squares
- ★ Pedigree diagrams, sometimes called family trees

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Genetic diagrams

In a genetic diagram, all of the possible alleles for a particular characteristic in offspring are shown.

- ★ Each parent can contribute two alleles, making four altogether.
- ★ You can draw lines to show all the possible combinations of these alleles after fertilisation, to give the alleles of all the possible offspring.
- ★ There will be four possible outcomes, but some or all of them could be

Example



In mice, the allele for grey fur, **G**, is dominant. The allele for white fur, **g**, is recessive.

Mickey is a homozygous grey mouse; Minnie is a white mouse. Their owner put them together to breed.

Draw a genetic diagram and use it to explain why all of their offspring had grey fur.

First write down the parents' alleles. Mickey is a homozygous grey mouse, so he must have the alleles **GG**. Minnie is white, so she must have the alleles **gg**.

Now draw the diagram like this:

This row shows the alleles in the parents' gametes. All of Mickey's sperm will have the **G** allele, and all Minnie's eggs will have **g**.

The arrows show the possible fertilisations.

This row shows the alleles of the possible offspring. They will all inherit **Gg**. You can write the phenotypes underneath, **G** is dominant, so **Gg** mice will have grey fur.

Mickey

G G



Gg

grey

Finish with your explanation in words:

The offspring all have grey fur because they have all inherited the dominant allele from their father.

Punnett squares

Punnett squares are a form of genetic diagram which works like a two-way table.

This is how it works for brown and blue eyes in humans:

The allele for brown eyes, **B**, is dominant. The allele for blue eyes, **b**, is recessive. This means that:

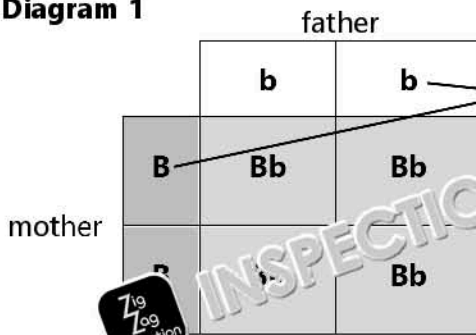
- ★ A person with genotype **BB** will have **brown eyes**.
- ★ A person with genotype **Bb** will have **brown eyes**.
- ★ A person with genotype **bb** will have **blue eyes**.

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This Punnett square shows what happens when one parent is homozygous and the other parent has blue eyes:

Diagram 1



The parents' possible gametes

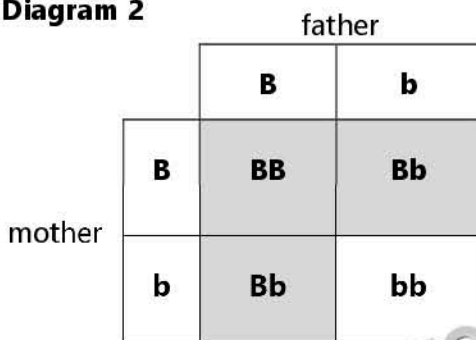
When you work out the fertilisation, you write the gametes down, just like using a times table.

For heterozygous individuals it's always the dominant letter first.

All the children have brown eyes, and they all have the **heterozygous** genotype.

The next Punnett square shows what would happen if one of these offspring was a heterozygous person:

Diagram 2



About $\frac{1}{4}$ of the possible children will have blue eyes.

That means the **probability** of a child having blue eyes is $\frac{1}{4}$ or **25 %**.

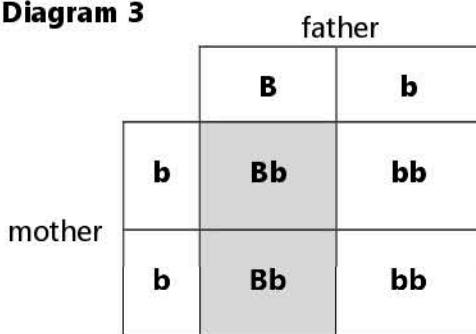
The other **three quarters (75 %)** of the offspring have brown eyes but they are either homozygous dominant or heterozygous.

The **ratio** of brown-eyed to blue-eyed children is 3:1.

These are theoretical probabilities. Probabilities can vary in real families, but what it does tell you is that for two brown-eyed parents to have a blue-eyed child,

The third Punnett square shows what would happen if one of the heterozygous offspring has children with a blue-eyed person:

Diagram 3



About **half** of the possible children will have brown eyes.

That means the **probability** of a child having blue eyes is $\frac{1}{2}$ or **50 %**.

The other **50 %** of the possible children have brown eyes and are heterozygous.

The **ratio** of brown-eyed to blue-eyed children is 1:1.

Exam tip

Practise drawing and completing Punnett squares – you often need to do this in exams.

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Genetic disorders

Some medical conditions are caused by an allele, and that means they can be caused by a **recessive** allele.

An example that sometimes comes up in exams is **cystic fibrosis**.

Cystic fibrosis is an inherited disorder that affects the **cell membranes**; it causes sticky mucus that blocks up the lungs. It is caused by a **recessive** allele. This is inherited from **both** parents. Two healthy parents can have a child with the **heterozygous** allele. The parents are carriers because they have the allele and can pass it on.

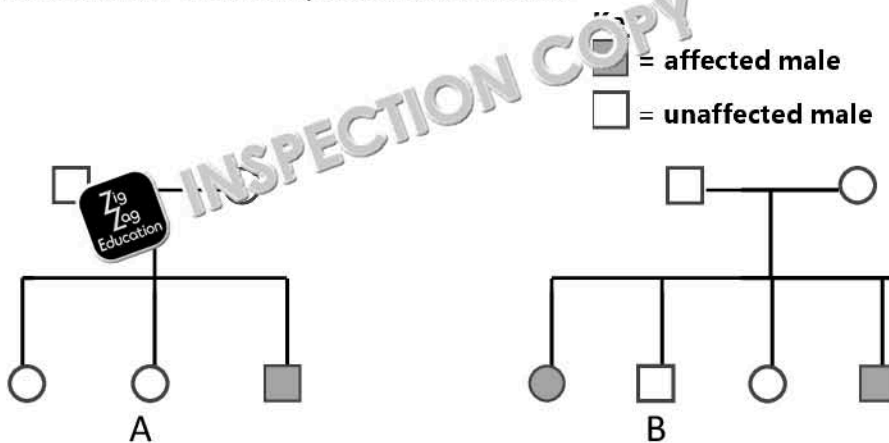
Pedigree diagrams (family trees)

Family trees are another way of showing the inheritance of alleles. They can show many generations.

They use symbols to show the phenotypes. The symbols are explained in a key. You don't always get given the genotypes, but you always have to work them out from the phenotypes.

Example

This pedigree diagram shows the inheritance of cystic fibrosis in two families. Cystic fibrosis is caused by a recessive allele, **f**. The healthy allele, **F**, is dominant.



- What are the genotypes of the four parents?
 - Person A and person B want to get married and have children. They decide to see if they carry the allele for cystic fibrosis. Use a Punnett square to explain.
- a) You can see from the diagram that both sets of parents are healthy with cystic fibrosis. Therefore, they must all be carrying the recessive dominant allele. All four parents are heterozygous with genotype **Ff**.
- b) A and B could have alleles **FF** or **Ff**. Draw your Punnett square for the parents, and then use the information in the Punnett square to answer the question.

		Parent 1	
		F	f
Parent 2	F	FF	Ff
	f	Ff	ff

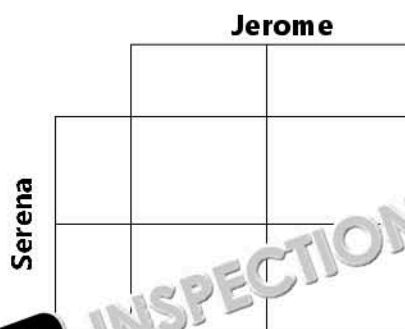
A and B could be **FF** or **Ff**. If they have a 25% chance of having a child with cystic fibrosis. If one of them has a child with the disease.

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Quick questions 4

- What is meant by a recessive allele? Choose **one**.
 - A weak allele
 - An allele that only shows in the phenotype in homozygous individuals
 - An allele that determines the phenotype if it is present at all
 - An allele that comes from the mother
- The gene for height in pea plants has two alleles, tall and dwarf. The
 - Which symbol represents the dwarf allele?
 - What is the phenotype of a dwarf plant?
 - A plant has genotype **Tt**. What is its phenotype?
- In humans, the allele for black hair, **B**, is dominant, and the allele for red hair, **b**, is recessive. Jerome has black hair like his dad. His mum has red hair.
 - What is Jerome's genotype for hair colour?
 - Explain your answer to part a).
 - Jerome's wife, Serena, has red hair. They are expecting their first child. Copy and complete the Punnett square below using the alleles for hair colour.



- What is the probability that the child will have black hair?

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Checklist – Cells, organs and genes

I can identify a nucleus, cell membrane, cytoplasm, mitochondrion, cell wall, chloroplast and vacuole on a diagram and describe their functions.

I can identify neurones, red blood cells, white blood cells, sperm and egg cells and explain how they are adapted for their functions in the human body.

I can identify root hair cells, guard cells, xylem cells and phloem cells, and explain how they are adapted for their functions in a plant.

I understand the relationship between cells, tissues, organs and organ systems.

I can use the cardiovascular system to explain this relationship.

I can explain the function of roots, leaves, xylem vessels and phloem tubes in plants.

I can describe the transpiration stream.

I can define transpiration and explain how it causes water to be sucked up from the soil.

I can describe the shape of the DNA molecule and identify the base pairs.

I can complete base pairs with the correct bases.

I understand the relationship between DNA, genes and chromosomes in the nucleus.

I can explain how genes code for individual characteristics.

I can define mutation and explain how mutations can produce new characteristics.

I can describe alleles as different forms of the same gene and explain the difference between homozygous and heterozygous genotypes.

I can describe how dominant and recessive alleles affect the phenotype in homozygous and heterozygous individuals.

I can draw and interpret a genetic diagram.

I can construct, complete and interpret a Punnett square.

I can obtain information from pedigree diagrams.

I can use genetic diagrams, Punnett squares and pedigree diagrams to determine the genotypes and phenotypes of possible offspring.

I can calculate the probability, percentage or ratio of offspring displaying particular characteristics from genetic crosses.

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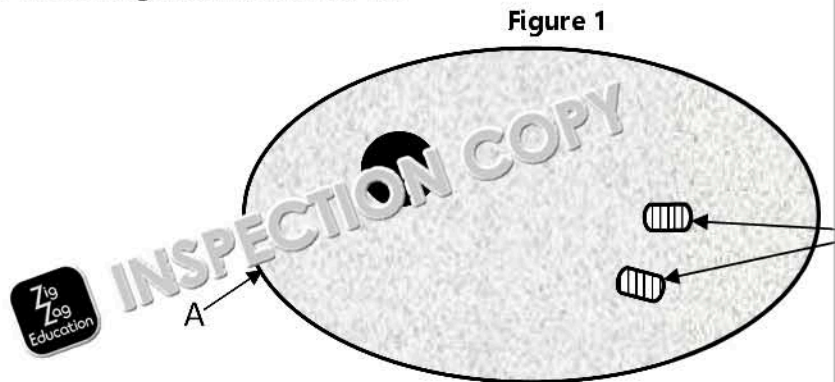
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Exam-style questions

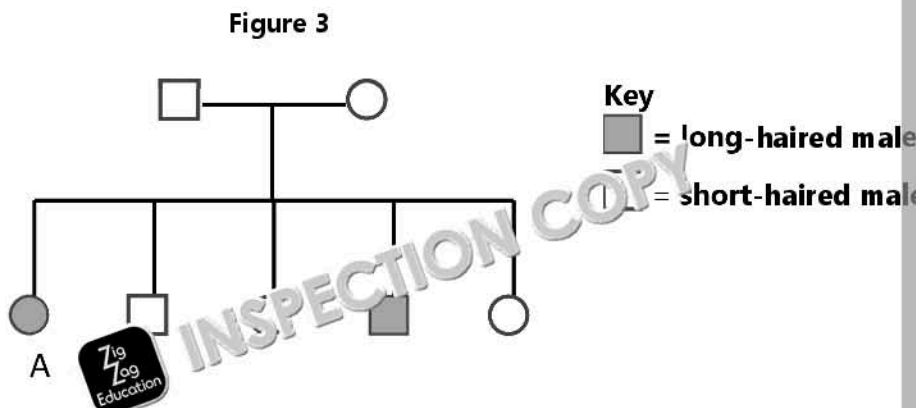
1. Figure 1 shows a generalised animal cell.



- Copy Figure 1 and label the **nucleus** on the diagram.
 - Name part A and describe its function.
 - Complete the sentence by writing **one** word in each space:
The organelles labelled B are, and they release for the chemical reaction called
2. Figure 2 shows how water travels through a plant.
Describe what takes place in steps 1, 2 and 3 of this process.
Total: 4 marks



3. Cats can be long-haired or short-haired.
The allele for short hair, **H**, is dominant. The allele for long hair, **h**, is recessive.
Figure 3 shows a pedigree diagram for two cats and their kittens.



- What is the genotype of kitten A? [1]
- Write down the phenotype of kitten B. [1]
- Explain how coat length is inherited by kittens A and B. Use a Punnett square.

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Chapter B: Homeostasis and comm

In this chapter you will learn about the body systems involved in homeostasis and how the body responds to changes.

Our body systems need the right internal conditions for our cells to work properly. Changes inside or outside the body can affect these conditions.

Homeostasis is the word that we use for the control systems which maintain the conditions for enzyme action and other functions.

Some conditions inside the human body need to be kept the same all the time.

These are:

- ★ Body temperature
- ★ Amount of glucose (sugar) in the blood
- ★ Amount of water in the blood and body tissues
- ★ Levels of salt and other mineral ions in the body

The two body systems that are involved in homeostasis are the **nervous system** and the **hormonal system**.



BI: The nervous system

	Definitions
Neurone	a nerve cell
Impulse	an electrical signal that travels along a neurone
Central nervous system (CNS)	the processing centre for nerve impulses, consisting of the brain and the spinal cord .
Receptor	a cell that detects changes in the internal environment
Effector	a muscle or a gland that makes a response
Sensory neurone	a nerve cell that carries a signal from a receptor to the CNS
Motor neurone	a nerve cell that carries a signal out of the CNS to an effector
Relay neurone	a nerve cell that connects sensory neurones to motor neurones
Synapse	a tiny gap between two nerve cells
Neurotransmitter	a chemical that diffuses across a synapse

The nervous system allows humans to react to their surroundings.

It consists of:

- ★ A **central nervous system (CNS)** which **coordinates** the information. It consists of the **brain** and the **spinal cord**.
- ★ A **peripheral nervous system (PNS)**. The PNS is made up of nerves that carry electrical signals in and out of the central nervous system.

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Receptors and effectors

Receptors are groups of specialised cells which can detect energy changes **stimuli**, and turn them into electrical impulses. Receptors are often located

The human body has a variety of **receptors**, each of which can detect a different

- ★ Receptors in the **eyes** which detect light.
- ★ Receptors in the **ears** which detect sound (vibrations).
- ★ Receptors in the **ears** which detect changes in position and help us to maintain our balance.
- ★ Receptors on the **tongue** and inside the **nose** which detect chemicals and allow us to taste and to smell.
- ★ Receptors in the **skin** that detect touch, pressure and pain, and temperature.

When a receptor detects a stimulus, it generates an electrical signal called an **action potential**. These signals from receptors pass along nerve cells called **neurones** to the **CNS**.

The **CNS** processes the information coming in and sends signals back to the rest of the body's response to the stimulus.

An **effector** is any organ which has an effect – for example:

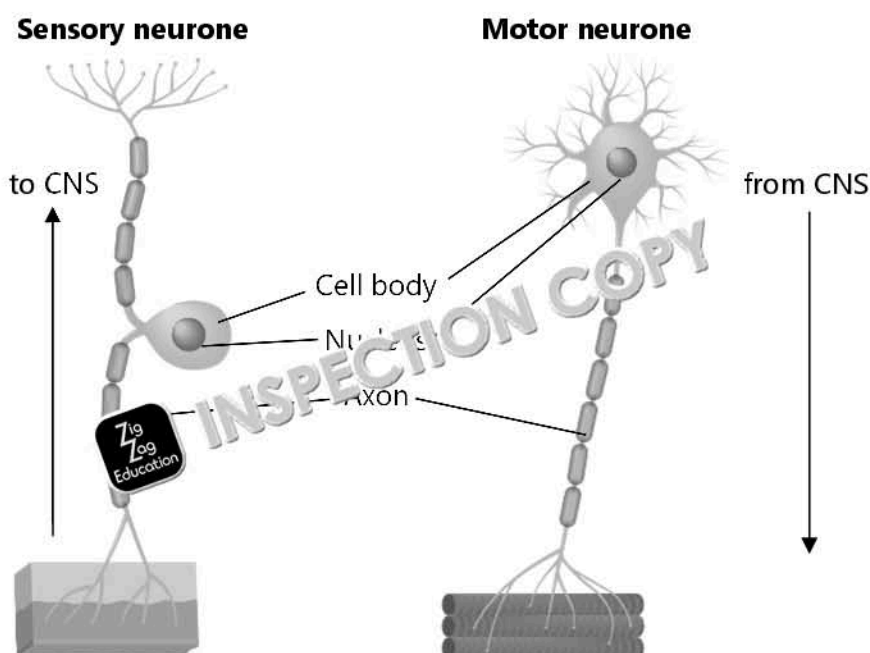
- ★ a **muscle** contracting to move your arm
- ★ a **gland** releasing sweat, tears or saliva

Neurones

All the electrical signals in the nervous system are transmitted by specialised cells called **neurones**. There are three different types of neurones with slightly different functions:

1. **Sensory neurones** carry signals from receptors to the spinal cord and the brain.
2. **Relay neurones** carry signals from one part of the **CNS** to another.
3. **Motor neurones** carry signals from the CNS to muscles and other effectors.

The diagram below shows a sensory neurone and a motor neurone. The arrows show the direction of the nerve impulse.



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Voluntary and involuntary actions

The central nervous system coordinates all your thoughts and actions. You have a range of actions between **voluntary** and **involuntary** actions.

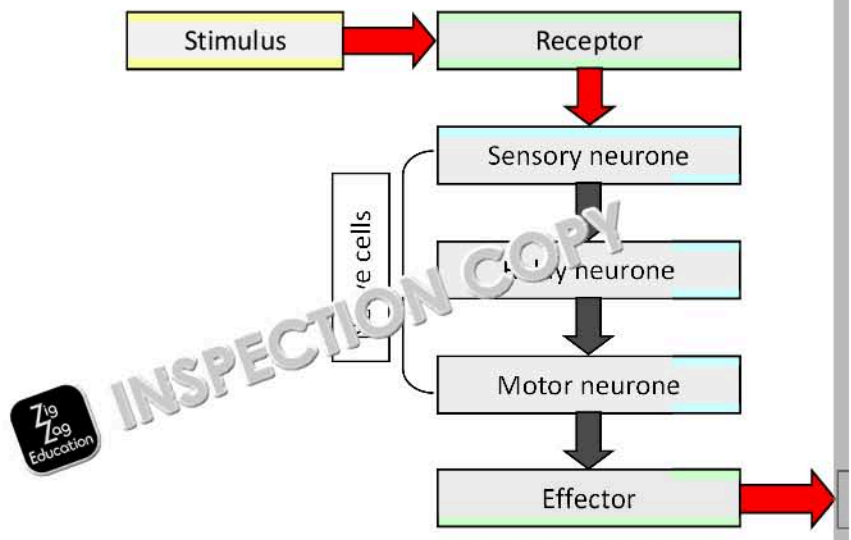
- ★ **Voluntary actions** are movements you **choose** to do, e.g. walking and thinking part of your brain.
- ★ **Involuntary actions** are movements that happen **without thinking**, e.g. the contraction of food through your intestines.

Reflex actions

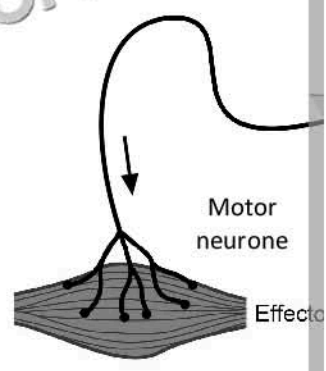
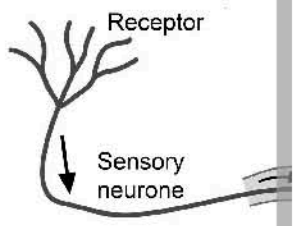
Reflexes are very fast **involuntary** responses that protect your body from harm. For example, if you touch something very hot, you will automatically pull your hand away.

Reflex actions do not involve the thinking part of the brain, because thinking takes time. Reflex actions usually involve just three nerve cells and are usually coordinated by the **spinal cord**.

- ★ A reflex arc works like this:



- ★ Simple reflex actions involve an electrical impulse passing from the receptor, along a **sensory neurone** to the spinal cord, then along a **motor neurone** to a muscle or a gland. The muscle or gland brings about the response.
- ★ The spinal cord contains **relay neurones** which link the sensory neurones with the motor neurones.
- ★ The muscle or gland bringing about the response is called the **effector**. A muscle response is usually contracting, a gland by releasing (secreting) chemical substances.



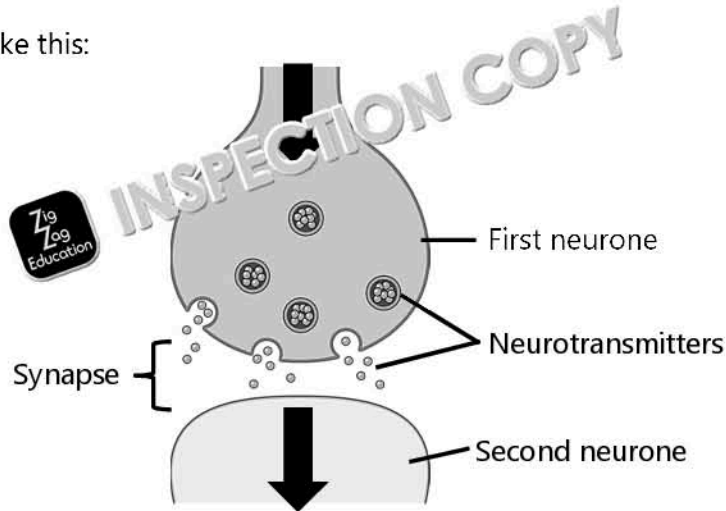
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Synapses

Where two neurones meet there is a tiny gap called a **synapse**. The nerve impulse can't jump the gap to continue on its journey to or from the CNS. Electrical impulses can't be done by chemical substances which diffuse across the gap.

It works like this:



- ★ The electrical signal travels along an axon and stimulates the nerve end to release chemicals called **neurotransmitters**.
- ★ The chemical molecules diffuse across the synapse and stimulate the second neurone to produce an electrical signal.
- ★ Synapses make sure that the signal always travels in the right direction.

Quick questions 1

1. What are the electrical signals along neurones?
2. What is the name given to the muscles or glands that make responses?
3. Which of these is a **voluntary** action? Choose **one**.
 - Sneezing
 - Eating
 - Breathing
 - Yawning
4. Which of these is a **reflex** action? Choose **one**.
 - Laughing
 - Catching a ball
 - Shading your eyes with your hand in bright sunlight
 - Blinking when some dust blows into your eye
5. a) Put the following words into the order that electrical impulses flow through them: **effector** **motor neurone** **synapse** **receptor** **sensory neurone**
b) Which one of the neurones in part a) is the smallest?

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B2: Thermoregulation

Human **enzymes** work best at about 37 °C (normal body temperature). The chemical reactions work best at 37 °C, so we need to keep our core body temperature everything to work properly.

If the core temperature gets much lower or much higher than 37 °C the performance of the body is affected.

	Definitions
Core temperature	the temperature of the blood and internal organs
Enzymes	chemical substances that control the chemical reactions
Vasodilation	blood vessels get wider and let more blood flow
Vasoconstriction	blood vessels get narrower and let less blood flow
Thermoregulatory centre	the part of the brain that contains receptors which monitor the temperature of the blood
Respiration	the chemical reaction that releases energy from food

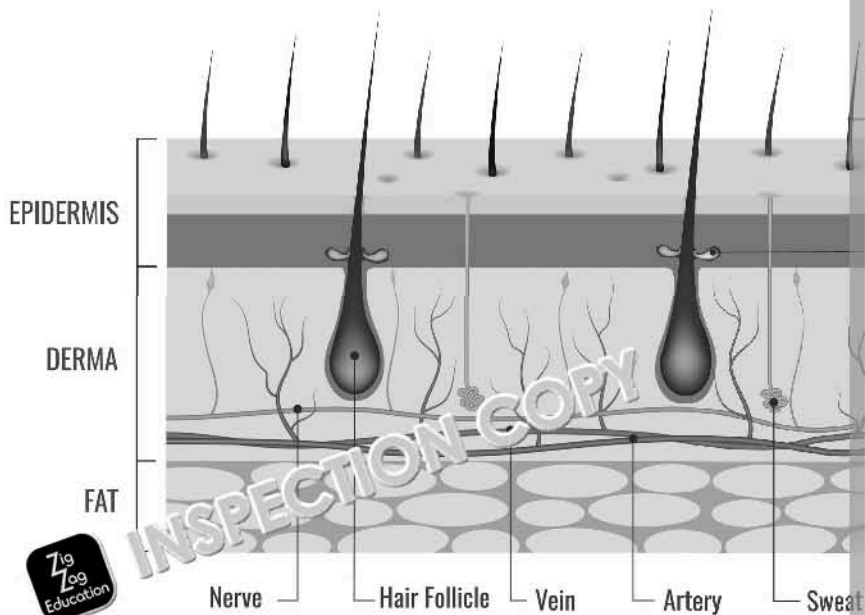
Thermoregulation is the process of keeping the body at a constant temperature.

- ★ We release heat in our body cells through **respiration**.
- ★ We lose heat to the environment through our **skin**, a bit like a radiator.
- ★ The blood carries heat around the body.

Body temperature is monitored and controlled by the **thermoregulatory centre** in the brain.

- ★ The thermoregulatory centre contains receptors that detect changes to the blood.
- ★ The skin contains receptors that detect skin temperature and send nerve impulses to the thermoregulatory centre.

If you are too hot or too cold the hypothalamus sends **nerve impulses** to the skin.



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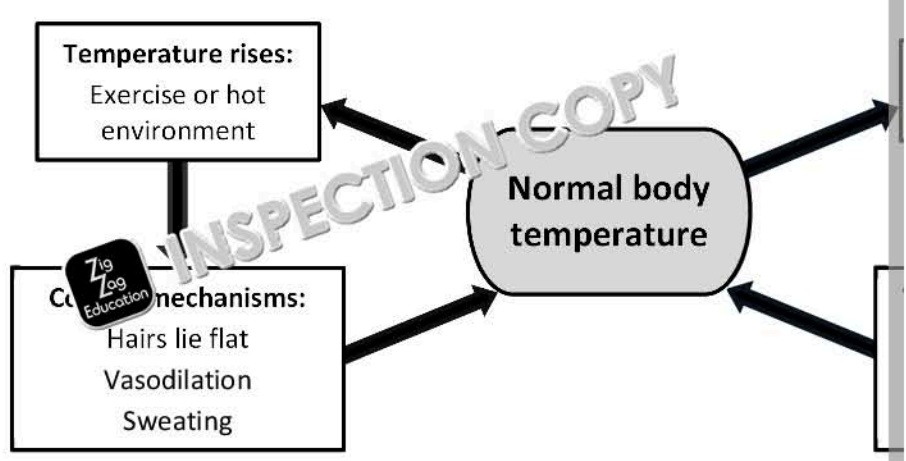


The skin has three ways to either increase or decrease heat loss from the body to return body temperature to normal levels.

	When you're too hot	When you're too cold
1. Hairs	Hairs on the skin lie flat, so that heat can escape more easily.	Hairs stand up and trap air, which insulates the body and keeps heat in. Tiny muscles pull the hairs up.
2. Sweat glands	Sweat glands secrete sweat onto the skin surface. The evaporation of sweat takes heat from the skin.	No sweat released.
3. Blood vessels	The arteries that take blood to the skin get wider (vasodilation). More blood flows close to the surface of the skin, where it can lose heat to the air.	The arteries that take blood to the skin get narrower (vasoconstriction). Less blood flows to the surface, so heat is kept inside the body.

As well as the skin, your **muscles** also receive nerve impulses from the brain and respond by **shivering**, which warms you up because the movement of the muscles produces heat.

These control mechanisms stop automatically when the core body temperature returns to normal.



Quick questions 2

- Copy and complete the sentence:
Body temperature is monitored and controlled by the centre.
- Why does human body temperature need to be kept constant at about 37°C?
- How does sweating help the body to lose heat?
- Explain **three** ways that blood responds to keep our internal organs warm.

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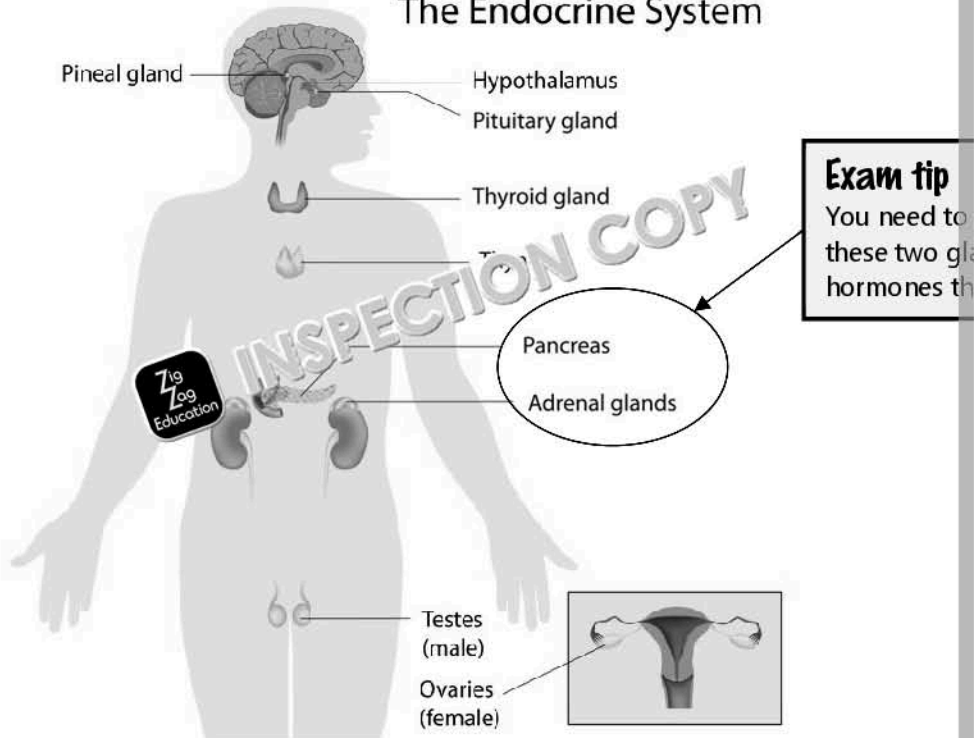


B3: The endocrine system

The nervous system transmits electrical impulses throughout the body. The chemical signals through **hormones**.

Hormone	Definition
Gland	an organ that secretes a substance. Endocrine glands release hormones into the bloodstream.
Pancreas	an organ that controls the level of sugar in the blood
Glucose	a simple sugar that cells use for respiration, to release energy
Carbohydrates	sugary or starchy foods. They break down to glucose in the blood
Glycogen	a starch that the liver and muscle cells make to store excess glucose
Insulin	the hormone that reduces blood sugar
Glucagon	the hormone that raises blood sugar
Adrenaline	the 'fight or flight' hormone. It's produced by the adrenal glands in the body for action by increasing the heart rate.

The Endocrine System



Hormones

- ★ are released (**secreted**) by an endocrine gland into the bloodstream
- ★ are transported in the blood around the body until they reach the organ
- ★ are picked up by **receptors** in the cells of the target organs
- ★ have an effect on the **target organ**

Other organs are not affected because their cells do not have the right receptors.

Hormones play an important part in **homeostasis**, to maintain constant internal conditions.

You already know that body temperature is controlled by nerve signals. Hormones also control blood **water** levels. If these are not kept within narrow limits, body cells will be affected.

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Comparing the endocrine and nervous systems

Compared to the nervous system the effects of hormones are slower, but the

	Nervous system	
Method of transmission	Electrical impulses are carried along the axons of neurones.	Hormones are transported by the blood from glands to target organs.
Speed of transmission	Electrical nerve impulses travel very fast.	Can take minutes to reach target organs.
Duration of response	The response stops as soon as the signal stops.	The response can last for days or weeks.

Controlling blood glucose levels

Glucose is a simple sugar that our cells need for respiration, to release energy and we use it up in our daily activities. We use more glucose when we exercise or respire faster.

When you have eaten **carbohydrates** your digestive system releases large amounts of food. This glucose is absorbed into the blood.

Too much glucose in the blood causes problems such as high blood pressure and dehydration.

Therefore, the glucose must be absorbed by the body's cells as soon as possible so that blood sugar levels quickly return to normal.

- ★ Blood glucose levels are monitored and controlled by the **pancreas**.
- ★ It detects when blood glucose is too high or too low and produces hormones to return to normal.
- ★ The pancreas produces two hormones: **insulin** and **glucagon**.

When the blood sugar level rises, the **pancreas** releases insulin into the blood.

Insulin causes glucose to move from the blood into the cells. In **liver and muscle cells** excess glucose is converted to a starch called **glycogen** for storage. This brings the blood sugar level down.

At other times, for example during the night, when you haven't eaten for several hours, your blood sugar level may be lower than you need – remember that your body cells still respire even when you are asleep.

When blood sugar levels are too low, the pancreas stops producing insulin and produces glucagon. When blood sugar levels rise again.

The pancreas also produces another hormone called **glucagon**, which makes glycogen back into glucose when we need it.

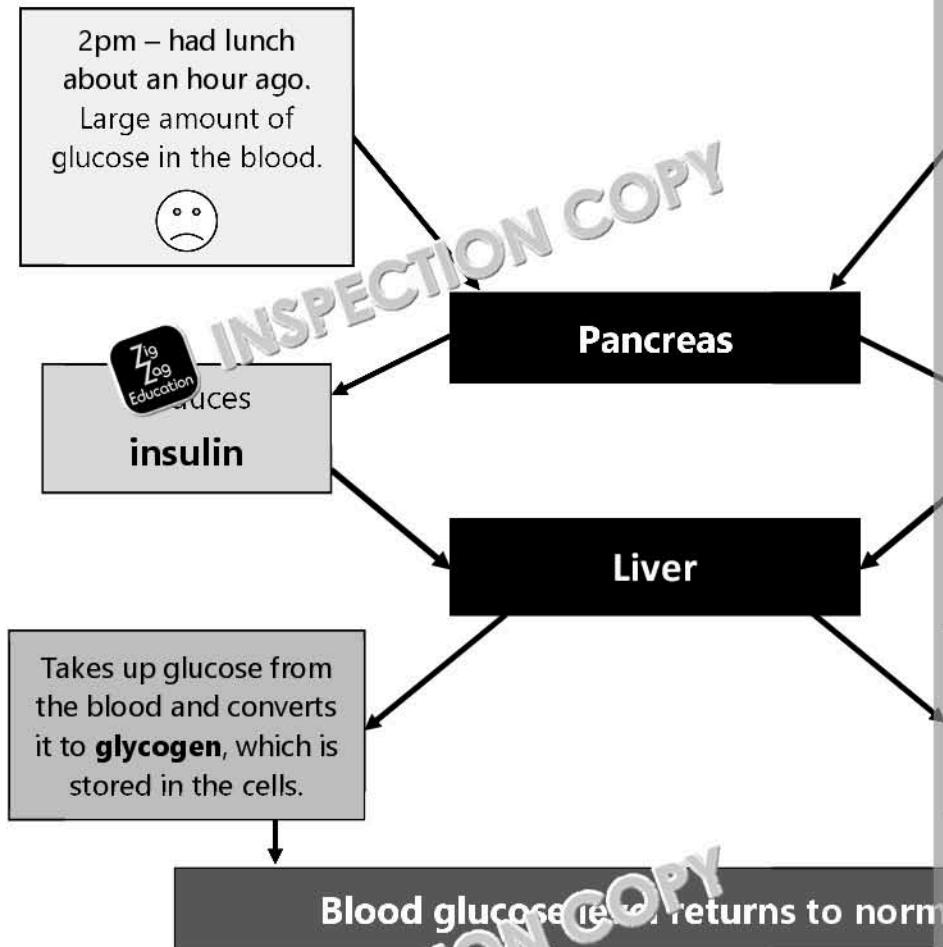
People with **diabetes** are not able to control their blood sugar levels in this way.

Exam tip
Make sure you know the functions of the pancreas. Remember that it produces both insulin and glucagon.

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How your blood glucose level is regulated



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Quick Questions 3

1. What is a hormone?
2. Give **two** ways in which hormones are different from nerve impulses
3. Copy and complete the table:

Name of hormone	Gland that makes it	What it does
		Lowers blood sugar – converts glucose to glycogen
		Raises blood sugar – converts glycogen to glucose
	Adrenal glands	Prepares the body for action

4. Samera is eating her lunch. Explain what will happen to her blood sugar level a few hours.

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Checklist – Homeostasis and communication

I can explain what homeostasis is.

I know which organs make up the central nervous system, and the function of the

I can identify a sensory neurone and a motor neurone and describe what each one

I can explain how nerve impulses are transferred between receptors, effectors and

I can explain what happens at a synapse.

I can give examples of voluntary and involuntary responses.

I can explain what a reflex is and why we have reflex actions.

I can describe the steps in a reflex arc, from stimulus to response.

I can explain why body temperature needs to be controlled.

I can describe three responses that occur when the body temperature is too low and three that

happen when the body temperature is too high.

I can explain what hormones are and what they do.

I can compare the action of the nervous system and the endocrine system in terms of

transmission, speed, and duration.

I can describe the functions of insulin and glucagon.

I can explain how insulin and glucagon regulate blood sugar levels.

I can describe the role of the liver and pancreas in controlling blood glucose.

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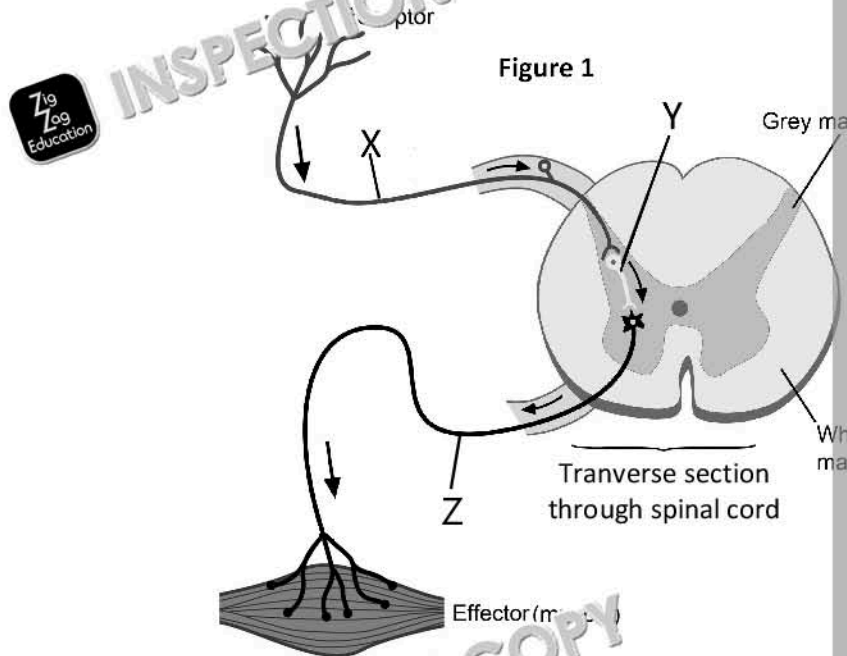
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Exam-style questions

1. a) What is a **reflex** action?
Yasmin is in the kitchen. She accidentally touches a hot pan. She immediately
- b) What is the **stimulus**?
- c) Which body part makes the **response**?
Figure 1 shows what is happening in Yasmin's nervous system.



- d) Name the structures labeled Y and Z.
- e) Between X and Y there is a small gap called a synapse. Explain how the nerve impulse is passed across the synapse.
2. Ali is playing in a football match.
As he runs for the ball, his body temperature increases.
- a) Why does Ali's body temperature increase?
- b) Explain how Ali's body responds to prevent his temperature from getting too high.
- c) During the match, Ali's blood sugar level starts to fall. A hormone is released to bring it back to normal.
- What is the name of the hormone?
 - Which gland releases this hormone?
 - How does it raise Ali's blood sugar?

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Chapter C: Atoms, elements and the p

Every living thing is made from cells. Living and non-living things are all made of matter. In this chapter you will learn about the structure of atoms, and how to use the periodic table to find information about them.



CI: What is an atom?

	Definitions
Atom	the smallest unit of a chemical substance that can exist on its own
Nucleus	the central core of an atom
Proton	a positively charged subatomic particle in the nucleus of an atom
Neutron	a subatomic particle in the nucleus of an atom with no electrical charge
Electron	a very tiny negatively charged subatomic particle that is found outside the nucleus
Atomic number	the number of protons in a specific atom
Mass number	the number of protons <i>plus</i> the number of neutrons in an atom

Atoms are the basic building blocks of all matter. An atom is the smallest particle of an element that can exist on its own, and atoms can't be broken down any further by ordinary chemical reactions.

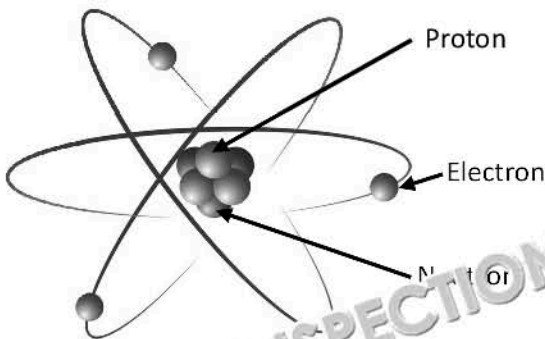
They can combine together in millions of different ways to make up every chemical compound.

An **element** is a pure substance that is made up of only one type of atom, e.g. carbon, oxygen, iron, etc. Pure gold contains only gold atoms, and pure oxygen contains only oxygen atoms.

The structure of an atom

Most of an atom is empty space. The rest of it consists of **subatomic particles**, which are the building blocks of an atom.

- ★ **Proton**
- ★ **Neutron**
- ★ **Electron**



The diagram shows a lithium atom.

It has 3 protons, 3 neutrons and 3 electrons.

- ★ The protons and neutrons are in the nucleus, which is the central part of the atom.
- ★ The electrons orbit around the nucleus.

Only lithium atoms have 3 protons, 3 neutrons and 3 electrons. Other elements have different numbers of protons, neutrons and electrons in their atoms.

In any atom (not ions):

- ★ The number of electrons is **always** equal to the number of protons.
- ★ The number of neutrons can be the same or it can be different, e.g. sodium has 11 protons and 12 neutrons in their nucleus.

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Example

The diagram below shows an atom of beryllium (Be).



Name particles X and Y.

Particle X is orbiting the nucleus of the atom, so therefore it must be an electron.

Particle Y is part of the nucleus. The proton is already labelled, so it must be a neutron.

Relative mass and charge of subatomic particles

Most of an atom is empty space; the nucleus and electrons make up just a tiny fraction of the atom's volume.

Protons, neutrons and electrons are all very tiny, so we think about their masses in terms of relative mass.

- ★ Protons and neutrons are the same size; they both have a relative mass of approximately 1.
- ★ Electrons are much smaller. They have a relative mass of approximately 1/1840.

Protons and electrons have opposite electrical charges.

- ★ Each proton has a **positive** charge of **+1**.
- ★ Neutrons are **neutral**; their electrical charge is **0**.
- ★ Each electron has a **negative** charge of **-1**.

There are always the same number of protons and electrons in an atom, and the overall charge of an atom is zero because the positive and negative charges cancel each other out.

Atomic number and mass number

Every element has its own unique **atomic number**. The atomic number of an element is the number of **protons** it has in its nucleus.

It is also the number of electrons.

The number of particles in the nucleus of an atom is called the **mass number**. The mass number is the number of **protons and neutrons** in the nucleus.

In the example above, you can see that the beryllium atom in the diagram has an atomic number of 4 because it contains four protons.

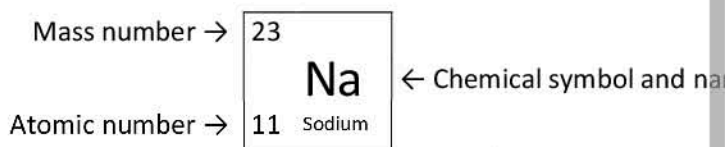
The nucleus also contains 5 neutrons, so the mass number is $4 + 5 = 9$.

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In the periodic table and in exam questions you will often see elements represented like this:



The **atomic number** is always the smaller of the two numbers.

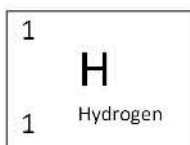
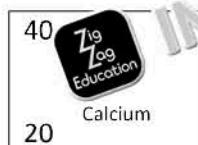
This sodium atom has an atomic number of 11, so it has 11 protons and 11 electrons.

You can work out the number of neutrons: **mass number – atomic number**



Quick questions 1

1. Name the particles that make up the **nucleus** of an atom.
2. Which **two** of these statements about electrons are correct?
 - They have the same mass as neutrons
 - They have a much smaller mass than protons
 - They are negatively charged particles
 - They are positively charged particles
3. A carbon atom has 6 electrons. How many protons does it contain?
 - 12
 - 3
 - 6
 - Not enough information to tell
4. Three elements are shown below:



Copy and complete this table:

Element	Number of protons	Number of neutrons
Calcium		
Hydrogen		
Iron		

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C2: The periodic table of elements

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	Definitions
Symbol	one or two letters that represent a chemical element
Periodic table	a table showing all of the elements that exist
Period	a horizontal row in the periodic table
Group	a vertical column in the periodic table
Properties	the physical features of a substance, and how it reacts
Electron shell	a layer of electrons orbiting the nucleus of an atom
Electronic configuration	a representation of the number of electron shells and the number of electrons in each shell. This can be written as a series of numbers separated by full stops.

More about elements

You already know that an element is a pure substance, made up of just one type of atom. It has a unique **atomic number** and is represented by a chemical **symbol**. The symbol for an element can be:

- ★ a single capital letter, e.g. the symbol for carbon is **C**, and the symbol for hydrogen is **H**
- ★ a capital letter followed by a lower-case letter, e.g. the symbol for chlorine is **Cl** and sodium is **Na**

Each element has its own **properties**, both physical and chemical.

- ★ **Physical properties** of a substance include appearance, melting point, boiling point, density and state of matter.
- ★ **Chemical properties** of a substance are related to how the substance reacts with other substances, e.g. how it reacts when mixed with an acid.

The periodic table

The periodic table is used by scientists all over the world. It organises elements into groups and periods, and their chemical properties.

There are 94 elements that occur naturally, and a further 24 are made by nuclear reactions.

You will see many versions of the periodic table. All versions show the chemical properties of the elements and many versions contain additional information.

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The table given below shows the symbol, name and atomic number of each

											H Hydrogen 1		
Li Lithium 3	Be Beryllium 4											B Boron 5	
Na Sodium 11	Mg Magnesium 12											Al Aluminium 13	
K Potassium 19	Ca Calcium 20	Sc Scandium 21	Ti Titanium 22	V Vanadium 23	Cr Chromium 24	Mn Manganese 25	Fe Iron 26	Co Cobalt 27	Ni Nickel 28	Cu Copper 29	Zn Zinc 30	Ga Gallium 31	
Rb Rubidium 37	Sr Strontium 38	Y Yttrium 39	Zr Zirconium 40	Nb Niobium 41	Mo Molybdenum 42	Tc Technetium 43	Ru Ruthenium 44	Rh Rhodium 45	Pd Palladium 46	Ag Silver 47	Cd Cadmium 48	In Indium 49	
Cs Caesium 55	Ba Barium 56	La Lanthanum 57	Hf Hafnium 72	Ta Tantalum 73	W Tungsten 74	Re Rhenium 75	Os Osmium 76	Ir Iridium 77	Pt Platinum 78	Au Gold 79	Hg Mercury 80	Tl Thallium 81	
Fr Francium 87	Ra Radium 88	Ac Actinium 89	Rf Rutherfordium 104	Db Dubnium 105	Sg Seaborgium 106	Bh Bohrium 107	Hs Hassium 108	Mt Meitnerium 109	Ds Darmstadtium 110	Rg Roentgenium 111			

Many versions also include the mass number or relative atomic mass.

Metals and non-metals

Most elements are metals.

Metals appear on the left and in the middle of the table, while non-metals are on the right. A zig-zag line starting at B (boron) separates the metals from the non-metals.

Metals and non-metals have different physical properties. Metals tend to have high melting and boiling points, high density, and are good conductors of heat and electricity.

Non-metals have much lower melting and boiling points, lower density, and are poor conductors of heat and electricity.

Periods and groups

- ★ The horizontal **rows** in the periodic table are called **periods**. All of the elements in a period have the same number of **electron shells** in their atoms. They are in order of increasing atomic number and have different chemical properties.
- ★ The vertical columns are called **groups**. Elements in the same group have similar **properties**. This means they react in the same way to the same substances. For example, all elements in group 1 react with water. The strength of the reaction increases as you go down the group. Potassium reacts with water when it's placed in water, while potassium bursts into flames.

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											H Hydrogen 1											
Li Lithium 3	Be Beryllium 4											B Boron 5										
Na Sodium 11	Mg Magnesium 12											Al Aluminium 13										
K Potassium 19	Ca Calcium 20	Ti Titanium 22	V Vanadium 23	Cr Chromium 24	Mn Manganese 25	Fe Iron 26	Co Cobalt 27	Ni Nickel 28	Cu Copper 29	Zn Zinc 30	Ga Gallium 31											
Rb Rubidium 37	Sr Strontium 38	Y Yttrium 39	Zr Zirconium 40	Nb Niobium 41	Mo Molybdenum 42	Tc Technetium 43	Ru Ruthenium 44	Rh Rhodium 45	Pd Palladium 46	Ag Silver 47	Cd Cadmium 48	In Indium 49										
Cs Caesium 55	Ba Barium 56	La Lanthanum 57	Hf Hafnium 72	Ta Tantalum 73	W Tungsten 74	Re Rhenium 75	Os Osmium 76	Ir Iridium 77	Pt Platinum 78	Au Gold 79	Hg Mercury 80	Tl Thallium 81										
Fr Francium 87	Ra Radium 88	Ac Actinium 89	Rf Rutherfordium 104	Db Dubnium 105	Sg Seaborgium 106	Bh Bohrium 107	Hs Hassium 108	Mt Meitnerium 109	Ds Darmstadtium 110	Rg Roentgenium 111												

For example:

- ★ Calcium (Ca) is in period 4 and group 2.
- ★ Oxygen (O) is in period 2 and group 6.

Electron shells

- ★ The **nucleus** of an atom is made up of **protons** and **neutrons**. The positive charge of the nucleus is called the **atomic number**. For example, the nucleus of oxygen has 8 protons and 8 neutrons, so the atomic number is 8.
- ★ Negatively charged electrons orbit the nucleus. The total number of electrons is equal to the number of protons, so the whole atom has no overall electric charge.
- ★ Electrons orbit the nucleus in layers called **electron shells**. The shells are given numbers, with shell 1 closest to the nucleus. Shell 1 can hold 2 electrons, shell 2 can hold 8 electrons, and the amount of energy increases with each layer.

Electron shells are filled in a specific order, and the arrangement of electron shells is called the **electron structure** or **electronic configuration**.

This can be shown in a schematic diagram like this, or as numbers. The diagram tells you that this atom has two electron shells, with two electrons in shell 1 and six electrons in shell 2.

As numbers, you would write it as 2, 6.

You need to know the rules for filling electron shells:

First shell

The first shell is filled first, and it can only hold a maximum of **two** electrons.

Figure 1 shows a helium (He) atom. It only has one electron shell, and that shell is full.

When the first shell is full, electrons start to fill up shell 2.

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Second shell

The second shell can hold up to **eight** electrons.

Figure 2 shows an atom of neon (Ne), atomic number 10. It has two electrons in shell 1 and eight in shell 2.

Its electronic configuration is 2.8

Third and fourth shells

When shell 2 is full, electrons start to fill up shell 3.

Figure 3 shows an atom of silicon (Si), atomic number 14. It has two electrons in shell 1, eight in shell 2 and four in shell 3.

Its electronic configuration is 2.8.4

When there are eight electrons in shell 3, then shell 4 starts to fill up.

Figure 4 shows a potassium (K) atom, atomic number 19. It has two electrons in shell 1, eight in shell 2, eight in shell 3 and one in shell 4.

Its electronic configuration is 2.8.8.1

You need to be able to write the electronic configuration and draw schematic diagrams for all the elements from **hydrogen**, atomic number 1, up to **calcium**, atomic number 20.

Exam tip

In schematic diagrams of electron structure, the electrons can be shown as dots. When you draw schematic diagrams in your exam, it's better to draw them as dots because it will be easier for the marker to read.

Don't forget to bring compasses to your exam so that you can draw the electron shells.

If you know the atomic number of an element, you can work out the electronic configuration. Fill up each electron shell according to the rules until you get up to the atomic number.

Example

Write down the electronic configuration of an atom of **magnesium (Mg)**.

First look up magnesium in the periodic table to get the atomic number.

Now use the rules to fill up the electron shells. It works like this:

Shell 1 2 }
Shell 2 8 } 2 + 8 = 10

That leaves two electrons to go in shell 3

Therefore the electronic configuration of magnesium is **2.8.2**

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Electron shells and groups

The vertical columns in the periodic table are groups.

The group number of an element is the same as the number of electrons in its outer shell. The number of shells is the same as the number of periods. The number of electrons available for chemical reactions is the same as the group number.

For example, magnesium has two electrons in its outer shell, so it's in group 2.

It's in period 3 because it has three electron shells altogether; two shells are full and one shell has two electrons.

Quick Question



Part of the periodic table is shown below.

											H Hydrogen 1	
Li Lithium 3	Be Beryllium 4										B Boron 5	
Na Sodium 11	Mg Magnesium 12										Al Aluminium 13	
K Potassium 19	Ca Calcium 20	Sc Scandium 21	Ti Titanium 22	V Vanadium 23	Cr Chromium 24	Mn Manganese 25	Fe Iron 26	Co Cobalt 27	Ni Nickel 28	Cu Copper 29	Zn Zinc 30	Ga Gallium 31

1. What name is given to the vertical columns in the periodic table?
2. Which of these elements are in the same period?
 - Beryllium and magnesium
 - Sulfur and chlorine
 - Magnesium and chlorine
 - Magnesium and carbon
3. A carbon atom has six protons. How many electron shells does it have?
 - 6
 - 2
 - 1
 - 3
4. Use the periodic table to find the chemical symbols for copper, iron and zinc.
5. Describe the position of nitrogen (N) in the periodic table.
6. Show the electronic configuration of the following elements in a shell number form:
 - a) Sulfur
 - b) Calcium
 - c) Oxygen



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C3: Isotopes

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Definitions

Isotope	a different variety of the same element, with the same atomic number but a different number of neutrons
Mass number	the mass of one atom of an isotope. This is the total number of protons and neutrons in the atom.
Relative atomic mass	the average mass for all the atoms of an element. It uses the relative abundance of each isotope.
Percentage abundance	the percentage of a particular isotope in the whole population of atoms.

What are isotopes?

- ★ Every element can be found in different forms, and these different forms are called isotopes.
- ★ Some elements have many isotopes, but most have just two or three.

Isotopes of an element have the same properties and the same atomic number. For example, chlorine has two isotopes, chlorine-35 and chlorine-37.

They are both chlorine – they look the same, they behave in the same way and they have an **atomic number** of 17.

However, they have different mass numbers because they have different numbers of neutrons.

Isotope	Atomic number	Number of protons	Number of electrons	Mass number
Chlorine-35	17	17	17	35
Chlorine-37	17	17	17	37

When you write about an isotope you can either:

- ★ use the element name and mass number, e.g. chlorine-35 or carbon-13...
- ★ use the element symbol and mass number, e.g. ^{35}Cl or ^{13}C ... **or write it in the form:**
 Atomic mass of the isotope → A_r
 Atomic number → Z

Isotopes and atomic mass

The existence of isotopes means that not every atom in an element has the same mass.

- ★ Atoms of chlorine-37 are slightly heavier than atoms of chlorine-35 because they have more neutrons.
- ★ Three quarters of chlorine atoms have a mass of 35 and one quarter have a mass of 37.
- ★ This means that the **average** mass of a chlorine atom will be more than 35.
- ★ This average is called the **relative atomic mass**, and it is not always a whole number.
- ★ The symbol for relative atomic mass is A_r .

Many versions of the periodic table include the relative atomic mass in addition to the atomic number. This is shown in the following extract:

10.80 B Boron 5	12.01 C Carbon 6	14.01 N Nitrogen 7	16.00 O Oxygen 8	19.00 F Fluorine 9	4.00 He Helium 2	20.18 Ne Neon 10
26.98 Al Aluminium 13	28.09 Si Silicon 14	30.97 P Phosphorus 15	32.06 S Sulfur 16	35.45 Cl Chlorine 17	← relative atomic mass ← symbol ← name ← atomic number	39.95 Ar Argon 18

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Calculating relative atomic mass

In the case of elements which have isotopes, you can calculate the relative atomic mass of the element if you know:

- ★ the mass number of each isotope
- ★ the **percentage abundance** of each isotope

Percentage abundance means what percentage of each isotope you would find in a certain sample of atoms.

There is a formula for calculating relative atomic mass:

$$A_r = \frac{(\text{Mass number} \times \text{percentage}) + (\text{Mass number} \times \text{percentage}) + (\text{Mass number} \times \text{percentage})}{100}$$

Ex
Ma
wit
a k
Al
any

Example

The element **boron (B)** has two isotopes, **boron-10** and **boron-11**:

Isotope	Mass number	Percentage abundance
Boron-10	10	20%
Boron-11	11	80%

Calculate the relative atomic mass of boron.

In 100 boron atoms 20 have a mass of 10, and 80 have a mass of 11.

To work out the average:

1. Find the total mass for each isotope.
 Boron-10: $20 \times 10 = 200$ Boron-11: $80 \times 11 = 880$
2. Add them together to get the total mass for 100 atoms.
 $200 + 880 = 1080$
3. Divide by 100 to obtain the average mass for one atom.
 $1080 \div 100 = 10.8$
 The relative atomic mass of boron is 10.8

Quick questions 3

1. Copy and complete the following sentences:
 Isotopes are different versions of the same They have the same but a different number of in their atoms.
2. The element **magnesium (Mg)** has three isotopes.
 - a) Copy and complete the table below.

Isotope	Atomic number	Number of neutrons	Mass number
magnesium-24	12		
magnesium-25			
magnesium-26			

- b) Calculate the relative atomic mass of magnesium. Give your answer to one decimal place.

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Checklist – Atoms, elements and the periodic table

I can identify elements as metals or non-metals using their position in the periodic table.

I can describe the structure of an atom in terms of its nucleus, electron shells and the arrangement of electrons in between.

I can identify protons, neutrons and electrons on a diagram.

I understand the relationship between the number of protons and the number of electrons in an atom.

I can define the terms atomic number and mass number.

I can use the atomic number and mass number to work out how many protons, neutrons and electrons an atom has.

I can describe the relative charge and relative mass of protons, neutrons and electrons.

I understand that all atoms of a particular element have the same number of protons and that number is unique to that one element.

I can describe the arrangement of elements in the periodic table in terms of periods and groups.

I understand and can use the rules about filling electron shells.

I can predict the electronic configuration of the first 20 elements in the periodic table.

I can represent the electronic configuration of the first 20 elements in diagram form.

I can explain the relationship between the number of outer electrons and the position of an element in the periodic table.

I can define an isotope of an element in terms of its protons and neutrons.

I can define the term relative atomic mass.

I can explain why the relative atomic mass of an element is not always a whole number.

I can calculate the relative atomic mass of an element from the relative masses and relative abundance of its isotopes.

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Chapter D: Substances and chemicals

In this chapter you will learn about how elements combine to form compounds and how compounds behave in chemical reactions. You will also learn how to write chemical reactions in words and in symbols.



DI: Elements and compounds



Definitions

Molecule	a particle made up of two or more atoms that are bonded together
Molecular element	an element that naturally occurs in the form of two or more atoms bonded together
Compound	two or more elements that are chemically bonded together to form a new substance
Mixture	two or more substances that have been mixed together without a chemical reaction
Hazard	a potential danger associated with a chemical substance
Flammable	will catch fire easily
Toxic	poisonous
Corrosive	will damage human tissue

Elements

You already know that an element is a pure substance, made up of just one type of atom.

The **periodic table** lists the names and chemical symbols of the elements, and their chemical properties:



H Hydrogen 1

Li Lithium 3	Be Beryllium 4											B Boron 5
Na Sodium 11	Mg Magnesium 12											Al Aluminium 13
K Potassium 19	Ca Calcium 20	Sc Scandium 21	Ti Titanium 22	V Vanadium 23	Cr Chromium 24	Mn Manganese 25	Fe Iron 26	Co Cobalt 27	Ni Nickel 28	Cu Copper 29	Zn Zinc 30	Ga Gallium 31
Rb Rubidium 37	Sr Strontium 38	Y Yttrium 39	Zr Zirconium 40	Nb Niobium 41	Mo Molybdenum 42	Tc Technetium 43	Ru Ruthenium 44	Rh Rhodium 45	Pd Palladium 46	Ag Silver 47	Cd Cadmium 48	In Indium 49
Cs Caesium 55	Ba Barium 56	La Lanthanum 57	Hf Hafnium 72	Ta Tantalum 73	W Tungsten 74	Re Rhenium 75	Os Osmium 76	Ir Iridium 77	Pt Platinum 78	Au Gold 79	Hg Mercury 80	Tl Thallium 81
Fr Francium 87	Ra Radium 88	Ac Actinium 89	Rf Rutherfordium 104	Db Dubnium 105	Sg Seaborgium 106	Bh Bohrium 107	Hs Hassium 108	Mt Meitnerium 109	Ds Darmstadtium 110	Rg Roentgenium 111		

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You can use the periodic table to look up the name of an element if you know the symbol or if you know the name.

However, it will help you a lot if you can remember these common elements.

Metals: **sodium – Na**
calcium – Ca
magnesium – Mg
potassium – K
zinc – Zn
copper – Cu
iron – Fe





Non-metals: **hydrogen – H**
carbon – C
nitrogen – N
oxygen – O
chlorine – Cl
sulfur – S



Molecular elements

A small number of non-metals naturally exist in the form of **molecules**, made of the **same** type of atom joined together.

Examples of molecular elements are hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen and chlorine.

- ★ The chemical formula for a molecule of hydrogen is H_2 
- ★ The chemical formula for a molecule of nitrogen is N_2 
- ★ The chemical formula for a molecule of oxygen is O_2 
- ★ The chemical formula for a molecule of chlorine is Cl_2 

The $_2$ tells you how many atoms are in the molecule. Always goes at the bottom. O_2 and O^2 are incorrect.

Compounds

Elements react with each other to form **compounds**.

The molecules in a compound are made up of two or more **different** atoms joined together. They can **only** be separated by a chemical reaction.

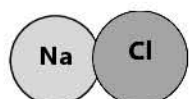
The chemical formula of a compound shows the atoms it contains and how many.

For example:



The formula for water is H_2O . Each water molecule contains two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom.

The formula for carbon dioxide is CO_2 . A molecule of carbon dioxide contains one carbon atom and two oxygen atoms.



The chemical name for everyday cooking salt is sodium chloride. Its formula is $NaCl$. Each molecule of salt contains one sodium atom and one chlorine atom.

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Mixtures

A mixture is made up of two or more substances that have been combined chemically bonded.

- ★ The substances in a mixture can be quite easily separated by physical means.
- ★ A mixture of salt crystals and iron filings can be separated using a magnet. The iron is attracted to the magnet, and the salt is left behind.
- ★ A mixture of sugar and water can be separated by pouring it into a shallow dish and leaving it in a warm place – the water will evaporate, leaving the sugar.






Hazardous chemicals

During your work in the laboratory, you will see that some of the bottles of chemicals are labelled with a symbol, like the ones in the picture.

These are **hazard signs**, and they are the same all over the world.

Hazard signs warn you about the dangers of a substance. They tell you the type of risk and how severe it is.

You need to know the following signs and what they mean:

	<p>This sign indicates a moderate hazard. That means it is harmful, but not severely harmful.</p> <p>The dilute acids and alkalis you work with in the laboratory can make your skin and eyes red, sore and itchy, and irritate your eyes. You should wear gloves and goggles when working with these substances.</p>
	<p>Substances with this sign are corrosive. Examples include strong acids and alkalis.</p> <p>Corrosive substances can destroy living tissue, so don't come into contact with the skin or eyes.</p> <p>Always wear hand and eye protection.</p>
	<p>This sign indicates that a chemical is toxic. You should avoid substances like bleach and weedkiller, not just in the laboratory.</p> <p>Toxic chemicals can cause death or serious damage if swallowed, or absorbed through the skin.</p>
	<p>Substances labelled with this sign are flammable. They catch fire very easily and should be kept well away from heat.</p> <p>Flammable chemicals should be stored in fire-resistant containers.</p>
	<p>This sign shows that a substance poses an environmental hazard. Some chemicals can cause short- or long-term damage to plants and animals that make up an ecosystem.</p> <p>Chemicals labelled with this sign may need to be stored in special containers.</p>

When you plan an experiment, you need to do a **risk assessment**. This will help you to identify the risks and plan how to avoid them.

- ★ Identifying any potential sources of harm in the equipment, method and materials.
- ★ Planning **precautions** to reduce the risk of anyone being hurt by these hazards.

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Quick questions 1

1. Copy and complete this table:

Name of element	Chemical symbol
Sodium	
	Cu
Carbon	
	Mg
	S

2. Nitrogen is a molecular element. State the chemical formula for nitrogen.
3. For each of the following substances, write down whether it is an element or a mixture:
- Potassium
 - Calcium carbonate
 - Water
 - Salt solution
 - Sulfuric acid
4. Explain the difference between a mixture and a compound.
5. The formula for sulfuric acid is H_2SO_4 . Copy and complete the table to show how many atoms make up a sulfuric acid molecule.

Name of element	Number of atoms

6. Write down the meaning of these hazard signs:



a)



b)



c)

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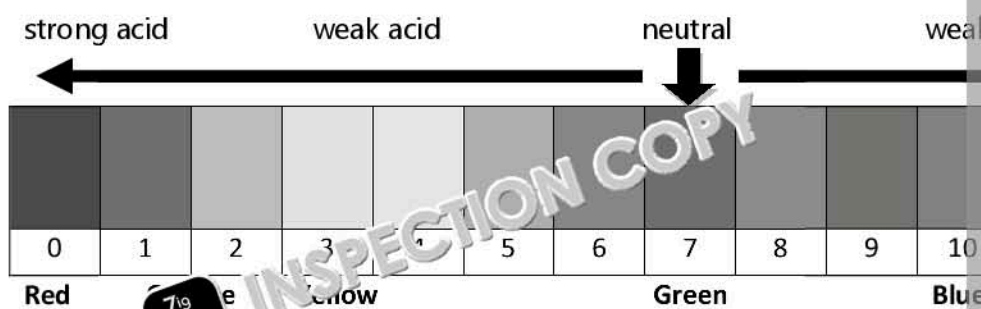
D2: Acids and alkalis

Elements react with each other and combine together to form a huge range of compounds. These compounds have various chemical properties; they include **acids**, **bases**, and **neutral substances**.

pH scale	a scale from 0 to 14 that measures the acidity of a substance
Indicator	a substance that changes colour in the presence of certain acids or bases
Acid	a compound that contains hydrogen and has a pH less than 7
Base	a substance that has a pH of more than 7 and reacts with acids
Alkali	a base that will dissolve in water
Neutral	a neutral substance has a pH of 7 and is neither acid nor base
Neutralisation	when an acid reacts with a base to produce a neutral substance
Salt	a compound that is produced by a neutralisation reaction

Acidity and the pH scale

All chemical compounds are either acids, bases, or neutral substances. The **pH scale** measures how acidic or alkaline a substance is on a scale of 0 to 14.



The colours are shown using **universal indicator**. Universal indicator comes in a liquid form and it changes colour from red for strong acids, through to dark blue/purple for strong bases.

Neutral substances have a pH of 7 and are harmless. They will turn universal indicator green. Water is an example of a neutral substance.

Acids have a pH of less than 7 and they will turn universal indicator yellow, orange or red.

- ★ Strong acids have pH between 0 and 3. These include the sulfuric, hydrochloric and nitric acids used in the laboratory. They will turn universal indicator red or orange.
- ★ Weak acids have pH between 4 and 6. These include citric acid in oranges and lemon juice. They will turn universal indicator yellow or light green.

Bases have a pH of more than 7 and they turn universal indicator blue or purple.

- ★ Strong bases have a pH between 11 and 14. They include sodium hydroxide and bleach. They will turn universal indicator dark blue or purple.
- ★ Weak bases have pH 8 to 10, and they will turn universal indicator blue. Ammonia solution has a pH of 8.

Bases are metal oxides, hydroxides, and carbonates. **Alkalis** are bases that dissolve in water.

Example
If you think rain is acidic, you can test it with universal indicator.

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Alternative indicator – litmus

Litmus is a chemical indicator that usually comes in the form of red and blue. It tells you whether a substance is an acid or an alkali, but not how strong it is.

- ★ **Acids** turn blue litmus red.
- ★ **Alkalis** turn red litmus blue.
- ★ **Neutral** substances don't change the colour of litmus – red stays red and blue stays blue.

Neutralisation

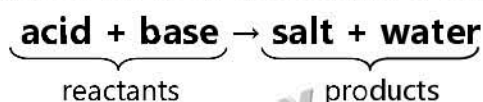
Acids and bases will react together, and this reaction will produce a neutral substance.

For example

- ★ Hydrochloric acid has a pH of 1. Sodium hydroxide has a pH of 11.
- ★ If you gradually add sodium hydroxide to hydrochloric acid the pH of the solution will increase. When you have added the right amount, it will increase to pH 7. You have reached the neutralisation point.
- ★ If you continued to add sodium hydroxide after this point the pH of the solution will continue to increase and it will become alkaline, because all the acid has already been used up.

Products of neutralisation

When an acid and a base react together, the products are always a **salt** and **water**.



In the example above:



Salts get the first part of their name from the metal in the base, and the second part from the acid.

If you change the acid:



- ★ Hydrochloric acid produces **chlorides**.
- ★ Nitric acid produces **nitrates**.
- ★ Sulfuric acid produces **sulfates**.

If you change the base:



Chemical formulae

You need to know the formulae for the acids and bases you use in chemistry.

Acids	Bases
Hydrochloric acid HCl	Oxides/hydroxides
Nitric acid HNO ₃	Sodium hydroxide NaOH
Sulfuric acid H ₂ SO ₄	Calcium hydroxide Ca(OH) ₂
	Copper oxide CuO
	Zinc oxide ZnO
	Magnesium oxide MgO

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Uses of neutralisation

The neutralisation reaction is used in everyday life for many purposes, and a few examples:

- ★ **Treatment of acid indigestion.** The stomach contains hydrochloric acid which helps us digest our food. However, if too much acid is produced a person can experience indigestion and heartburn.

Indigestion remedies contain bases such as magnesium carbonate and these neutralise the excess acid and relieve the symptoms. Insoluble bases do not dissolve in acid, nor in water, so there is no risk of the digestive system being damaged by too much acid.

- ★ **Soil treatment.** When we burn fossil fuels (coal, oil or gas) gases such as carbon dioxide are released into the air; these gases dissolve in rainwater to form carbonic acid. If it falls on fields it makes the soil more acidic.

Some food crops don't grow well in acid soil, and this could affect the farmer. Farmers add powdered lime (calcium oxide) or chalk (calcium carbonate) to neutralise the soil.

- ★ **Water treatment.** When acid rain falls in rivers and lakes it can decrease the pH of the water. Industrial chemicals released from factories can do the same thing. If the pH is too low it will kill underwater plants and animals.

Lime is sometimes added to river water to neutralise excess acid and prevent the water becoming too acidic.

Quick questions 2

- Copy and complete this table:

Name of compound	Chemical formula
Sodium hydroxide	CuO
Nitric acid	MgCO ₃
	H ₂ SO ₄

- Give **two** chemical properties of an acid.
- Sodium hydroxide and copper oxide are both bases. Explain why sodium hydroxide is an alkali, but copper oxide is not.
- Water is a neutral substance. Write down the pH of water.
- Vinegar is a weak acid. Which of these is likely to be the pH of vinegar?
 - 2
 - 5
 - 7
 - 10
- Copy and complete this word equation:

nitric acid + copper oxide → _____ + _____
- Copy and complete this word equation:

_____ acid + _____ hydroxide → calcium chloride

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D3: Reaction of acids with metals and

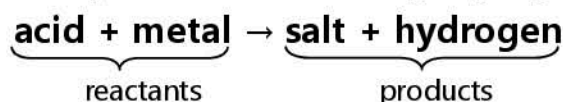
Definitions

Hydrogen	a flammable gas with the formula H_2
Splint	a long, thin piece of wood that can be placed in a test tube
Carbonate	a salt that contains metal, carbon and oxygen atoms
Carbon dioxide	a non-flammable gas with the formula CO_2
Lime water	a calcium hydroxide solution that turns cloudy in the presence of carbon dioxide

Acids and metals

Most metals will react with acids to form salts. The exceptions are copper, silver and gold, which don't react with acids at all.

When an acid reacts with a metal the products are a salt and hydrogen gas.



For example, if you add a strip of magnesium tape to a test tube of sulfuric acid:



If you change the acid:



If you change the metal:



Testing for hydrogen gas

When an acid is added to a metal the mixture will bubble and fizz. This tells you that a gas is being produced, but it doesn't tell you which gas.

To confirm that the gas is hydrogen, and not oxygen or carbon dioxide, you need to perform the following test.

Light a wooden splint and insert it into the neck of the test tube, above the liquid.

If the gas is hydrogen, then the gas will burn and make a sound that is usually described as a **squeaky pop**. The popping sound indicates that a small explosion has occurred.

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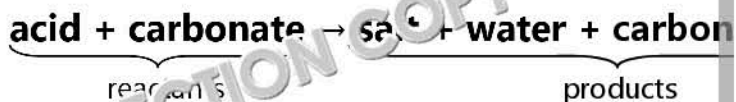


Acids and carbonates

Carbonates are metal compounds that contain one carbon atom and three oxygen atoms.

The formula for a carbonate ends in CO_3 , e.g. sodium carbonate has the formula Na_2CO_3 .

When an acid reacts with a carbonate there are three products: a salt, water and carbon dioxide.



For example, if you add sulfuric acid to calcium carbonate, the reaction will be:



If you change the acid:



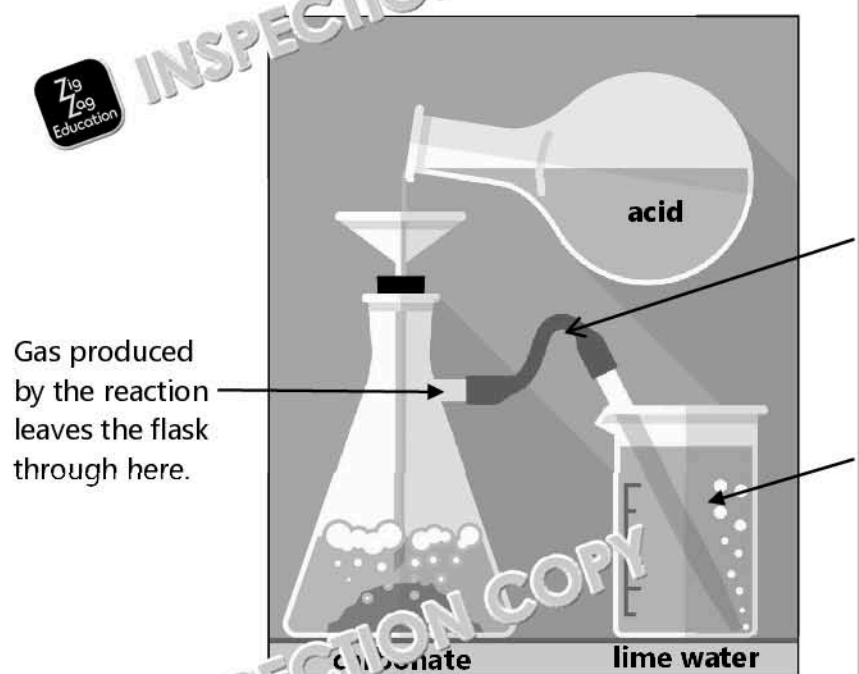
If you change the metal:



Testing for carbon dioxide gas

When an acid is added to a carbonate the mixture will bubble and fizz, like when you open a fizzy drink. The same way, the fizzing tells you that a gas is being produced, but it doesn't tell you what the gas is.

To confirm that the gas is carbon dioxide, you need to perform the following test:



Collect the gas shown in the diagram above and bubble it through an inverted test tube of lime water.

Lime water is a solution of calcium hydroxide, and it reacts with carbon dioxide to form calcium carbonate.

Lime water is normally a clear, colourless solution, but in the presence of carbon dioxide it becomes white and cloudy.

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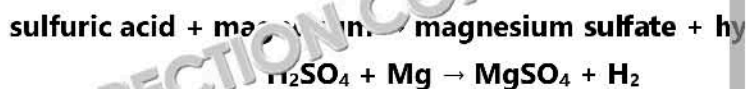


Writing balanced chemical equations

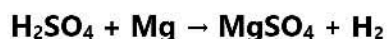
So far in this chapter we have used word equations to describe chemical reactions.



You also need to use the chemical formulae of substances to write chemical equations. In the example above:



This is a balanced chemical equation because the number and type of atoms of the equation are the same on both sides. It looks like this:



2 hydrogen atoms
1 sulfur atom
4 oxygen atoms
1 magnesium atom

2 hydrogen atoms
1 sulfur atom
4 oxygen atoms
1 magnesium atom

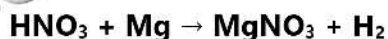
No atoms have disappeared, and none have appeared from nowhere, they are all accounted for.

In that example the equation is already balanced. One molecule of sulfuric acid reacts with one atom of magnesium to produce one magnesium sulfate molecule and one molecule of hydrogen gas.

However, it doesn't always work that way. The same reaction with nitric acid:

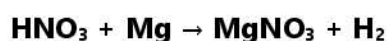


Using chemical symbols, this is:



However, this equation does not balance, because hydrogen is a molecular gas. Two hydrogen atoms make a molecule of hydrogen gas.

At the moment you have



1 hydrogen atom
1 nitrogen atom
3 oxygen atoms
1 magnesium atom

2 hydrogen atoms
1 nitrogen atom
3 oxygen atoms
1 magnesium atom

You need to find another hydrogen atom from somewhere to balance the equation. To solve the problem, double the number of nitric acid molecules and then count up the atoms again:



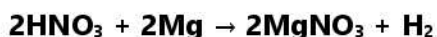
2 hydrogen atoms
2 nitrogen atoms
6 oxygen atoms
1 magnesium atom

2 hydrogen atoms
1 nitrogen atom
3 oxygen atoms
1 magnesium atom

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However, you now have twice as many nitrogen and oxygen atoms, so you need to double the number of magnesium atoms to combine with them, like this:



2 hydrogen atoms
2 nitrogen atoms
6 oxygen atoms
2 magnesium atoms

2 hydrogen atoms
2 nitrogen atoms
6 oxygen atoms
2 magnesium atoms

The chemical equation is now balanced.

Two molecules of nitric acid react with two magnesium atoms to produce two molecules of magnesium nitrate and one molecule of hydrogen gas.

Example

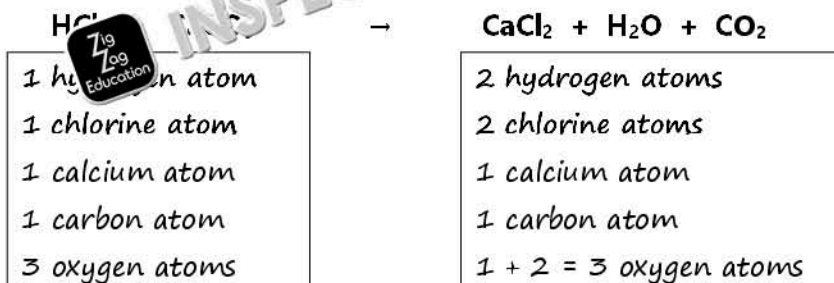
- Write a word equation for the chemical reaction that would produce calcium chloride and carbon dioxide.
- The formula for calcium chloride is CaCl_2 . Write a balanced chemical equation for the reaction.

a) If a salt, water and CO_2 are produced, that means the reaction is a carbonate reaction.

The salt is calcium chloride; that means the carbonate is calcium carbonate and the acid is hydrochloric acid.

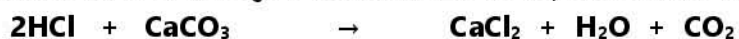
Therefore, the word equation for this reaction is:
hydrochloric acid + calcium carbonate → calcium chloride + water + carbon dioxide

- First write down the unbalanced chemical equation, and then count the atoms on each side:



You need one more hydrogen atom and one more chlorine atom.

Double the HCl and you will balance the equation, like this:



Quick questions 3

- A chemical reaction produces zinc sulfate and hydrogen gas. Name the reactants.
 - Describe the test you would perform to confirm that the gas is hydrogen.
 - The formula for zinc sulfate is ZnSO_4 . Write a balanced chemical equation for the reaction.
- Hydrochloric acid is added to a carbonate. Name the **products** of this reaction.
 - Write down the word equation for the reaction between hydrochloric acid and sodium carbonate.
 - Write a balanced chemical equation for the reaction in part b).

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Checklist – Substances and chemical reactions

I can use the periodic table to recognise elements and the formulae of simple compounds.

I can explain the meaning of the words element, compound, mixture, molecule and atom.

I can define acids, bases and alkalis.

I understand the relationship between pH and acidity.

I can test alkalis and neutral substances using universal indicator and litmus paper.

I can identify the hazard symbols for mild hazard/irritant, corrosive, toxic, flammable and harmful to the environment.

I can predict the outcome of neutralisation reactions using hydrochloric acid, nitric acid with a metal oxide and sodium hydroxide.

I understand that chemicals react to form products with different properties, including acids and salts.

I can explain how neutralisation reactions are used to treat indigestion in humans and the chemicals used.

I can explain how neutralisation reactions are used in the environment to reduce the acidity of rivers and lakes, caused by acid rain.

I can predict the outcome of chemical reactions using hydrochloric acid, nitric acid with metals.

I can predict the outcome of chemical reactions using hydrochloric acid, nitric acid with carbonates.

I can describe how to test for the presence of hydrogen gas.

I can describe how to test for the presence of carbon dioxide using lime water.

I can recall the formulae for the acids and bases named in this chapter.

I can write word equations to describe the chemical reactions outlined in this chapter.

I can write balanced chemical equations to describe the chemical reactions outlined in this chapter.

I can balance a chemical equation and explain the reason for any changes I need to make.

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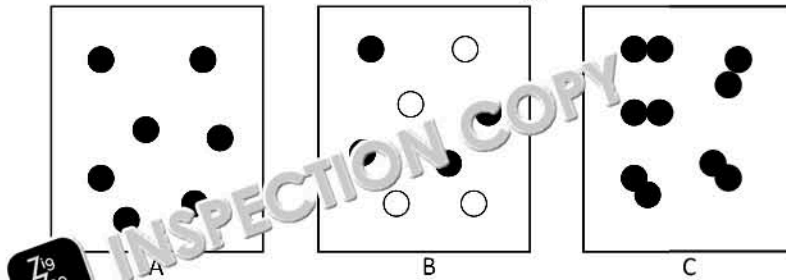




Exam-style questions

1. a) Figure 1 shows four substances, labelled A, B, C and D.

Figure 1



Write down the names of these substances:

- (i) Is a compound? (ii) Is a mixture? (iii) could be an element?
- b) Explain what is meant by the term **compound**.
- c) Some chemical substances carry hazard warning labels.

For both the symbols below, select one word to represent the hazards they represent.

(i) Toxic

(ii) Corrosive

Flammable

2. a) Yasmin adds 10 cm³ of hydrochloric acid to universal indicator solution in a test tube.

- (i) What is the chemical formula for hydrochloric acid?
- (ii) What colour will the indicator be after adding the acid? Choose one option.

Orange/red Yellow/green Green/blue

- b) Yasmin then adds an equal amount of sodium hydroxide to the test tube.

- (i) What is the most likely colour of the indicator after adding the sodium hydroxide? Choose one option.

Blue Red Yellow

- (ii) Sodium hydroxide is an **alkali**. Write down **two** chemical properties of an alkali.

- c) An acid will react with an alkali to form two new compounds.

- (i) Copy and complete this word equation to show the products that are formed when hydrochloric acid and sodium hydroxide react together.

Hydrochloric acid + sodium hydroxide → +

- (ii) Copy and complete the sentence:
The chemical reaction between an acid and a base is called

- (iii) Bases such as magnesium hydroxide are often used to treat indigestion. Explain how this treatment works.

3. a) Zaid dilutes nitric acid with sodium carbonate in a flask. A gas is produced.

- (i) What is the name of the gas?
- (ii) How would you test this gas to confirm its identity?

- b) The formula for sodium carbonate is Na₂CO₃. The formula for sodium nitrate is NaNO₃. Write a balanced chemical equation for the reaction between sodium carbonate and nitric acid.

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Chapter E: Energy and how we

Energy is what makes things happen. In physics it is defined as the capacity to do work. In this chapter you will learn about the different forms of energy, how we store it, and how it is transferred between its various forms.



E1: Energy and energy stores

	Definitions
Thermal energy	heat energy from hot objects
Kinetic energy	the energy in a moving object
Mechanical energy	includes kinetic energy and potential energy
Potential energy	energy that is stored in an object because it is high up
Nuclear energy	energy that is stored in an atom and released by nuclear reactions
Chemical energy	energy that is stored in food, fuels and batteries
Battery	a store of chemical energy that can be converted to electrical energy

Forms of energy

Energy comes in many different forms, and it can be transferred from one form to another.

Light energy is energy that our eyes can detect.

- ★ Light energy comes from the Sun and is also emitted by light bulbs, lasers, and LEDs.
- ★ It can travel through solids, liquids, gases or a vacuum.
- ★ We use it to heat things and to generate electricity (solar power).
- ★ Plants use it to make food by photosynthesis.

Sound energy

- ★ Sound energy is the energy in a sound wave.
- ★ Sound waves are produced when objects vibrate.
- ★ They can travel through solids, liquids and gases.
- ★ We use sound to communicate information.

Thermal energy

- ★ Thermal energy is **heat** energy.
- ★ It flows from hot objects to colder objects.
- ★ Hot objects include the Sun and hot water.
- ★ We use it for cooking and heating, and it is also used to generate electricity.

Kinetic energy

- ★ Kinetic energy is the energy of a moving object. It is a type of **mechanical energy**.
- ★ The amount of kinetic energy depends on the mass of the object and how fast it is moving.
- ★ It is used to move things and to generate electricity.

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Electrical energy

- ★ Electrical energy comes from moving electric charges.
- ★ Lightning is an example of electrical charges in nature.
- ★ Electrical energy can't be stored; it must be generated by a power station, battery, or solar cell.
- ★ Electrical appliances transform electrical energy into other forms of energy, such as light, sound, and thermal energy.

Nuclear energy

- ★ Energy is stored in the nucleus of an atom and released in nuclear reactions.
- ★ It is released when large radioactive atoms split apart, called **nuclear fission**, and also when small atoms join together, called **nuclear fusion**.
- ★ Nuclear energy can be used to make nuclear weapons and to generate electricity.

Storing energy

Some forms of energy can be stored, and then used when we need it.

- ★ **Light** and **sound** energy **cannot** be stored.
- ★ **Electrical** energy **cannot** be stored.

Sources of stored energy are:

- ★ **Thermal energy** can be stored in hot water tanks if the tanks are insulated so that the heat does not escape. We insulate our homes to prevent warm air from escaping.
- ★ **Chemical energy** is the energy stored in the bonds that connect atoms and molecules. Our most common sources are food and fuels.
 - **Food** contains chemical energy, which is released in our cells when we eat. We transform the energy in food into kinetic energy for movement, thermal energy to keep us warm, and sound when we communicate.
 - Plants use light energy to make their own food store.
 - **Fuels** like coal, oil, natural gas and wood contain chemical energy. When a fuel is burned. The thermal energy that is produced when fuels are burned is used for cooking and heating, and also to power engines and generate electricity.
 - **Batteries** store chemical energy, which is converted to electrical energy when connected to an electrical appliance.
- ★ **Mechanical potential energy** is kinetic energy that is stored in an object when it is **not** moving. There are two types:
 - **Gravitational potential energy** is stored in an object because it is high up. When it falls, the potential energy is transformed so that the moving object now stores kinetic energy.
 - At the top of a waterfall the water has gravitational potential energy.
 - On the way down, the water has kinetic energy.
 - At the bottom kinetic energy keeps the river flowing, and some energy is transformed into sound and thermal energy.

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- **Elastic potential energy** is stored in an object that is stretched, like a rubber band, or compressed, like a spring. When it is released, the potential energy is converted into kinetic energy.

The string of the bow is pulled back and stretched tightly, storing elastic potential energy.



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- ★ **Nuclear energy** is the energy stored in atoms. See above for more details.

Quick questions 1

- Which forms of energy are generated by the following objects in the following situations?
 - A gas fire
 - A vacuum cleaner
 - A CD player
- Which of the following shows the **two** forms of energy that can be seen in the following situations?
 - Light and thermal energy
 - Chemical and electrical energy
 - Mechanical and chemical energy
 - Electrical and nuclear energy
- Which form of energy is stored in a mobile phone battery?
 - Chemical energy
 - Electrical energy
 - Thermal energy
 - Chemical energy
- Write down **two** uses of nuclear energy.
- Jamal throws a ball straight upwards from point A. The diagram shows how the ball travels. Which form of energy does the ball have:
 - at point B?
 - at point C?
 - Jamal uses a spring-loaded ball-throwing device to throw the ball. Name the type of energy that is stored in the spring.



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E2: Transferring energy

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	Definitions
Joule (J)	the unit for measuring energy
Conservation of energy	the basic principle that energy cannot be created or destroyed, only be transferred
Energy transfer	the change of energy from one form to another, such as from potential energy to kinetic energy. Also called transformation
Sankey diagram	a diagram that shows the proportion of energy that is transferred at each stage
Energy efficiency	the proportion of energy that is transferred and used for the intended purpose
Thermal energy transfer	the ways in which heat is transferred from one object to another: conduction, convection and radiation
Power	the rate at which energy is transferred
Watt (W)	the unit for measuring the power of a device

Measuring energy

Energy is measured in joules (J).

One **joule** is a very small amount of energy. The chemical energy in our food is measured in kilojoules (kJ). A small tin of baked beans contains about 170 kJ.

- ★ The important thing about energy is that it can never be created or destroyed.
- ★ The total energy at the end of an energy transfer is always the same as the total energy at the start.

$$\text{Total energy in (J)} = \text{Total energy out (J)}$$

This is called the principle of conservation of energy, or the first law of thermodynamics.

Transferring energy

Whenever something happens, energy is transferred, either from one form to another.

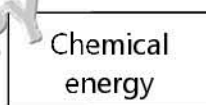
Energy can be transferred in various ways:

- ★ **Mechanical transfer (work)** happens when an object is moved through a distance, such as pushing or lifting.

The amount of energy transferred depends on the weight of the object.

For example, if you are carrying a bag of rice home from the shop, you will do more work carrying a 10 kg bag of rice than a 5 kg bag.

The energy to carry the rice comes from the chemical energy in your food. This energy transfer can be shown as a flow diagram like this →



- ★ **Electrical work** happens when electrical energy is transferred from a device to other forms, such as:

- Thermal energy when you boil a kettle.
- Light energy when you turn a lamp on.
- Kinetic energy in the motor of a washing machine or food mixer.
- Sound energy in a speaker.



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Useful energy and wasted energy

Usually when electrical appliances transfer energy, more than one form of energy is transferred.

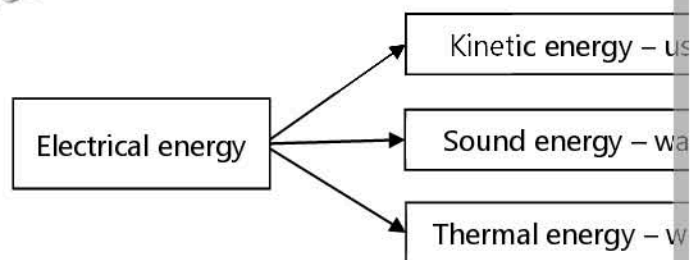
For example: a vacuum cleaner transfers kinetic energy to work the motor, gets warm during use, so sound energy and thermal energy are also transferred.

The kinetic energy is **useful energy** because it makes the vacuum cleaner spin.

However, we don't need it to be noisy or get hot, so the sound and thermal energy are wasted.

The wasted energy is transferred to the surroundings.

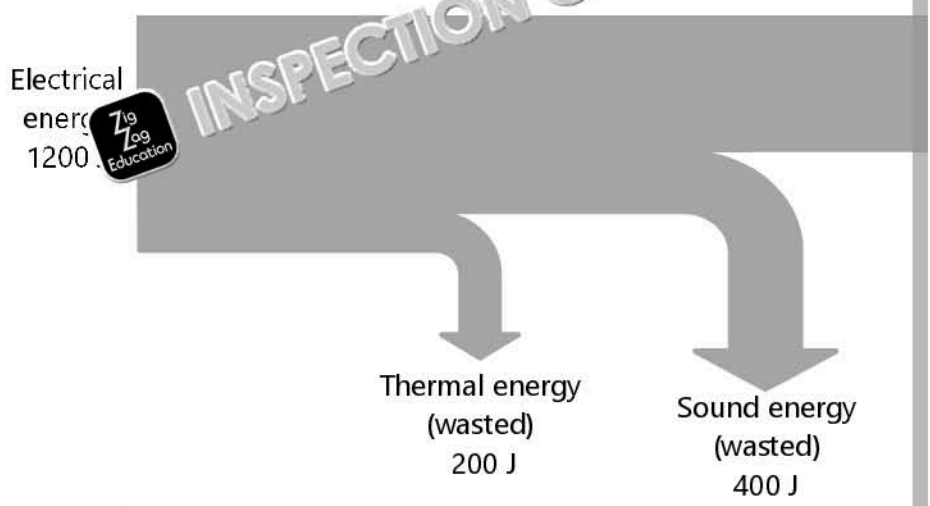
You can show this in an energy transfer flow chart, like this:



Alternatively, if you know the amounts of energy involved you can draw a Sankey diagram.

This starts off as a large arrow and splits up into smaller arrows. The thickness of the arrows is proportional to the amount of energy transferred.

For example: if a vacuum cleaner transfers 1200 J of energy, and out of this 600 J are kinetic energy, 400 J are sound energy and 200 J are heat energy, the Sankey diagram would look like this:



Energy efficiency

The energy efficiency of an electrical appliance is the percentage of **useful energy** that the appliance produces.

You can calculate energy efficiency using the following equation:

$$\text{energy efficiency} = \frac{\text{total amount of useful energy output}}{\text{total energy input}} \times 100$$



So, the energy efficiency of the vacuum cleaner in the Sankey diagram is:

$$\frac{\text{useful energy output}}{\text{total energy input}} \times 100 = \frac{600}{1200} \times 100 = 50\%$$

If you are given the percentage energy efficiency, you can calculate the output energy.

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Example

- a) A light bulb is 80 % energy efficient. If it uses 1500 J of electrical energy, how much light energy does it produce?
 The bulb is 80 % efficient, so that means the useful output, light, is 80 % of 1500 = $\frac{80}{100} \times 1500 = 1200$ Light energy = 1200 J
- b) A different light bulb is only 60 % energy efficient. How much electrical energy does it need to produce 1200 J of light energy?
 In this case 1200 J of light energy output is only 60 % of the input. To calculate the input energy:
 $\frac{100}{60} \times 1200 = 2000$ J Electrical energy input = 2000 J

It is impossible to make an appliance that is 100 % energy efficient; some heat is always lost to the surroundings. However, manufacturers work on making products more energy efficient. LED light bulbs are much more energy efficient than the old-style bulbs, which are incandescent.

Thermal energy transfer

Whenever there is a temperature difference between an object and its surroundings, thermal energy is transferred from the warmer place to the cooler place.

For example, if you put a hot drink and an iced drink at normal room temperature, the hot drink will cool down over time and the ice will melt in the cold drink.

Transfer of thermal energy is important for cooking, heating, and all other applications. Thermal energy is transferred in the following ways:

★ Conduction

Conduction happens between solid objects that are in contact with each other.

When solids are heated, the particles next to the heat source start to vibrate against each other, although the object does not move. The vibrations are passed to neighbouring particles, which also then heat up.

In this picture the hotplate is the heat source. Vibrations in the element are conducted to the pan, and to the food inside.

Notice that the pan is made of metal because metals are good conductors of heat.

Non-metals like wood and plastic are poor conductors of heat. They are used for handles so that you won't burn yourself when you touch them.

A poor conductor of heat is also called an **insulator**.

Liquids and gases are poor conductors of heat.



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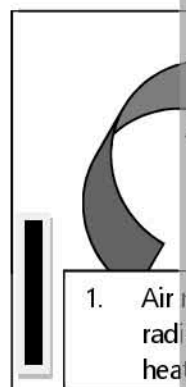
★ Convection

Convection happens in fluids. A fluid is a liquid or a gas, e.g. water and air. When particles in a fluid are heated, they have more energy, and they move faster. This makes the fluid expand. It becomes less dense, so it rises. The cooler fluid then replaces it. This process is called a **convection current**.

The diagram shows the convection current in a room that is heated by a radiator.

The same thing happens when you boil water in a pan. The water at the bottom gets heated first, and then it rises to the top, and is replaced by cooler water.

This continues until all of the water boils.



★ Radiation

Radiation is the transfer of heat energy directly from a hot object, such as the Sun, to a cooler region that can absorb it.

Unlike conduction and convection, radiation does not involve moving particles. It is carried by waves, called **infrared** waves.

Infrared waves are part of the electromagnetic spectrum. See Chapter 10 for more on electromagnetic waves. They can travel through a vacuum, such as space. This is why we can feel the heat of the Sun even though it is 150 million kilometres away from Earth.

Objects which take in radiated heat are called absorbers of heat. Objects which give out heat by radiation are called emitters of heat. Black matt surfaces are the best absorbers and emitters of heat radiation. Solar panels are black for this reason.

Shiny white surfaces are poor absorbers and emitters of heat radiation. This is why white clothes are cooler on hot sunny days than black clothes.

Power

Your muscles have power, and so do appliances and engines.

Power is the amount of energy which is transferred in a specific time.

For example, if you move your body 100 metres, you transfer the same amount of energy whether you run or walk, because you are moving the same weight through the same distance.

However, it takes more muscle power to run, because you are transferring the energy in a shorter time.

Calculating power

Power is measured in **watts** (W).

1 watt is 1 joule per second. A 2000 W microwave oven is more powerful than a 1000 W one because it transfers more energy every second it is in use, so the food will take less time to cook.

The equation for calculating power is:

$$\text{power (W)} = \frac{\text{energy (J)}}{\text{time (s)}}$$

You can rearrange this equation to calculate energy or time if you know the power and the other quantity.

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Example

- a) Calculate the power of a motor that transfers 9000 J of energy in 1 minute.
 Use the equation and substitute the values you know:

$$\text{power (W)} = \frac{\text{energy (J)}}{\text{time (s)}} = \frac{9000}{60}$$

$$\text{Power} = 9000 \div 60 = 150 \text{ watt}$$
- b) How much energy is transferred by a 750 W microwave oven in 2 minutes?
 The microwave has 750 watts of power. That means that every second it transfers 750 J of energy.
 2 minutes = 120 seconds, therefore energy transferred = 750×120
- c) How long does it take for a 60 watt light bulb to transfer 3000 joules of energy?
 60 watt bulb transfers 60 joules in 1 second:

$$60 \text{ (W)} = \frac{3000 \text{ (J)}}{\text{time (s)}}$$

$$\text{time} = 3000 \div 60 = 50 \text{ seconds}$$

Many appliances have a power rating that is given in kilowatts (kW).

1 kilowatt = 1000 watts, so a 2 kW hairdryer will transfer 2000 joules of energy every second.

Paying for electricity

When electricity companies calculate how much electricity to charge us for, the unit they use is the **kilowatt-hour (kWh)**.

1 kWh is the amount of energy that is used by running a 1000 watt appliance for 1 hour.

The cost per kilowatt-hour is set by the suppliers and is called the **unit cost**.

To calculate the cost of running an electrical appliance:

$$\text{cost} = \text{power of appliance (kW)} \times \text{running time (hours)} \times \text{unit cost (p/kWh)}$$

For example, an electric oven has a power rating of 2400 W. Calculate the cost of running it for 90 minutes if the cost of electricity is 25 p per kilowatt-hour.

- ★ First turn the power from watts to kilowatts – divide by 1000 2400 ÷ 1000 = 2.4
- ★ Then turn the time from minutes to hours – divide by 60 90 ÷ 60 = 1.5
- ★ Now do the multiplication 2.4 × 1.5 × 25 = 90 p

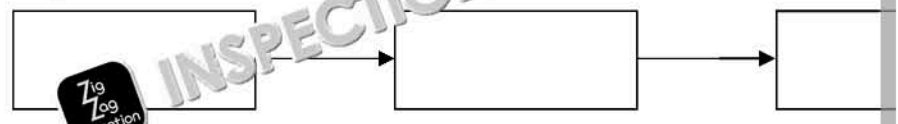
Example
 You need to calculate the cost of running a 1000 W hairdryer for 15 minutes if the unit cost is 25 p per kWh.
 Always show your working and give your answer in pence.

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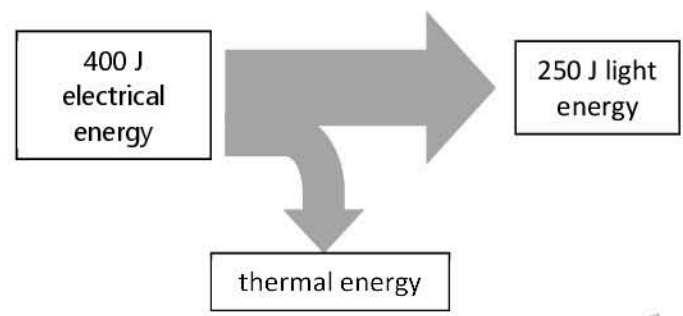


Quick questions 2

1. State the law of conservation of energy.
2. Maya eats her lunch and then goes for a run. Draw a flow chart to show which takes place.
3. A torch uses batteries. Copy and complete this flow chart to show what happens when the torch is switched on.



4. a) Write down three forms of energy that are transferred by a television.
b) Which of these is wasted energy?
5. The Sankey diagram below shows the energy transfers that happen in a light bulb.



- a) How much energy is transferred as heat?
b) Calculate the energy efficiency of the light bulb.
6. A ball bearing is attached to one end of a metal bar with some wax. The other end of the bar is heated up.



- a) What will happen to the ball after a few minutes?
b) Which type of energy transfer is this? Choose **one**.
Radiation / Conduction/ Convection
7. A motor transfers 750 joules of energy in 5 seconds. Calculate the power. State the units of your answer.
8. a) Name the unit that electricity suppliers use to calculate your energy.
b) If electricity costs 30 p per unit, how much will it cost to use a 100 W lamp for 30 minutes?

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E3: Renewable and non-renewable

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	Definitions
Non-renewable energy	sources that are extracted from the earth and cannot be replaced in a human lifetime
Renewable energy	resources that can be replaced by nature in less than a human lifetime
Turbine	a device with rotating blades that transfers the energy of steam or water into mechanical energy to drive a generator
Generator	a machine that transfers other forms of energy into electrical energy
Fuel cells	use hydrogen gas, which reacts with oxygen from the air to produce electrical energy

The modern world needs to generate a huge amount of electricity in order to power its cities and industries.

Electricity must be generated from another form of energy, and these energy sources are divided into **non-renewable** and **renewable** sources.

In the past most of our electricity was generated by burning non-renewable fossil fuels. There is a danger that these sources will run out, so there is a need to develop more renewable energy sources.

Non-renewable energy sources

Fossil fuels and nuclear power are non-renewable energy sources.

Fossil fuels

Fossil fuels were formed over millions of years from the fossilised remains of plants and animals.

They are:

- ★ Coal
- ★ Oil, and oil derivatives such as petrol and diesel
- ★ Natural gas

Most UK electricity comes from power stations that burn fossil fuels. The fuel is burned to heat water and produce steam to drive **turbines** in a generator.

We also burn fossil fuels for heating and cooking, and to power motor vehicles.

Disadvantages of fossil fuels:

- ★ They are likely to run out in the next 200 years if we keep using them at the current rate.
- ★ Burning fossil fuels produces **carbon dioxide**. This is a greenhouse gas and contributes to global warming.
- ★ Coal and oil contain sulphur. When burned they release sulphur dioxide, which dissolves in rain to form **acid rain**. Acid rain can kill plants and aquatic animals.
- ★ Burning fossil fuels produces smoke, which pollutes the air and can cause breathing difficulties.



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Nuclear energy

Nuclear energy is non-renewable because it uses the fuels **uranium** and **plutonium** and they need to be mined and can't be replaced when they run out.

Nuclear power stations work in the same way as fossil-fuelled power stations.

Advantages of using nuclear energy to generate electricity:

- ★ Unlike fossil fuels no carbon dioxide or other gases are released, so it does not contribute to climate change, acid rain or air pollution.

Disadvantages:

- ★ Nuclear fuels eventually run out.
- ★ They produce waste products which remain radioactive and harmful to the environment. This nuclear waste must be stored safely.
- ★ If there is an accident at a nuclear power plant large amounts of radioactive material can be released into the air, harming the environment and human health.

Renewable energy sources

Renewable energy sources are easily replaced.

Energy from biomass

Biomass is plant material and animal faeces. It can be used to produce energy.

- ★ Wood and other plant materials can be burned to heat homes and to generate electricity.
- ★ Plant materials can be fermented to make fuel for motor vehicles.
- ★ Human and animal waste can be fermented to produce methane gas, which can be used for heating or burned to generate electricity.

Advantages of generating electricity from biomass:

- ★ Burning biomass still produces carbon dioxide, but plant biomass is renewable because the plants took in carbon dioxide while they were growing.
- ★ Using up waste materials means that less waste goes into landfill, and this reduces the environmental impact.
- ★ Biomass does not contain sulfur, so no sulfur dioxide is produced.

Disadvantages:

Growing plants to be burned for electricity takes up land which could be used for other purposes.

Solar energy

Solar cells transfer light energy from the Sun directly into electricity. A calculator has one or two solar cells, whereas the panels on a roof contain thousands.

Advantages of using sunlight to generate electricity:

- ★ No fuel costs.
- ★ No harmful gases or carbon dioxide are produced.

Disadvantages:

- ★ Solar panels only work when the Sun is shining, and that makes them unreliable in many places.
- ★ They can be expensive to set up.
- ★ The panels take up a lot of space; many people don't have enough suitable roof space to meet their energy needs.

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Energy from wind

Wind is moving air. It has kinetic energy, which is a renewable resource.

Wind **turbines** have large blades mounted on tall towers. These capture the kinetic energy of the wind and transform it into electrical energy.

A wind farm consists of a large number of wind turbines grouped together. Some of these are on land and some are on shore.

Advantages of using wind power to generate electricity

- ★ No fuel costs.
- ★ No harmful gases such as carbon dioxide.
- ★ Single turbines can be used in isolated places with no mains electricity.

Disadvantages:

- ★ Wind turbines only work when the wind is strong enough to turn the blades, and that makes them unreliable in many places.
- ★ They can be expensive to set up.
- ★ Wind farms are noisy and ugly to look at.
- ★ Birds and bats can be killed by turbine blades.

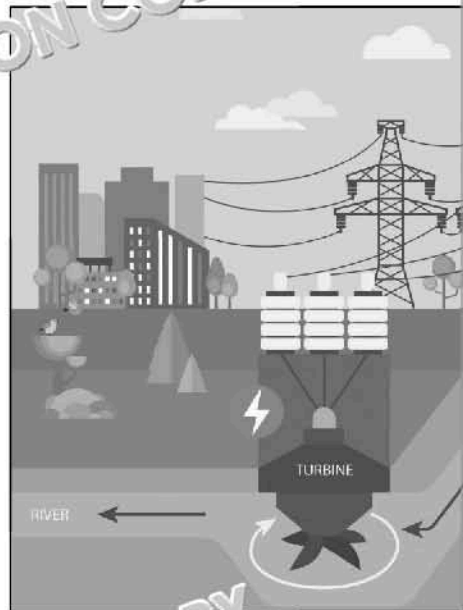
Energy from water

The kinetic energy of moving water can be used in various ways to drive turbines.

★ **Wave power.** In the sea the water moves backwards and forwards in waves. This movement can be used to turn turbines.

★ **Tidal power.** Large amounts of water moving in and out of rivers from the sea. A barrier is built across the mouth of a river, the water is forced through turbines. The high pressure between spaces in the barrier drives turbines.

★ **Hydroelectric power.** This works by building a dam across a big river, which keeps the water contained at a high level, so it has a lot of gravitational potential energy. When the water is released, it rushes through tubes in the dam and drives turbines.



Advantages of using water to generate electricity.

- ★ No fuel costs.
- ★ No harmful gases such as carbon dioxide.
- ★ Tidal barrages and hydroelectric power stations are very reliable.

Disadvantages:

- ★ These projects can be expensive to set up.
- ★ Tidal barrages destroy the habitats of the fish and birds that live in rivers.
- ★ Large-scale hydroelectric power station developments involve flooding farms and villages.

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Geothermal energy

In volcanic areas hot rocks deep underground heat water. The hot water turns turbines to drive turbines.

Advantages of using geothermal energy to generate electricity:

- ★ No fuel costs.
- ★ No harmful gases or carbon dioxide.

Disadvantages:

- ★ Only a few places in the world have the right conditions to make use of geothermal energy.

Fuel cell



Hydrogen fuel cells use hydrogen as a fuel to produce an electric current. The hydrogen is converted into water vapour. The hydrogen can be extracted from water, which is a renewable resource. It is a renewable energy to extract and store the hydrogen, and that energy could come from solar energy.

Using energy efficiently

A large proportion of our energy in the UK and worldwide is obtained by burning fossil fuels. These fuels will run out in the foreseeable future if we continue to use them up at the current rate. Burning fossil fuels also produces gases which contribute to climate change and environmental damage.

Therefore, it's important that we use energy as efficiently as possible to make it last longer and to reduce environmental damage.

Governments are investing in renewable energy. We all need to be aware of how we use energy in our daily lives, and make sure we don't waste energy. We can do this by:

- ★ Turning off lights and electrical appliances when we're not using them.
- ★ Insulating our homes to reduce heat loss.
- ★ Choosing energy-efficient light bulbs, motor vehicles and electrical appliances.
- ★ Reducing the temperature on our central heating system.
- ★ Operating washing machines and dishwashers at a lower temperature.
- ★ Reducing our use of cars.

Quick questions 3

1. What is meant by renewable energy?
2. For each of the energy sources below, state whether it is renewable.
 - a) Solar power
 - b) Nuclear power
 - c) Natural gas
 - d) Hydro-electric power
3. Give **two** examples of fossil fuels.
4. In 2011 11% of the UK's electricity was generated by burning fossil fuels.
 - a) Give **one** advantage of using fossil fuels to generate electricity.
 - b) State **two** ways in which burning fossil fuels harms the environment.
 - c) Give **one other** disadvantage of using fossil fuels in power stations.

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Checklist – Energy and how we use it

I can define the following forms of energy and give examples of how they are used: light energy, sound energy, kinetic energy, electrical energy, and nuclear energy.

I can describe how energy is stored as chemical energy in food, fuels, batteries and give examples.

I can explain how energy is stored as gravitational or elastic potential energy.

I can name four sources of renewable energy and explain their advantages and disadvantages.

I can identify fossil fuels and nuclear power as non-renewable energy sources and their advantages and disadvantages.

I can evaluate the use of renewable or non-renewable energy in a given situation.

I can explain the importance of using energy stores effectively.

I understand how energy transfers from one place to another by means of electrical circuits.

I understand how energy is transferred when a force moves through a distance.

I can explain how thermal energy is transferred by conduction, convection and radiation and give examples.

I can draw and interpret flow diagrams showing energy transfer.

I can explain the principle of conservation of energy.

I can use joules (J) as a unit of energy and watts (W) as a unit of power.

I can use the equation $\text{power} = \text{energy} / \text{time}$ to calculate one of these variables.

I can calculate the cost of running an electrical appliance for a given time.

I can explain the difference between useful energy and wasted energy and give examples.

I can draw and interpret a Sankey diagram to show useful and wasted energy.

I can calculate the percentage energy efficiency of a device.

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Exam-style questions

1. The illustration on the right shows a food mixer. The motor turns the whisks to mix the food.
- Name the type of useful energy transferred by the motor.
 - Give **two** forms of wasted energy produced by the motor.
 - Copy and complete the Sankey diagram below for this food mixer.



- The energy efficiency of this mixer is 60%. It produces 120 J of useful energy to mix pancake batter.
Calculate the total energy input to the mixer.
Energy efficiency = $\frac{\text{useful energy output}}{\text{total energy input}} \times 100$

2. Mrs Okambo has an electric fire in her living room. The power of the fire is 1800 watts.
- Explain what is meant by the power of an appliance.
 - How much energy do this fire use in one hour? Show your working.
 - Electricity costs 28 p per kilowatt-hour.
Calculate the cost of running the fire for six hours every day for one week. Show your working, and give your answer in pence to the nearest whole pence.
 - The electric fire heats the whole room by (choose **one**):
Conduction Convection Radiation

3. Electricity can be generated using renewable or non-renewable sources of energy. Wind power is a renewable energy source.
- Explain what is meant by a renewable source of energy.
 - Give **one** other example of a renewable energy source.
 - Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of generating electricity from burning fossil fuels.

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Chapter F: Waves and the electromagn

Waves transfer energy from one place to another without transferring matter. In this chapter, you will learn about the main features of waves, and about the electromagnetic spectrum.



F1: Characteristics of waves

	Definitions
Oscillation	up and down movement from a rest position
Crest	the highest point of a wave
Trough	the lowest point of a wave
Amplitude	the maximum displacement of a wave from the rest position
Wavelength	the distance between corresponding points on a wave
Frequency	the number of complete waves that pass a set point in one second
Hertz (Hz)	the unit for measuring frequency

Features of waves

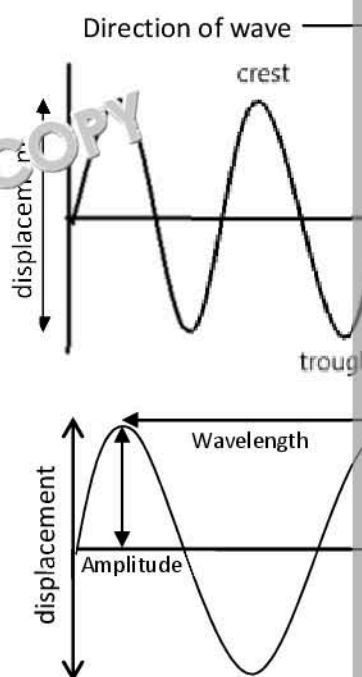
Waves are usually represented like this:

Energy is transferred by a series of **oscillations**, which are up and down movements relative to a rest position. They are also called vibrations.

Wave diagrams like this show:

displacement is how far above and below the rest position the wave goes.

- ★ The maximum displacement is called the **amplitude** of the wave and is measured in **metres (m)**. The higher the amplitude of a wave, the more energy it is carrying.
- ★ The **wavelength** is the distance covered by one single wave cycle. It's usually measured as the distance between two crests or between two troughs. Wavelength is measured in **metres (m)**. The symbol for wavelength is λ .



Waves are constantly moving.

- ★ A wave's **period** is the amount of time in **seconds (s)** that it takes to complete one cycle.
- ★ The **frequency (f)** is the number of waves that go through a set point in one second, measured in **hertz (Hz)**.
- ★ 1 Hz = 1 wave per second 120 Hz means that 120 waves pass a point every second.
- ★ The wave speed is how fast the wave is travelling in **metres per second**. It is calculated as frequency and wavelength.

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Wave calculations

Calculating frequency

If you know the time period for a wave, you can calculate the frequency using the formula:

$$f = \frac{1}{T}$$

If you know the frequency, you can work out the time period:

$$T = \frac{1}{f}$$

If you don't know the time period but you know how many waves pass a point in a certain time, you can calculate the frequency using this formula:

$$f = \frac{\text{number of waves to pass a point}}{\text{time taken in seconds}}$$

Example

- a) Wave A takes 2 seconds to pass a point. Calculate the frequency of the wave.
The time period is 2 seconds. Use the formula $f = 1 \div T = 1 \div 2 = 0.5$ Hz
- b) A different wave, wave B, has a frequency of 50 hertz. How long does it take to pass a point?
In this case you need to work out the time period, T
Use the formula $T = 1 \div f = 1 \div 50 = 0.02$ seconds
- c) 6000 cycles of wave C pass a sensor in 1 minute. Calculate the frequency of the wave.
 $f = \frac{\text{number of waves}}{\text{time in seconds}} = \frac{6000}{60} = 100$ Hz

Calculating wave speed

To calculate the speed of a wave in metres per second, multiply the wavelength by the frequency.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Wave speed (V)} &= \text{wavelength } (\lambda) \times \text{frequency (f)} \\ \text{Metres per second} &= \text{metres per wave} \times \text{waves per second} \end{aligned}$$

You can rearrange the wave speed equation to calculate wavelength and frequency.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Wavelength} &= \frac{\text{wave speed}}{\text{frequency}} & \text{Frequency} &= \frac{\text{wave speed}}{\text{wavelength}} \end{aligned}$$

Example

- a) Calculate the speed of a wave which has a wavelength of 30 cm and a frequency of 250 Hz.
Notice that the wavelength is in centimetres, so you must convert it to metres.
 $30 \text{ cm} = 0.3 \text{ m}$
Now use the multiplication $0.3 \times 250 = 75 \text{ m/s}$
- b) Calculate the frequency of a wave with a wave speed of 1500 m/s and a wavelength of 7.5 m.
 $f = 1500 \div 7.5 = 200 \text{ Hz}$

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Calculations using standard form

Some of the calculations you need to do involve numbers in standard form. Standard form is a way of writing very large and very small numbers using powers of 10.

Powers of 10

Numbers like **one hundred**, **one thousand** or **one million** are often written as powers of 10.

Power of 10	Number in figures	Number in words
10^2	100	One hundred
10^3	1000	One thousand
10^6	1 000 000	One million
10^9	1 000 000 000	One billion

★ **Notice that the power of ten is equal to the number of zeros.**

Example: Write the number **one hundred thousand** as a power of 10. Write the number out in figures, and then count the zeros to get the power.

Negative powers of 10

Negative powers of 10 are **fractions**. Very small numbers such as **thousandths** are usually written as negative powers of 10, like this:

Power of 10	Number in figures as a fraction	Number in figures as a decimal	Number in words
10^{-1}	$\frac{1}{10}$	0.1	One tenth
10^{-2}	$\frac{1}{100}$	0.01	One hundredth
10^{-3}	$\frac{1}{1000}$	0.001	One thousandth
10^{-6}	$\frac{1}{1\,000\,000}$	0.000001	One millionth
10^{-9}	$\frac{1}{1\,000\,000\,000}$	0.000000001	One billionth

A number written in standard form is made up of:

- ★ A number between 1 and 10, e.g. 2.5 multiplied by
- ★ 10 to the power of something 10^n , where **n** means any number.

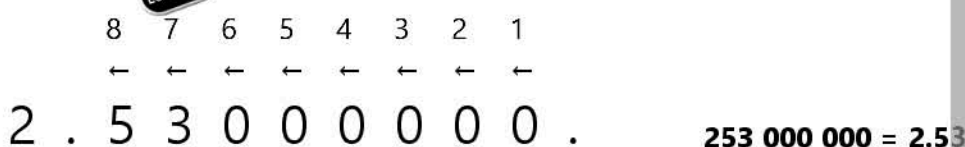
Very big numbers have positive powers of 10; very small numbers have negative powers of 10.

The power of 10 you use is how many places you need to move the decimal point to get the number between 1 and 10.

Example 1: Write 253 000 000 in standard form.

Use the digits you have before the zeros to first make a number between 1 and 10. Here the digits are 253, so the number is **2.53**.

Work out the power of 10 by counting how many places you have to move the decimal point to get from 253 000 000 to 2.53, like this:

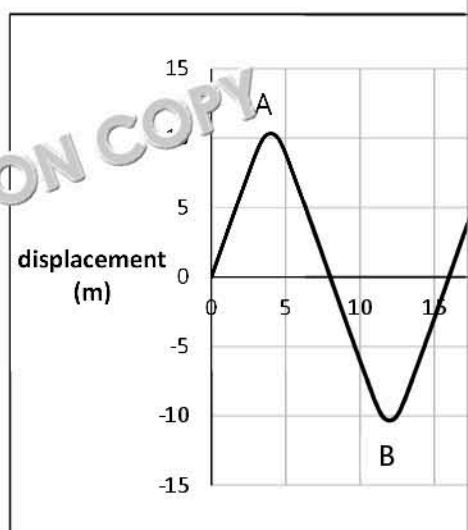


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Quick questions 1

The diagram shows the progress of a wave.



1. Name the points labelled A and B.
 2. What is the amplitude of this wave? State the units of your answer.
 3. What is the approximate wavelength of this wave? State the units of your answer.
4. a) What is meant by the frequency of a wave?
b) Write down the full name of the unit of frequency.
 5. 4500 waves pass a sensor in 1.5 minutes. Calculate the frequency of the wave.
 6. Calculate the speed of a wave which has a wavelength of 50 centimetres and a frequency of 10 Hz.
 7. The speed of light is 300 million metres per second. Write this value in standard form.
 8. Calculate the frequency of a wave which has a speed of 2.5×10^4 m/s and a wavelength of 5×10^{-2} m. Give your answer in standard form.



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F2: The electromagnetic spectrum

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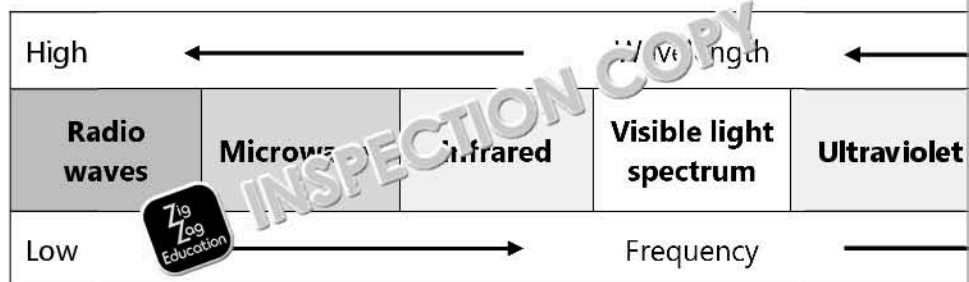
	Definitions
Electromagnetic waves	a group of transverse waves that transfer energy to an absorber,
Transverse waves	waves that oscillate up and down, at right angles to the direction of travel,
Vacuum	a space that contains nothing at all, not even air.
Genetic mutation	a change in the structure of the DNA in living cells.

Electromagnetic waves are members of a family of waves with common properties. The family is called the **electromagnetic spectrum**.

All electromagnetic waves:

- ★ transfer energy from one place to another
- ★ are **transverse waves**
- ★ can travel through matter, air or through a **vacuum**
- ★ travel at exactly the same speed in a vacuum, the speed of light, 300 000 000 m/s
- ★ can be reflected or refracted by different materials

There are seven types of wave in the electromagnetic spectrum, and they have different frequencies and wavelengths.



★ All the waves have the same speed, or velocity. Wave speed = frequency × wavelength

Therefore, waves with high frequency have shorter wavelengths, and lower frequency have longer wavelengths.

★ The higher the frequency of a wave, the more energy it carries.

High frequency, high energy waves can penetrate and damage human tissue.

★ Each of the seven types of wave in the spectrum has different uses, and different effects on living organisms.

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Visible light

Visible light waves are the only part of the electromagnetic spectrum that can be detected by the receptor cells of the human eye.

The white light we see is actually made up of all the colours of the rainbow, and each colour has a slightly different frequency and wavelength.

Infrared ←	Red	Orange	Yellow	Green	Blue	Indigo
------------	-----	--------	--------	-------	------	--------

- ★ Red light has the lowest frequency and the highest wavelength.
- ★ Violet light has the highest frequency and the lowest wavelength.

Uses of visible light

We use visible light for seeing, lighting, photography, and visual communication. Light emitted by lasers can be used to send Internet signals along optical fibres.

Hazards

Very bright light can damage the eyes. This can happen if you look directly at the sun.

Waves with a lower frequency and higher wavelength

Radio waves

Radio waves have the lowest frequency in the electromagnetic spectrum and can have waves which are hundreds of metres long.

Uses of radio waves

Radio waves are used for radio and TV broadcasts, satellite communications, mobile phones, radio-controlled toys, and police radios.

Hazards

No known harmful effects due to their low frequency.

Microwaves

Microwave ovens cook food quickly by causing the water particles in the food to vibrate, creating thermal energy, which is transferred throughout the food by conduction.

Uses of microwaves

In addition to cooking, microwaves are used for communication in mobile phones and laptop computers, and also for satellite communication and weather forecasting.

Hazards

Microwaves can heat body tissues. This is why microwave ovens are made so that they won't work if the door is open. The microwave radiation in mobile phones is at a low level and has no proven harmful effects.

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Infrared

Infrared radiation is felt as heat and is emitted by hot objects.

Uses of infrared radiation

- ★ Cooking and heating – grills, cooker elements, toasters, and heat lamps
- ★ Thermal imaging cameras and some security systems detect infrared radiation from animals.
- ★ TV remote controls and optical fibres for high-speed Internet communication

Hazards

Excessive exposure to infrared waves can burn the skin if you get too close.



Waves with a higher frequency and shorter wavelength

Ultraviolet (UV) light

Ultraviolet light is emitted by the Sun, but we can't see it. It has a higher frequency than visible light and can penetrate the cells at the surface of the skin and kill microorganisms such as bacteria.

Uses of ultraviolet light

- ★ We need UV light for the skin to produce vitamin D
- ★ Fluorescent lights and sunbeds
- ★ Sterilising water and surgical equipment
- ★ Detecting forged banknotes and passports

Hazards

Excessive exposure to UV radiation can damage the skin and eyes. It can damage DNA, producing harmful mutations which can lead to skin cancer.



X-rays

X-rays are high energy waves which can pass through human soft tissues, but are absorbed by bones.

Uses of X-rays

- ★ Detecting broken bones and dental problems
- ★ Sterilising medical equipment
- ★ Checking luggage at airports
- ★ Detecting broken pipes and other objects underground

Hazards

X-rays have high frequencies and can damage the DNA in cells, which can cause mutations. You should only have occasional X-rays, which is unlikely to cause a problem, but pregnant women are advised not to have them in case they cause genetic mutations in the developing foetus. Professionals who work with X-rays all the time use protective aprons and shields to prevent the X-rays from getting to them.



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Gamma rays

Gamma rays are emitted by radioactive atoms. They have a very high frequency.

Uses of gamma rays

- ★ Sterilising food and surgical equipment
- ★ Detecting cancer – the patient is given an injection of a radioactive substance. Areas of the body with more radioactivity than healthy cells and this can be detected by a scanner. This is used to find the location of the cancer.
- ★ Gamma rays can also be used to treat cancer if they are carefully targeted. This is called **radiotherapy**.

Hazards

Gamma rays damage the DNA in body cells, which can kill the cells or cause mutations. People who work with radioactive materials must wear protective clothing and are not to be exposed to gamma rays.

Quick questions 2

1. Write down the electromagnetic spectrum in order, starting with the lowest frequency.
2. Which colour of visible light has the highest frequency?
3. Explain why doctors recommend that people avoid spending too much time in the sun.
4. a) Give **one** way that X-rays are similar to radio waves.
b) State **two** differences between X-rays and radio waves.
5. Write down **two** ways that we use infrared radiation.
6. A radio station broadcasts at a frequency of 80 megahertz. Calculate the wavelength of the radio waves.

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Checklist – Waves and the electromagnetic spectrum

I can define the following characteristics of a wave: wavelength, amplitude, frequency

I can identify amplitude and wavelength on a diagram.

I can state the units for measuring wavelength, amplitude, frequency and wave speed

I can calculate frequency as $\frac{1}{\text{time in seconds}}$.

I can calculate wave speed using the formula $V = \lambda f$ and rearrange the formula to

I can make calculations using standard form.

I can explain what is meant by the electromagnetic spectrum.

I can name the seven groups of waves in the electromagnetic spectrum.

I can place waves in the electromagnetic spectrum in order of frequency and wavelength.

I can place colours in the visible spectrum in order of frequency and wavelength.

I can explain why there is an inverse relationship between frequency and wavelength in the electromagnetic spectrum.

I can describe the uses of each of the seven groups of waves in the electromagnetic spectrum.

I can identify the harmful effects of exposure to microwaves, infrared, ultraviolet

I can explain the safety precautions associated with these harmful effects.

I can compare different electromagnetic waves.

I can calculate the frequency and wavelength of electromagnetic waves.

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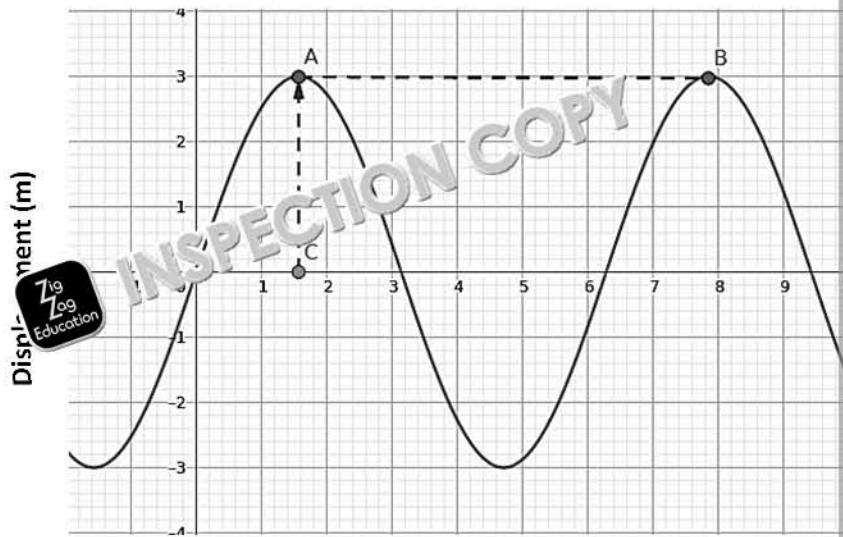




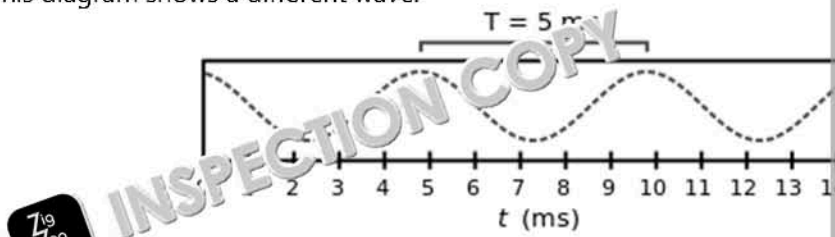
Exam-style questions

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1. The graph below shows a wave.



- a) Copy and complete these sentences:
 - (i) Point A on the graph is the of the wave.
 - (ii) Line AB shows the of the wave.
- b) What is the amplitude of this wave? Choose one option.
6 metres 6.2 metres 3 metres
- c) This diagram shows a different wave.



- The period is measured in milliseconds (ms). 1 millisecond = 0.001 second
- Calculate the frequency of this wave. Show your working and state the unit.
- d) This wave travels at a speed of 400 m/s. Calculate its wavelength.
Wave speed = wavelength \times frequency

2. The chart below shows the electromagnetic spectrum of waves:

Radio waves	Microwaves	Visible light	Ultraviolet
-------------	------------	-------	---------------	-------------

- a) Copy the table and fill in the missing waves.
- b) Which of these waves:
 - (i) has the highest frequency?
 - (ii) has the longest wavelength?
 - (iii) is used to detect smuggled goods at airports?
- c) Many people have microwave ovens in their homes for cooking food quickly. A microwave oven usually starts working when the door is closed. Explain.
- d) All electromagnetic waves travel at a speed of 300 million m/s.
A microwave has a wavelength of 5×10^{-2} m.
Wave speed = wavelength \times frequency
Calculate the frequency of this microwave. Give your answer in standard form.
- e) Sami's cat is hit by a car and breaks his leg. The vet gives the cat an X-ray. The vet wears a lead apron while she takes the X-ray. Explain why she does.

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Answers

A: Cells, organs and genes

Quick questions 1

- Any **three** from: nucleus, cytoplasm, cell membrane, mitochondria
- Plant cells have a cell wall, animal cells do not; plant cells have a permanent vacuole, animal cells do not; plant cells have chloroplasts, animal cells do not
- To fertilise an egg / to swim towards the egg
- cell, tissue, organ, organ system, organism

Quick questions 2

- Water and mineral ions / minerals / nutrients
- Evaporation of water vapour from the leaves
Note: the word *transpiration* refers to evaporation from the leaves. The passage of water through the plant is called the *transpiration stream*.
- Stomata
- Any **one** from: heat, wind, dry air, light

Quick question

- base, gene, chromosome
- The shape of the **double helix**.
The parts of the genetic code are
- A G C T**
- a) 46
- XY

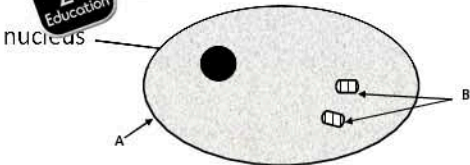
Quick question

- An allele that occurs in homozygous individuals
- a) **t**
- a) **Bb**
b) Jerome's mother must have a **bb**. Therefore Jerome must also have a **b** from her.
c)
Serena

b
b

d) $\frac{1}{2}$ / 50 %

Exam-style questions

- a)  [1]

- Any **four** from:
Water is absorbed by the roots (1)
Root hair cells provide a large surface area for maximum absorption (1)
Water is then transported up the stem to the leaves (1)
In xylem vessels (1)
Some of the water is used by the leaf cells for photosynthesis (1)
Some of the water evaporates from the leaves (1)
Through the stomata (1)
This causes more water to be drawn up from the roots (1)
To obtain full marks your answers must be in a logical order [4]

- a) hh [1] b) heterozygous (male) [1]
c) heterozygous parent

	H	h
Female parent	H	Hh
parent	h	Hh

Up to 4 marks for correct Punnett square

Both parents must be heterozygous/Hh (1)
Kitten A has genotype hh; she inherited a recessive allele from both parents (1)
Kitten B has short hair, so has inherited at least one dominant allele – could be Hh or HH (1)

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B: Homeostasis and communication

Quick questions 1

- Electrical signals / electrical impulses / nerve impulses
- Effectors
- Eating
- Blinking when some dust blows into your eye
- receptor → sensory neurone → relay neurone → motor neurone → effector
 - relay neurone

Quick questions 2

- Body temperature is monitored and controlled by the **thermoregulatory** centre.
- 37 °C is the best temperature for human enzymes / chemical reactions to work.
- When the sweat evaporates it absorbs heat energy from the skin.
- Any **three** from:
 - The person stops sweating, and that reduces heat loss from the skin.
 - Hairs stand up. This traps a layer of warm air next to the skin and reduces heat loss.
 - Blood vessels in the skin get narrower (vasoconstriction) so that less blood flows to the surface. More heat is kept inside.
 - Muscles shiver and release heat energy.

Quick questions 3

- A chemical that affects a target organ / a chemical messenger / a chemical signal
- Any **two** from:
 - Hormones take longer to have an effect than nerve impulses
 - The effects of hormones last for longer
 - Hormones are transported by blood; nerve impulses are carried along neurones
 - Your answer must include a comparison.
- | | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|---|
| Insulin | Pancreas | lowers blood sugar – converts glucose to glycogen |
| Glucagon | Pancreas | raises blood sugar – converts glycogen to glucose |
| Adrenaline | Adrenal glands | Prepares the body for action |
- Same. Her blood sugar level will rise after eating because glucose is absorbed from the gut. Her pancreas will produce insulin. Insulin removes glucose from the blood (by converting it to glycogen), so her blood glucose level will return to normal.

Exam-style questions

- Any **two** from:
 - Very fast response
 - Automatic/involuntary response
 - Does not involve thinking
 - Protects the body from harm/danger [2]
 - Heat/pain [1]
 - Arm muscle [1]
 - X = sensory neurone Y = relay neurone Z = motor neurone [1]
 - Chemicals (neurotransmitters) are released from the end of neurone X (1). They cross the synapse and are picked up by neurone Y (1) [2]
- His muscles are respiring and releasing heat (thermal energy) [1]
 - To obtain full marks you need to link statements – say what happens and why.
 - Sweating (1)
 - The sweat absorbs heat from the skin when it evaporates (1)
 - Heat is lost (1)
 - Sweat droplets evaporate more easily and heat can escape more easily (1)
 - Vasodilation / blood vessels in the skin get wider (1)
 - More blood flows to the surface of the skin where it can lose heat to the air (1)
 - Glucagon [1]
 - Pancreas [1]
 - It causes the liver to convert glycogen to glucose and release it into the blood [1]

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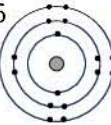
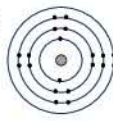
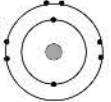
C: Atoms, elements and the periodic table

Quick questions 1

1. Protons and neutrons
2. They have a much smaller mass than protons **and** They are negatively charged
3. 6

Element	Number of protons	Number of neutrons	Number of electrons
Calcium	20	20	20
Hydrogen	1	0	1
Iron	26	30	26

Quick questions 2

1. Groups
 2. Sodium and chlorine
 3. 2
 4. Copper = Cu,
Iron = Fe,
Sodium = Na
 5. Period 2, group 5
6. a) Sulfur: 2.8.6
example  must have a total of 16 electrons
- b) Calcium: 2.8.8.2
example  must have a total of 20 electrons
- c) Oxygen: 2.6
example  must have a total of 8 electrons

Quick questions 3

1. Isotopes are different versions of the same **element**. They have the same number of **protons** but a different number of **neutrons** in their atoms.

2. a)

Isotope	Atomic number (Z)	Number of neutrons	Mass number (A)
magnesium-24	12	12	24
magnesium-25	12	13	25
magnesium-26	12	14	26

b) $(24 \times 79) + (25 \times 10) + (26 \times 11) = 24.32$
100

Exam-style questions

1. a) \blacktriangle and \spadesuit [1]
b) They are on the left of the periodic table [1]
c) \clubsuit and \diamond [1]
d) \spadesuit [1]
e) Any **two** from:
Electrons are much smaller than protons
Protons are in the nucleus, electrons are in shells
Protons have a positive charge; electrons have a negative charge [2]
2. a) Mass number \rightarrow 23, Atomic number \rightarrow 11 [1]
b) 12 (23 - 11) [1]
c) **Four** from:
19 protons in the nucleus
20 neutrons in the nucleus
19 electrons in shells
4 electron shells
Electronic configuration is 2.8.8.1 [4]
d) It is in period 4 (because it has four electron shells) (1)
It is group 1 (because it has one electron in the outer shell) (1) [2]
3. a) The mean/average number/sample
b) Some elements have a mass number of 79 (1) with the same number of protons but a different number of neutrons
c) $(50.7 \times 79) + (49.3 \times 81) = 78.9$
100

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D: Substances and chemical reactions

Quick questions 1

1.

Name of element	Chemical symbol
Sodium	Na
Copper	Cu
Carbon	C
Magnesium	Mg
Sulfur	S

2. N₂
3. a) element b) compound
c) compound d) mixture
e) compound
4. In a compound the atoms are chemically bonded together, in mixtures they are not.

5.

Name of element	Number of atoms
Hydrogen	2
Sulfur	1
Oxygen	4

6. a) Moderate hazard / irritant / harmful
b) Toxic / poison / can cause death or serious damage to health
c) Flammable

Quick questions 2

1.

Name of compound
Sodium hydroxide
Copper oxide
Nitric acid
Magnesium carbonate
Sulfuric acid

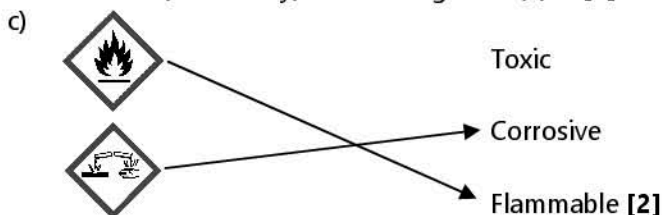
2. Any **two** from: pH less than 7 / turns litmus red / reacts with metals
3. Sodium hydroxide dissolved in water
4. 7
5. b) 5
6. nitric acid + copper oxide
7. hydrochloric acid + calcium carbonate

Quick questions 3

1. a) Sulfuric acid and zinc
b) Put a lighted splint over the mouth of the test tube. If hydrogen is present there will be a squeaky pop.
c) $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{Zn} \rightarrow \text{ZnSO}_4 + \text{H}_2$
2. a) A salt, water and carbon dioxide
b) hydrochloric acid + calcium chloride → calcium chloride + water + hydrogen chloride
c) $2\text{HCl} + \text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 \rightarrow 2\text{NaCl} + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$

Exam-style questions

1. a) (i) B (ii) B (iii) C (1 mark each) [3]
b) Two or more elements (1) that are (chemically) bonded together (1) [2]



2. a) (i) HCl [1] (ii) Orange/red [1]
b) (i) Green [1]
(ii) Any **two** from:
Has a pH of more than 7
Turns universal indicator blue/purple
Turns red litmus blue
Dissolves in water [2]
c) (i) sodium chloride / sodium sulfate (either order) [2]
(ii) neutralising / neutralising [1]
(iii) indigestion/heartburn is caused by (excess) stomach acid (1)
magnesium hydroxide reacts with the acid and neutralises it (1) [2]
3. a) (i) Carbon dioxide / CO₂ [1]
(ii) Collect the gas and bubble it through lime water (1)
If CO₂ is present the lime water will turn cloudy/white (1) [2]
- b) $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 + 2\text{HNO}_3 \rightarrow 2\text{NaNO}_3 + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
(1) (1) (1) (1) [4]

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E: Energy and how we use it

Quick questions 1

1. a) thermal/heat (and light) b) mechanical/kinetic and sound (and heat)
2. Mechanical and chemical energy
3. Chemical energy
4. Making nuclear weapons and generating electricity, also medical applications diagnostic imaging and cancer treatment
5. a) Gravitational potential energy b) Kinetic energy c) Elastic potential energy


Quick questions 2

1. Energy cannot be created or destroyed, only transferred / energy input = energy output
2. chemical energy → kinetic energy
3. chemical energy → electrical energy → light energy
4. a) Light, sound, and thermal/heat energy b) Thermal/heat energy
5. a) $400 - 250 = 150$ joules/J b) $(250 \div 400) \times 100 = 62.5\%$
6. a) The wax will melt and the ball will fall off b) Conduction
7. $750 \div 5 = 150$ watts
8. a) kilowatt-hours / kWh b) $1.6 \times 0.5 \times 30 = 24$ kWh

Quick questions 3

1. Energy sources that can be easily replaced / can be replaced in a human lifetime
2. a) renewable b) non-renewable c) non-renewable
3. Any **two** from: coal, oil, (natural) gas
4. a) It is reliable / currently easy to obtain
b) Any **two** from: produces carbon dioxide / linked to global warming / contributes to global warming / produces sulfur dioxide / causes acid rain; produces smoke / air pollution
c) Non-renewable / it will run out

Exam-style questions

1. a) Kinetic/mechanical energy [1]
b) Sound energy [1]
The (heat) energy (1) [2]
c) 
d) $60 = \frac{120}{100} \times 100$ energy input = $(100 \div 60) \times 120 = 200$
total energy input
2. a) The amount of energy transferred (1) in 1 second / per second / in a specific time [1]
b) $1800 \times 60 \times 60 = 6\,480\,000 \text{ J} = 6.48 \text{ MJ}$ [2]
c) $1800 \text{ W} = 1.8 \text{ kWh}$ 1 week = 7 days
 $28 \text{ p} \times 1.8 \text{ kWh} \times 6 \text{ hours} \times 7 \text{ days} = 2116.9 \text{ p} = 2117 \text{ p}$ [3]
d) Convection [1]
3. a) Can be replaced / can be easily replaced / does not run out [1]
b) Solar / Sunlight / Waves / Tides / Hydroelectric power / Geothermal / Biomass [1]
c) Any four from the list below must have at least one advantage and at least one disadvantage [4]
Advantages –
Does not produce CO₂ / does not contribute to climate change
Does not produce sulfur dioxide / does not contribute to acid rain
Sustainable – will not run out
Helps to conserve fossil fuel supplies
Disadvantages – Not always reliable, because there needs to be enough wind / waves / tides
High start-up costs
Wind turbines are noisy / ugly to look at
Wind turbines can kill/harm birds [4]

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F: Waves and the electromagnetic spectrum

Quick questions 1

1. A = crest/peak B = trough
2. 10 metres/m
3. 16 metres/m (any answer between 15 and 17 metres is acceptable)
4. a) The number of waves that pass a point every second / waves per second
b) Hertz
5. 4500 waves ÷ 90 seconds = 50
6. $0.5 \text{ m} \times 10 \text{ Hz} = 5 \text{ metres per second} / \text{m/s}$
7. $3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$
8. $2.5 \times 10^8 \times 10^{-2} = 5 \times 10^5 \text{ Hz}$

Quick questions 2

1. Gamma rays, X-rays, Ultraviolet, Visible light, Infrared, Microwaves, Radio waves
2. Violet
3. Sunlight contains ultraviolet radiation, which can cause skin cancer
4. a) Any **one** from: both travel at the speed of light (300 000 000 m/s) / same speed / both electromagnetic waves / both transverse waves
b) Any **two** from: X-rays have higher frequency / X-rays have lower wavelength / X-rays have higher frequency / radio waves have longer wavelength / radio waves have no harmful effects / radio waves do not damage body cells / radio waves are used for communication, X-rays are used for medical detection
5. Any **two** from: cooking, thermal imaging, optical fibres, television remote control
6. 80 megahertz = 80 000 000 Hz, speed = 300 000 000 m/s
Wavelength = $300\,000\,000 \div 80\,000\,000 = 3.75 \text{ m}$

Exam-style questions

1. a) (i) crest/peak (1) (ii) wavelength (1) [2]
b) 3 metres [1]
c) $T = 5 \text{ s}$, period $f = 1/T = 200$ (1) hertz/Hz (1) [2]
d) 400×10^3 (1) = 2 (m) (1) [2]
2. a) [2]

Radio waves	Microwaves	Infrared (1)	Visible light	Ultra-violet

 b) (i) Gamma rays [1] (ii) Radio waves [1] (iii) X-rays [1]
 c) A microwave oven can heat up the water inside human cells (1) and this causes chemical reactions in cells (1) [2]
 d) Frequency = wave speed ÷ wavelength (1)
 $300 \text{ million} = 3 \times 10^8$ (1)
 $3 \times 10^8 \div 5 \times 10^{-2} = 6 \times 10^9$ (1) Hz (1)
 Or $3 \div 5 \times 10^{8-(-2)} = 0.6 \times 10^{10} = 6 \times 10^9 \text{ Hz}$ [4]
 6 000 000 000 Hz or 6000 MHz gains 3 marks
 e) X-rays can penetrate human tissue (because they have high frequency / high energy) and can damage the DNA inside cells / cause genetic mutations / cause cancer

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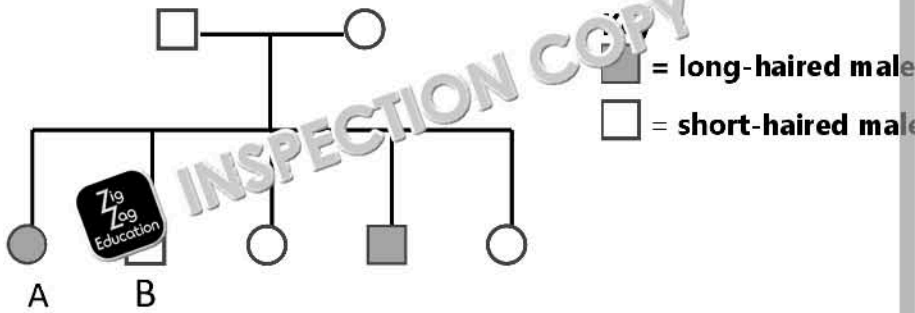


3. Cats can be long-haired or short-haired.

The allele for short hair, **H**, is dominant. The allele for long hair, **h**, is recessive.

Figure 3 shows a pedigree diagram for two cats and their kittens.

Figure 3



- What is the genotype of kitten A?
- Write down the phenotype of kitten B.
- Explain how coat length is inherited by kittens A and B. Use a Punnett square.

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Exam-style questions:

Chapter B: Homeostasis and commu

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1. a) What is a **reflex** action?

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Yasmin is in the kitchen. She accidentally touches a hot pan. She immediately

b) What is the **stimulus**?

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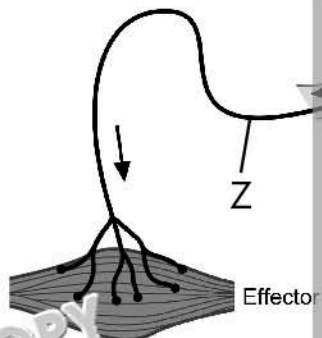
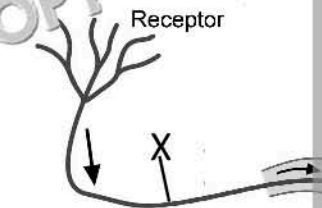
c) Which body part makes the **response**?

.....

Figure 1 shows what is happening in Yasmin's nervous system.

d) Name the structures labelled X, Y and Z.

- X
- Y
- Z



e) Between X and Y there is a **synapse**, called a synapse. Explain how the n

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2. Ali is playing in a football match.
As he runs for the ball, his body temperature increases.

a) Why does Ali's body temperature increase?

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b) Explain how Ali's body responds to prevent his temperature from getting

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c) During the match, Ali's blood sugar level starts to fall. A hormone is released to raise it.

(i) What is the name of the hormone?

(ii) Which gland releases this hormone?

(iii) How does it raise Ali's blood sugar?

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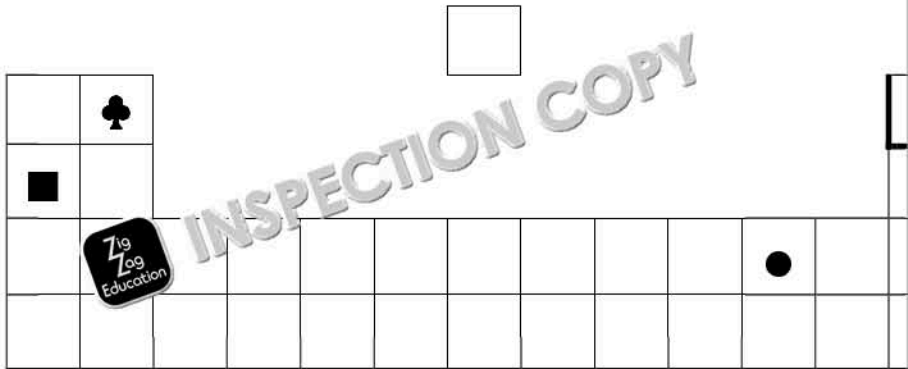
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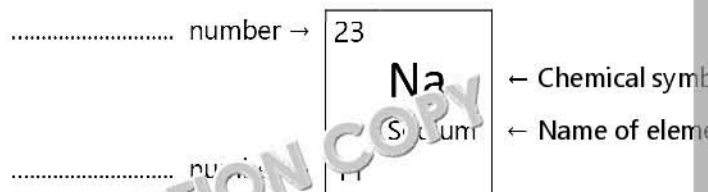
Exam-style questions: Chapter C: Atoms, elements and the periodic table

1. The diagram below shows part of the periodic table. The symbols represent elements.



- a) Which **two** elements are both metals?
- ♠ and ♣ ♠ and ♠ ♠ and ♦
- b) Give a reason for your choice.
-
-
- c) Which **two** elements are in the same **period**?
- ♠ and ♣ ● and ♠ ♣ and ♦
- d) Which of these elements has the **most** number of **electrons**?
- ♠ ♦ ♠
- e) Write **two** differences between an electron and a proton.
-
-
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2. The entry in the periodic table for the element sodium is shown below.



- a) Fill in the spaces to complete the entry.
- b) How many **neutrons** does a sodium atom contain?

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This is the entry for potassium.

39	K
19	Potassium

c) Describe the atomic structure of potassium, including its electronic configuration.

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d) Describe the position of potassium in the periodic table.

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3. Part of the periodic table is shown below.

56	59	59	63.5	65
Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn
iron	cobalt	nickel	copper	zinc
26	27	28	29	30

Key

← relative atomic mass

← symbol

← name

← atomic number

a) Explain why the relative atomic mass of nickel is not a whole number.

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b) Explain why the relative atomic mass of copper is not a whole number.

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c) The element bromine (Br) has the atomic number 35. 50.7 % of bromine atoms have mass number 79, the rest have mass number 81. Calculate the relative atomic mass of bromine. Give your answer to two significant figures.

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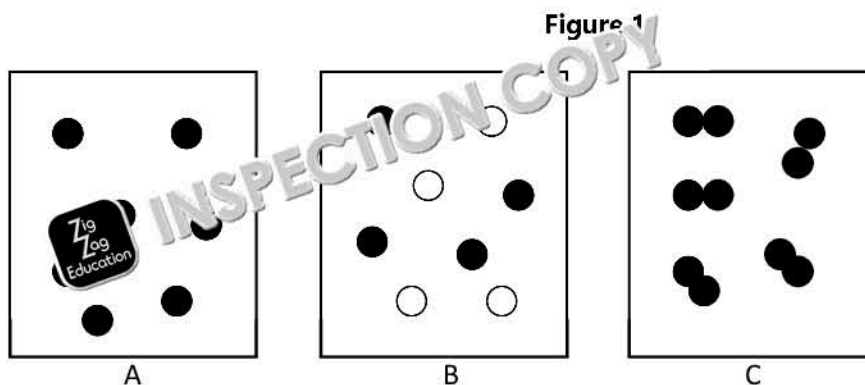
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Exam-style questions: Chapter D: Substances and chemical

1. a) Figure 1 shows four substances, labelled A, B, C and D.



Which of these substances:

- (i) is a compound?
- (ii) is a mixture?
- (iii) could be oxygen?
- b) Explain what is meant by the term **compound**.

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- c) Some chemical substances carry hazard warning labels.
Draw straight lines to match these symbols to the hazards they represent.

Toxic

Corrosive

Flammable

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2. a) Yasmin adds hydrochloric acid to universal indicator solution in a test tube

- (i) What is the chemical formula for hydrochloric acid?
- (ii) What colour will the indicator be after adding the acid?
 - Orange/red
 - Yellow/green
 - Green/blue

b) Yasmin then adds an equal amount of sodium hydroxide to the test tube.

- (i) What is the most likely colour of the indicator after adding the sodium hydroxide?
 - Blue
 - Red
 - Yellow

(ii) Sodium hydroxide is an **alkali**. Write down **two** chemical properties

.....

c) An acid will react with an alkali to form two new compounds.

- (i) Complete this word equation to show the products that are formed when hydrochloric acid and sodium hydroxide react together.

Hydrochloric acid + sodium hydroxide → +

- (ii) Complete the sentence:

The chemical reaction between an acid and a base is called

- (iii) Bases such as magnesium hydroxide are often used to treat indigestion. Explain how this treatment works.

.....

3. a) Zak mixes dilute nitric acid with sodium carbonate in a flask. A gas is produced.

- (i) What is the name of the gas?
- (ii) How would you test this gas to confirm its identity?

.....

b) The chemical formula for sodium carbonate is Na_2CO_3 . The formula for sodium nitrate is NaNO_3 . Write a balanced chemical equation for the reaction between sodium carbonate and nitric acid.

..... + → + +

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Exam-style questions:

Chapter E: Energy and how we use it

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1. The illustration below shows a food mixer. The motor turns the whisks to mix

a) Name the type of useful energy transferred by the motor.

.....
[1]

b) Give **two** forms of waste energy produced by the motor.

1.
2.
[2]

c) Complete the Sankey diagram below for this food mixer:



d) The energy efficiency of this mixer is 60%. It produces 120 J of useful energy to mix pancake batter.

Calculate the total energy input to the mixer.

$$\text{Energy efficiency} = \frac{\text{useful energy output}}{\text{total energy input}} \times 100$$

Show your working.

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2. Mrs Okambo has an electric fire in her living room.

The power of the fire is 1800 watts.

a) Explain what is meant by the **power** of an appliance.

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b) How much energy does this fire use in one hour? Show your working.

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c) Electricity costs 28 p per kilowatt hour (kWh).
Calculate the cost of running the fire for six hours every day for one week.
Show your working, and give your answer in pence to the nearest whole pence.

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d) The electric fire heats the whole room by (select **one**):
 Conduction Convection Radiation

3. Electricity can be generated using renewable or non-renewable sources of energy.
Wind power is a renewable energy source.

a) Explain what is meant by a renewable source of energy.

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b) Give **one** other example of a renewable energy source.

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c) Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of generating electricity from burning fossil fuels.

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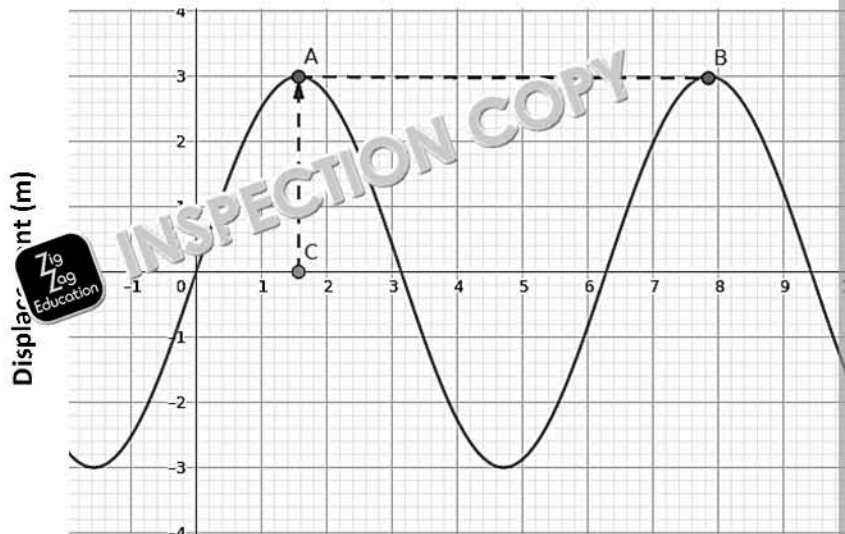




Exam-style questions: Chapter F: Waves and the electromagne

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1. The graph below shows a wave.

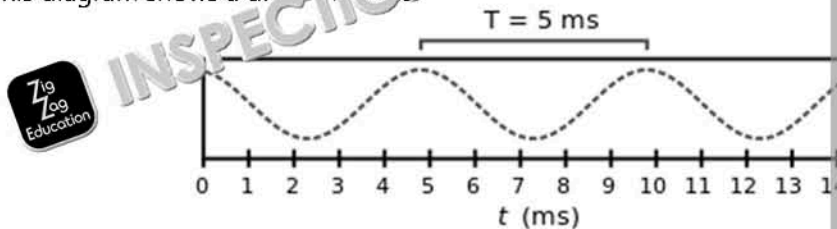


- a) Complete these sentences:
- (i) Point A on the graph is the of the wave.
 - (ii) Line AB shows the of the wave.

b) What is the amplitude of this wave?

- 6 metres 6.2 metres 3 metres

c) This diagram shows a different wave.



The time is measured in milliseconds (ms). 1 millisecond = 0.001 second
Calculate the frequency of this wave. Show your working and state the unit.

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d) This wave travels at a speed of 400 m/s. Calculate its wavelength.
Wave speed = wavelength \times frequency

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2. The chart below shows the electromagnetic spectrum of waves:

Radio waves	Microwaves	Visible light	Ultraviolet
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a) Fill in the missing waves.

b) Which of these waves

(i) has the highest frequency?

(ii) has the longest wavelength?

(iii) is used to detect smuggled goods at airports?

c) Many people have microwave ovens in their homes for cooking food quickly. A microwave oven will only start working when the door is closed. Explain

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d) All electromagnetic waves travel at a speed of 300 million m/s.

A typical microwave has a wavelength of 5×10^{-2} m.

Wave speed = wavelength \times frequency

Calculate the frequency of this microwave. Give your answer in standard

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e) Sami's cat is hit by a car and breaks its leg. The vet gives the cat an X-ray. The vet wears a lead apron when she takes the X-ray. Explain why she does

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