

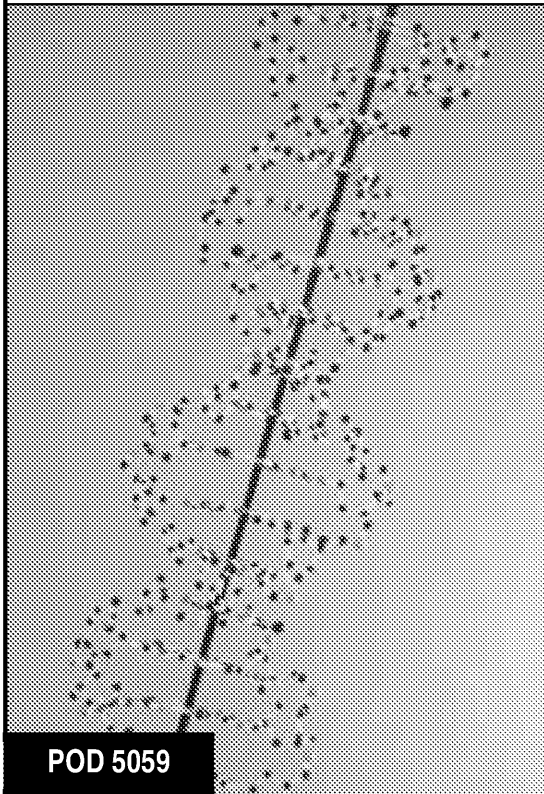
Teaching Pack

For BTEC First Award in Applied Science
Unit 1: Principles of Science

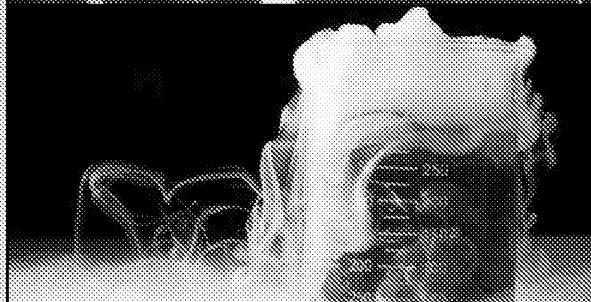
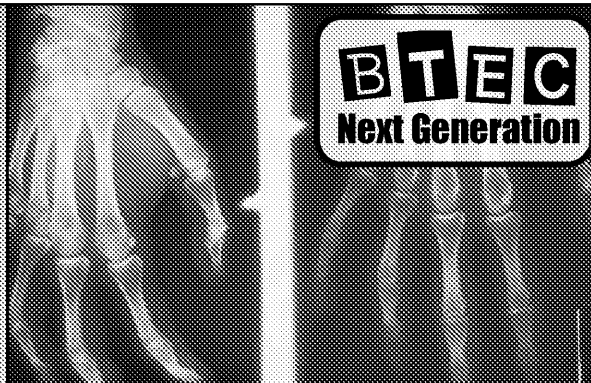
2nd Edition, January 2013



endorsed by
edexcel 



POD 5059



science@zigzageducation.co.uk
zigzageducation.co.uk

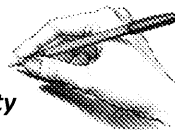
ZigZag is a large community of over 6000 teachers & educationalists.
Review new titles or publish your own work

Fancy being involved?

Then register at...

publishmenow.co.uk

The Professional Publishing Community



Alternatively email new resource ideas directly to...

publishmenow@zigzageducation.co.uk

Contents

INSPECTION COPY

Thank You for Choosing ZigZag Education.....	
Teacher Feedback Opportunity	
Terms and Conditions of Use.....	
Teacher’s Introduction.....	
Suggested Scheme of Work.....	
Lesson Plan 1 – The Structure, Functions and Adaptations of Eukaryotes.....	
Exam-Style Questions – Eukaryotic Cells.....	
Lesson Plan 2 – Cells, Tissues, Organs, Organ Systems and Transpiration.....	
Exam-Style Questions – Cells, Tissues, Organs and Transpiration.....	
Lesson Plan 3 – DNA, Chromosomes and Genes.....	
Exam-Style Questions – DNA, Chromosomes and Genes	
Lesson Plan 4 – Inheritance and Genetic Diagrams.....	
Exam-Style Questions – Inheritance and Genetic Diagrams.....	
Lesson Plan 5 – Pedigree Analysis and Genetic Mutations.....	
Exam-Style Questions – Pedigree Analysis	
Exam-Style Questions – Genetic Mutations.....	
Lesson Plan 6 – Homeostasis, the Nervous System and the Endocrine System.....	
Exam-Style Questions – Homeostasis	
Lesson Plan 7 – Blood Glucose and Body Temperature Regulation.....	
Exam-Style Questions – Blood Glucose and Body Temperature Regulation.....	
Lesson Plan 8 – Atomic Structure and the Periodic Table.....	
Exam-Style Questions – Atomic Structure and The Periodic Table.....	
Lesson Plan 9 – Chemical Substances, Reactions and Equations.....	
Exam-Style Questions – Chemical Substances, Reactions and Equations.....	
Lesson Plan 10 – Hazard Symbols and Neutralisation Reactions.....	
Exam-Style Questions – Hazard Symbols and Neutralisation Reactions.....	
Lesson Plan 11 – Exploring Chemical Reactions	
Exam-Style Questions – Exploring Chemical Reactions.....	
Lesson Plan 12 – pH and Universal Indicator	
Exam-Style Questions – pH and Universal Indicator	
Lesson Plan 13 – Energy Forms and Energy Stores	
Exam-Style Questions – Energy Forms and Energy Stores	
Lesson Plan 14 – Energy Transformations and Transfers.....	
Exam-Style Questions – Energy Transformations and Transfers.....	
Lesson Plan 15 – Power and Efficiency.....	
Exam-Style Questions – Power and Efficiency.....	
Lesson Plan 16 – Sources and Stores of Energy	
Exam-Style Questions – Sources and Stores of Energy.....	
Lesson Plan 17 – The Electromagnetic Spectrum	
Exam-Style Questions – The Electromagnetic Spectrum.....	
Answers to Exam-Style Questions	

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Thank You

for choosing ZigZag Education

Talk to Us!

Love it as it is?

Let the author and other teachers know what you think

Got a suggestion?

If your improvement leads to an update we will send you a new copy for free

Found a problem?

We will fix it and send you a free updated copy



We ♥ your feedback – let us know what you think using the feedback sheet on the back of the book
→ £10 ZigZag Voucher for details

For more resources go to zigzag.education
– where you can preview every page before you buy

ZigZag is a large community of over 6000 teachers & education professionals
Review new titles or publish your own work

Fancy being involved?

Then register at...

publishmenow.co.uk

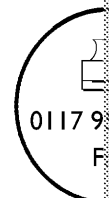
The Professional Publishing Community

Alternatively email new resource ideas directly to
publishmenow@zigzageducation.co.uk

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



ZigZag Education
Unit 3, Greenway Business Centre
Doncaster Road
Bristol
BS10 5PY



Teacher Feedback Opportunity

£10 ZigZag Voucher for detailed & complete review
Use for problems/areas for improvement/positive feedback

Resource ID & name	5059 Teaching Pack for BTEC First Award in Applied Science Unit 1 (Second Edition)	Your Name
School Name		Position

Overall, what did you think about this resource? _____

I particularly like this resource because... _____

How does it help you or your students? _____

It is better than some other resources because... _____

What might you say to a colleague in a neighbouring school to persuade them to use it? _____

How well does it match your specification (& which specification is this)? _____

Other comments, suggestions for improvements, errors found (please give page numbers) _____

Resources I would like published:

Resources I might write, or have written, for consideration for publication:

Fax: 0117 959 1695

Email: feedback@ZigZagEducation.co.uk

Post: ZigZag Education, Unit 3, Greenway Business Centre, Doncaster Road, Br...

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



endorsed by
edexcel

In order to ensure that this resource offers high quality support for the associated BTEC qualification, it has been reviewed through a review process by the awarding organisation to confirm that it fully covers the specification or part of a specification at which it is aimed, and demonstrates an appropriate development of subject skills, knowledge and understanding, in addition to preparatory work.

While the publishers have made every attempt to ensure that advice on the qualification, the official specification and associated assessment guidance materials are the only materials that should always be referred to for definitive guidance.

BTEC/Edexcel examiners have not contributed to any sections in this resource relevant to the qualification; they have responsibility.

No material from an endorsed resource will be used verbatim in any assessment set by the awarding organisation.

Endorsement of a resource does not mean that the resource is required to achieve this qualification, nor does it mean that it is the only suitable material available to support the qualification, and an awarding organisation shall include this and other appropriate resources.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Terms and Conditions of Use

Terms and Conditions

Please note that the **Terms and Conditions** of this resource include point 5.8, v

“You acknowledge that you rely on your own skill and judgment in determining the suitability of the Goods for any particular purpose.”

“We do not warrant: that any of the Goods are suitable for any particular purpose (or any particular qualification), or the results that may be obtained from the use of any publication or that we are affiliated with any educational institution, or that any publication is published with, sponsored by or endorsed by any educational institution.”

Copyright Information

Every effort is made to ensure that the information provided in this publication is accurate. No responsibility is accepted for any errors, omissions or misleading statements. It is Zig Zag Education's permission for any copyright material in their publications. The publishers will be grateful to any copyright holders whom it has not been possible to contact.

Students and teachers may not use any material or content contained herein and incur liability without referencing/acknowledging the source of the material (“Plagiarism”).

This resource also contains public sector information published by the Health and Safety Commission under the Open Government Licence v1.0 (International hazard symbols on pages 62, 65, 66)

The following images are reproduced with kind thanks to Chris Evans (www.btinternet.com)

- Guard cells – page 8
- Electrical transfer in metals – page 89

The following images are licensed under **Creative Commons Attribution ShareAlike**

- Oldbury Power Station, by David Bowd-Exworth – page 105

You are free to Share (to copy, distribute and transmit the work) and to Remix (to adapt the work) under the following conditions:

- Attribution. You must attribute the work in the manner specified by the author or publisher, or in any manner that they suggest that they endorse you or your use of the work).
- Share Alike. If you alter, transform, or build upon this work, you may distribute the resulting work only under the same or similar license to this one.
- For any reuse or distribution, you must make clear to others the license terms of this work, with a link to the web page below.
- Any of the above conditions can be waived if you get permission from the copyright holder.
- Nothing in this license impairs or restricts the author's moral rights.

The full terms and conditions under which the following images are reproduced can be found at:

• <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/2.0/>

The following images are licensed under **Creative Commons Attribution ShareAlike**

- Fibre optic cable, by BigRiz – page 112

You are free to Share (to copy, distribute and transmit the work) and to Remix (to adapt the work) under the following conditions:

- Attribution. You must attribute the work in the manner specified by the author or publisher, or in any manner that they suggest that they endorse you or your use of the work).
- Share Alike. If you alter, transform, or build upon this work, you may distribute the resulting work only under the same or similar license to this one.
- For any reuse or distribution, you must make clear to others the license terms of this work, with a link to the web page below.
- Any of the above conditions can be waived if you get permission from the copyright holder.
- Nothing in this license impairs or restricts the author's moral rights.

The full terms and conditions under which the following images are reproduced can be found at:

• <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/3.0/>

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Disclaimers

This publication is designed to supplement teaching only. Practice questions may be specification and may also attempt to prepare students for the type of questions they will not attempt to predict future examination questions. ZigZag Education do not guarantee that any results that may be obtained from the use of this publication, or as to the accuracy, reliability

Where the teacher uses any of the material from this resource to support examination ensure that they are happy with the level of information and support provided pertains to the constraints of the specification and to others involved in the delivery of the that the teacher adapt, extend and/or censor any parts of the contained material to suit specification and the needs of the individual or group concerned. As such, the teacher material, if any, to provide to the students and which parts to use as background information the teacher must determine what additional material is required to cover all points of specification point to the correct depth.

Different teachers, Heads of Departments and Moderators have different personal views support to provide an individual or group for a given specification and when to provide modules require different levels of support or differing amounts of information to be information or support to be given to a student above a certain level. For very high level may be appropriate or a required feature of the module.

Where the teacher uses any of the material from this resource to support coursework then the teacher must ensure that they are happy with the level of information and support personal point of view and to the constraints of the specification and to others involved in delivery of the course. It is considered essential that the teacher adapt, extend and/or material to suit their needs, the needs of the specification, the needs of moderators and group concerned. As such, the teacher must determine which parts of the material, if which parts to use as background information for themselves.

In this matter they should also determine the nature of information or support provided medium and style of support. So specifically, they should determine which information which, if any, to provide in written format. Similarly, if the style of the support is inappropriate support itself is appropriate then the material should be so adjusted to achieve this end contained material appears to overly direct the student, which may result in a downward the teacher should remove or adapt this material to avoid this unless it is the teacher's certain level within the project.

In summary, it is intended that these materials be used appropriately and at the teacher's teacher take into consideration the ability of the individual or group. It is the teacher's suitability of coursework/project publications and to decide which pages, if any, to highlight

ZigZag Education is not affiliated with DCSF, Pearson, Edexcel, OCR, AQA, WJEC or publication authorised by, associated with, sponsored by or endorsed by these institutions front cover of this publication.

Links to other websites, and contextual links are provided where appropriate in ZigZag Education is not responsible for information on sites that it does not manage, nor can that the content contained in the sites is accurate, legal and inoffensive, nor should a hyperlink be taken to mean endorsement by ZigZag Education of the site to which it users are directed to via the convenient zigzag.at short URLs.

Safety in the classroom

It is the teacher's responsibility to ensure the safety of their students in the classroom instructions carefully and are confident in your own knowledge before carrying out demonstrations suggested in this resource. If you are unsure about anything, seek advice experiments in the classroom.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Teacher's Introduction

This unit is taught over 30 guided learning hours (GLH). Teachers will have to balance between teaching and exam practise – this scheme of work suggests 17 teacher-taught hours and 13 lessons for exam practise and catch-up time for lessons or need extra support. 'Did you know' boxes are included to give extra information about the topic – they do not need to know this information for the exam.

This pack contains the following materials:

1. A single-page overview scheme of work
2. 17 lesson plans
3. Notes for each lessons covering all the learning aims between them
4. Exam-Style questions in non-write-on and write-on formats to reinforce learning

This resource is designed to be flexible in the following ways:

- For each lesson there is a lesson plan followed by student notes and questions. The questions are repeated provided in write-on format. You could use the material in a number of ways:
 1. Use the notes to support your classroom teaching and then hand out the questions or the write-on questions at the end of the lesson (possibly for revision).
 2. Use the notes to supplement your own notes or the textbook and use the lesson as a summary with the questions so students can complete the notes as support.
 3. Just use the questions (either write-on or non-write-on as appropriate) and subsequently hand out the notes at revision time.

Also available from ZigZag Education

Activity Pack

Worksheet-style activities, starter and plenaries matched to the new BTEC specification to supplement this pack and the textbook and give more variety and different approaches.

Practical sheets:

- Teacher sheets for all the suggested practicals and demonstrations for this unit.
- Student method sheets for all the practical experiments outlined in this scheme of work with observation grids.
- Health and safety guidance for demos and practicals.

For more information please visit:

www.zigzag.at/bteccactivities

Also available from

Practicals

Give students the opportunity to practise the new BTEC specification

Three practical sheets matched to the new BTEC specification. Assessment for learning activities.

Contact your ZigZag Education representative for more information.

For more information please visit: www.zigzag.at

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Free updates




Register your email address to receive any future free updates made to this resource or other Science resources you've purchased, and details of any promotions for your school.

Go to zigzag.at/freeupdates

* resulting from minor specification changes, suggestions from teachers and peer reviews, or occasional errors reported by customers

Suggested Scheme of Work

	GLH/LP	Learning Aim	
Biology	1	A.1 & A.2	The structure, function and ada
	2	A.3, A.4 & A.5	Cells, tissues, organs, organ sys
	3	A.6, A.7 & A.8	DNA, chromosomes and genes
	4	A.9, A.11 & A.12	Inheritance and genetic diagra
	5	A.10, A.11 & A.13	Pedigree analysis and genetic n
	6	B.1–B.7	Homeostasis, the nervous syste
	7	B.8 & B.9	Blood glucose and body temper
Chemistry	8	C	Atomic structure and the perio
	9	D.1–D.5 & D.14	Chemical substances, reactions
	10	D.3–4, D.6–D.7 & D.12–14	Hazard symbols and neutralisa
	11	D.3, D.4, D.8, D.10 & D.14	Exploring chemical reactions
	12	D.11 & D.14	pH and Universal indicator
Physics	13	E.1 & E.2	Energy forms and energy store
	14	E.3 & E.4	Energy transformations and tra
	15	E.4 & E.5	Power and efficiency
	16	E.6	Sources of energy
	17	F	The electromagnetic spectrum
	18–30	<i>*Opportunity for catch-up and exam practise</i>	

Lesson Plan Key	
	content provided in teaching notes
	suggested class practical
	suggested teacher demonstration

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 1 – The Structure, Functions and Eukaryotic Cells

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:

The basic structure, function and adaptations of the following eukaryotic

- motor and sensory neurones
- red blood cells
- white blood cells
- egg cells
- sperm cells
- root hair cells
- xylem and phloem
- guard cells

The function of the following components of eukaryotic cells:






- nucleus: contains genetic information that controls the activities of the cell.
- cytoplasm: where most chemical reactions take place.
- cell membrane: allows entry and exit of substances.
- chloroplasts: the site of photosynthesis.
- cell wall: provides structural support for the cell.
- vacuole: contains cell sap and provides support for the cell.
- mitochondria: the site of aerobic respiration.

Key words: eukaryotic cells, cell function and structure, specialised cells, cell organelles

Starter

Ask pupils what a cell is and what they could find in it.

Main

1. Elicit answers.
2.  Explain the difference between a prokaryotic cell and a eukaryotic cell.
3.  Explain the function of the nucleus, cell membrane, cytoplasm, chloroplasts and mitochondria.
4.  Explain the functions and adaptations of: a. motor and sensory neurones (role play – arrange the class in a line, give the first pupil a message and pass the message along. Compare the two messages.) b. red blood cells, c. white blood cells, d. egg cells, e. sperm cells, f. root hair cells, g. xylem and phloem cells, h. guard cells (use two long balloons with tape on one side).
5.  Answer Questions 1–6 from the pack.
6. Go through the answers.
7.  Preparation of onion cell slide. Cut onions into 2 cm slices. Snap to open and peel back the membrane. Place on a slide and add a few drops of iodine solution. View under a microscope and draw the image.
8. Discuss the results. Draw and label pictures.

Plenary

On large sheets of paper write all the types of cell and organelle studied (or draw them) and stick them to the walls around the classroom. Gather the class in the middle of the room and ask them to identify the function of any cell or organelle and pupils need to move to stand next to the correct one. This can be adapted if facilities allow by taking the plenary to a competitive edge, i.e. last person to the correct sign is out. Winner gets a prize.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



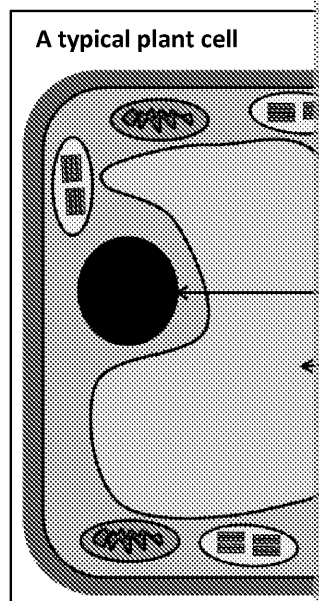
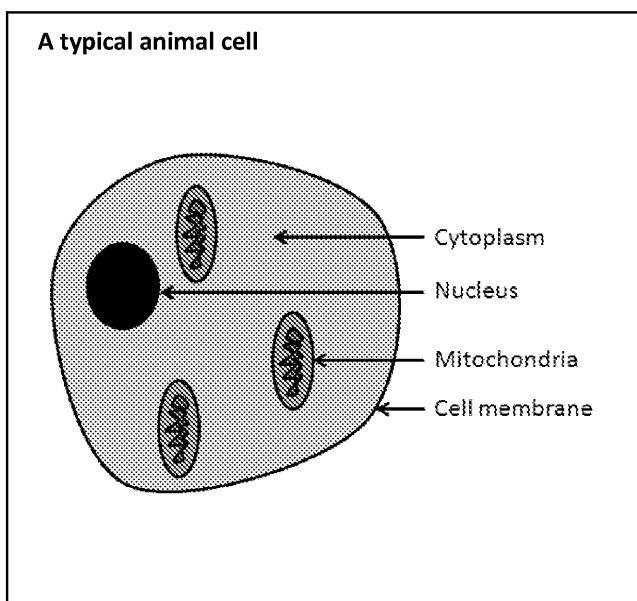
Eukaryotic Cells

Eukaryotic cells are one of two main types of cells, the other being prokaryotic cells which have a true nucleus, such as animal and plant cells. Prokaryotic cells are things such as bacterial cells. Cells are the basic unit of life; some organisms such as amoebae (made up of just one cell), and other organisms such as you are multicellular (made up of many things are made up of cells which are typically around 10–100 μm ($1 \mu\text{m} = 0.001 \text{m}$)).

Cell Function and Structure

Cells themselves are made up of components called organelles. There are three organelles found in nearly all cells; they are a nucleus, a cell membrane and cytoplasm. However, not all cells means they have adaptations that make them better for their job.

Organelle	Function
Nucleus	Contains the genetic information (e.g. DNA) and controls the cells activities
Cell Membrane	Partially permeable layer which surrounds the cell and controls which substances enter and leave the cell
Cytoplasm	The location where most of the cells' vital chemical reactions occur
Chloroplast	Contains chlorophyll, where photosynthesis (plants' way of making food through light) occurs
Cell walls	Provide the structural support needed to keep organisms upright without bones. Made from cellulose
Vacuole	Contains cell sap and gives more structural support
Mitochondria	Where respiration (conversion of sugar into energy) occurs; therefore producing energy for the cell



INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



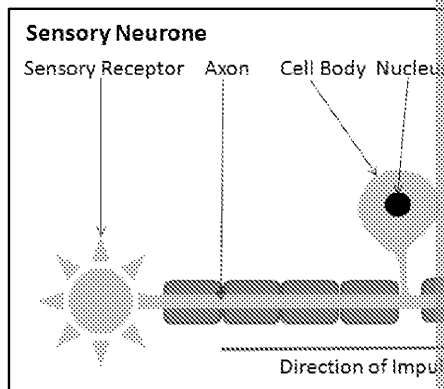
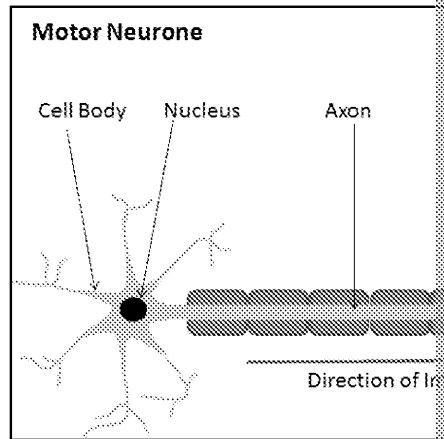
Specialised Cells

Neurones

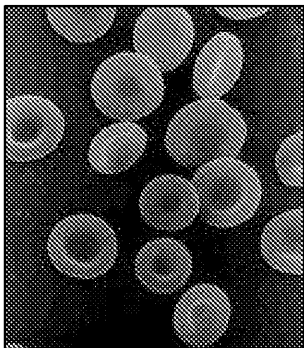
Neurones are animal cells that allow the transfer of electrical signals from one part of the body to another. They are the cells that pass the signal from your brain to your muscles to move your body, from your hands to your brain telling you something is hot, plus countless other functions.

There are several types of neurones. One is the **sensory neurone**. These pass a signal from the skin (to the spinal cord (which then goes on to the brain)). Another is the **motor neurone**, which passes messages from the spinal cord to effectors such as muscles.

The major adaptation of neurones is their size. Unlike many cells, which are only around 10–100 μm in length, neurones can be up to a metre long and can go from the tip of your toe all the way to the spine. This is very important because it means that messages can be sent from one part of the body to another quickly and without interruption or corruption. Imagine if the job of passing on a message from your toe to your spinal cord was done by millions of cells next to each other. It would be like a game of Chinese whispers. Not only would the final message likely be very different from the original one, it would take very long and any one of the cells could make an error and ruin the message. They are also capable of linking with many other cells, making them very versatile.



Red Blood Cells



Red blood cells are the animal cells responsible for carrying oxygen to the cells that need it for respiration. Red blood cells have several adaptations to suit their function; firstly they are filled with a red pigment called haemoglobin, which binds the oxygen inside the cell. The second adaptation is that red blood cells do not need to replicate themselves (they lack a nucleus) or do many other normal cell functions, they do not have a cell body. This is a little like taking all your school books with you when you go to school. The lack of the nucleus means there is more room for more haemoglobin. Another adaptation is their shape; they are a small ball of plasticine pinched in the middle. This shape allows them to pass easily through the narrow capillaries (blood vessels) of the body. The large surface area of the cells' surface area, meaning that oxygen can move out of the cell and into the blood.

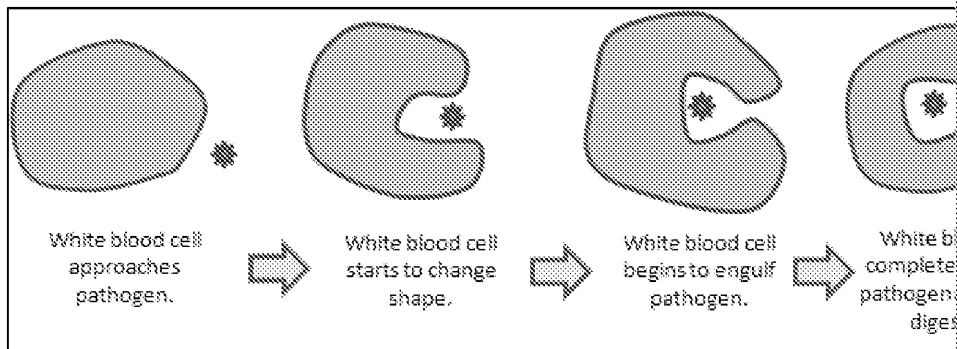
INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



White Blood Cells

White blood cells are the animal cells responsible for fighting off infection. They white blood cell is responsible for a process called **phagocytosis**. This is a way of (disease-causing microorganisms) that may have invaded your body. To allow the change shape in order to engulf the foreign cells.

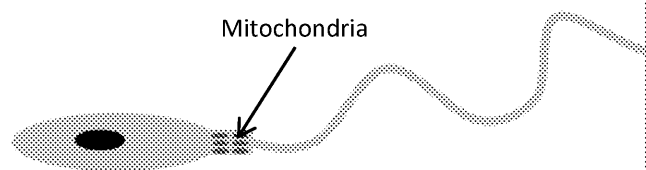


Phagocytosis

Egg Cells

Egg cells are the reproductive cells produced by the female and are needed in the production of new offspring. The egg cell has three main adaptations. The first is relatively large size; this allows the egg to provide energy and nutrients to the growing embryo and foetus. The eggs that you may have for your breakfast are still only a cell big. The second adaptation is the genetic information contained within its nucleus. Most human cells have 46 chromosomes (23 pairs) worth of genetic information, but this is always split up into sections called **chromosomes**. Egg cells only contain half the genetic information needed to make another cell. The other half comes from the sperm at fertilisation. The third important adaptation is the fact that once a sperm has broken through the membrane and fertilised the egg a chemical reaction happens in the membrane which prevents any other sperm cells from entering.

Sperm Cells

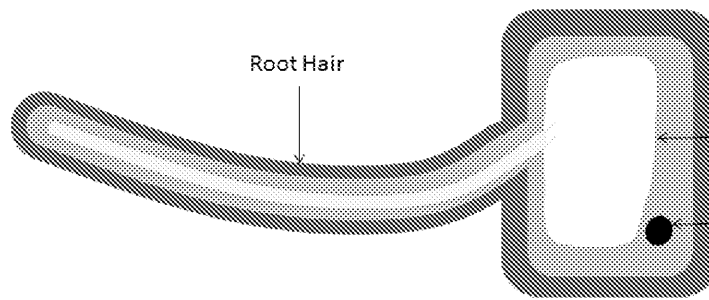


Sperm cells are the male animal reproductive cell. Their job is to reach the egg and fertilise it. This is not an easy job considering the size of the sperm (about $30\mu\text{m}$ including the tail). Several adaptations to help it, most noticeably a tail that allows it to swim with greater speed. The sperm contains enzymes making it easier to penetrate the egg if it eventually makes it. This adaptation is mirrored in the egg; sperm cells only contain half the genetic information needed to make a new cell. The other half comes from the egg at fertilisation. Also within the base of the tail are mitochondria which provide energy for the movement of the tail.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

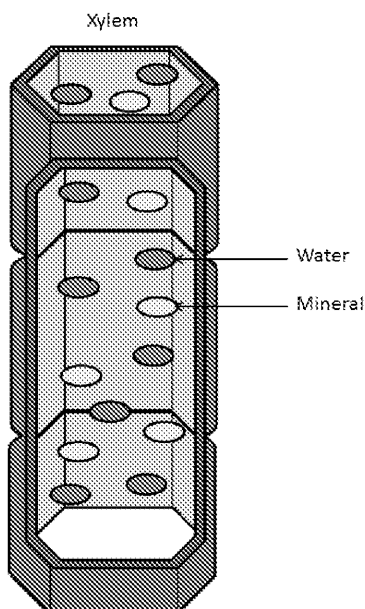


Root Hair Cells



Root hair cells are plant cells that can be found, unsurprisingly, in the roots. They absorb water and dissolved minerals from the soil into the plant tissue. The root hair cell has long hair-like projections, which give it a large surface area to help speed up the process. It has a large central vacuole which helps the water move from the soil into the cell. Finally they have a cell wall (which carries the water around the plant).

Xylem



Xylem is a part of a plant's transport system (veins). The function of xylem is to transport water and minerals from the roots to the leaves, where it is required for photosynthesis. It has several adaptations; firstly the cells are beveled at the ends so they are joined end on end up the stem. The side walls of xylem cells, have no ends allowing them to be joined to the next. They are also very narrow, allowing the phenomenon of water moving up very narrow tubes due to intermolecular forces between water molecules. Another adaptation is the fact that xylem is impermeable to water, to prevent water leakage.

Phloem

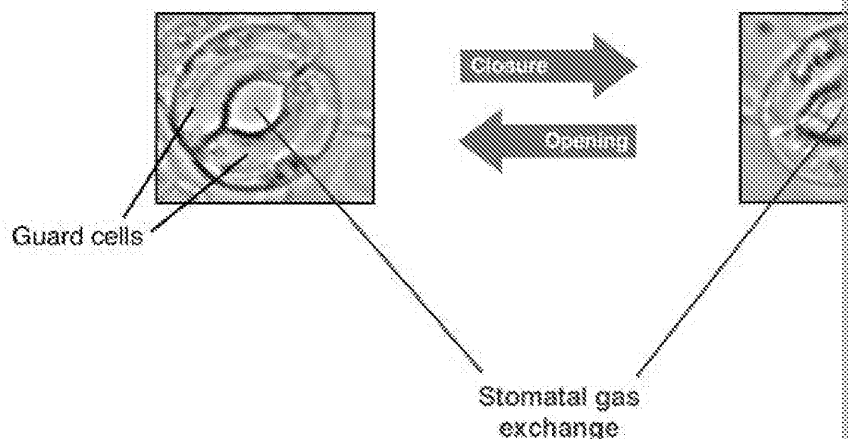
Phloem is another part of a plant's transport system. The function of phloem is to transport sugars from the leaves to the parts of the plant where it is needed. It has similar adaptations to xylem in that it forms long connected hollow tubes; however unlike xylem phloem is alive. Phloem cells are located next to companion cells; these are filled with mitochondria which allow the sugars to be actively transported (transported against the concentration gradient from low concentration to high concentration) around the plant.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Guard Cells

Guard cells are located on the underside of leaves and form holes called stoma (s) carbon dioxide gas to move into the leaves for use in photosynthesis, and oxygen having one wall thicker than the other side. Then at times when there is plenty of thinner side swells more than the thicker side, causing it to bend. Another guard thus forming a hole in between the cells.



Eukaryotic Cells Summary

Cell	Function	
Neurones	To pass electrical signals around the body.	Very long.
Red blood cells	Carry oxygen around the body.	No nucleus. Biconcave
White blood cells	To fight infection.	Can
Egg	Female reproductive cell. Provides nourishment.	Large size. Contains
Sperm	Male reproductive cell. Swims to the egg.	Tail. Enzymes for normal
Root hair	Absorption of water and dissolved minerals.	Large surface area
Xylem	Transport of water through a plant.	Dead. Narrow. Connected to other
Phloem	Transport of sugar through a plant.	Hollow tubes. Connected to companion cells for
Guard cells	Allows passage of carbon dioxide into the leaves and oxygen out of the leaves.	One wall thicker

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Eukaryotic Cells

1. Cells can be placed into one of two categories: prokaryotic and eukaryotic. Describe the difference between a eukaryotic cell and a prokaryotic cell?
2. Copy and complete the table using the cell organelles you will find in eukaryotic cells.

Animal Cells Only	Plant Cells Only	Both

3. Neurones can be found all over the body. State the function of a neurone.
4. What type of signal is transmitted through a neurone?
5. Describe the differences between sensory neurones and motor neurones.
6. It is crucial that cells are adapted to suit their function. For each of the following, describe how they are adapted to suit their function:
 - a. Neurones
 - b. Red blood cells
 - c. White blood cells
 - d. Egg cells
 - e. Sperm cells
 - f. Root hairs
 - g. Xylem
 - h. Phloem
 - i. Guard cells

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Eukaryotic Cells

1. Cells can be placed into one of two categories: prokaryotic and eukaryotic. Complete the table using the cell organelles you will find in each type of cell.

.....

.....

.....

2. Complete the table using the cell organelles you will find in each type of cell.

Animal Cells Only	Plant Cells Only	Both

3. Neurones can be found all over the body. State the function of a neurone.

.....

.....

4. What type of signal is transmitted through a neurone?

.....

5. Describe the differences between sensory neurones and motor neurones.

Sensory neurone:

.....

Motor neurone:

.....

6. It is crucial that cells are adapted to suit their function. For each of the following, describe how they are adapted to suit their function:

a. Neurones

.....

.....

b. Red blood cells

.....

.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



c. White blood cells

.....
.....

d. Egg cells

.....
.....

e. Sperm cells

.....
.....

f. Root hairs

.....
.....

g. Xylem

.....
.....

h. Phloem

.....
.....

i. Guard cells

.....
.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 2 – Cells, Tissues, Organs, Organ Systems and Transpiration

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:






- That cells form tissues and tissues form organs and organs work together to form organ systems, as illustrated by the cardiovascular system.
- The functions of the following plant organs:
 - ★ roots: take in water from the soil and provide anchorage
 - ★ xylem and phloem vessels
 - ★ leaves: where photosynthesis takes place

Key words: cells, tissues, organs, organ systems, xylem, phloem, leaf, transpiration

Starter

Cell/function/adaptation mix and match. Ask pupils to match 10 specialised cells to their functions and adaptations e.g. neurones: pass electrical signals around the body; very long axons.

Main

1. Go through the answers.
2.  Explain how cells form tissues and tissues form organs and organ systems.
3.  Use the cardiovascular system as an example.
4.  Describe the structure and function of the roots (to take in water and provide anchorage), xylem and phloem vessels and the leaf, where photosynthesis takes place.
5.  Answer Questions 1–9 from the pack.
6. Go through the answers.
7.  Heart dissection. Pupils to dissect a heart identifying the main features: the four chambers and valve, etc.
8. Discuss the results and display any good dissections.

Plenary

Pupils work in pairs. Each person writes four questions (with answers) and asks the other to answer them. One point is gained for every question they get correct; one point is lost for every question they get wrong.

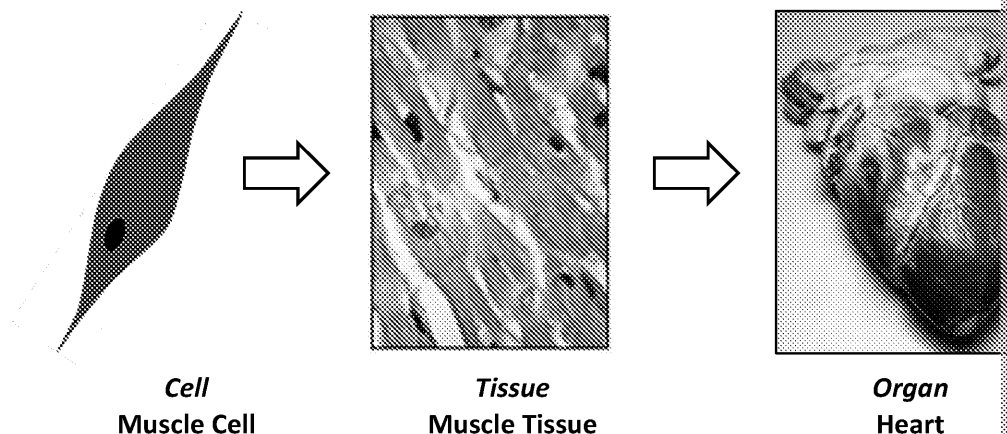
INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Tissues and Organs

Cells in multicellular organisms need to work together. One of the ways they do this is by grouping themselves into tissues and organs. A **tissue** is a grouping of cells with the same function. For example, muscle cells would be muscle; muscle tissue is made out of a large collection of muscle cells. These cells work together to make **organs**, so the heart is a combination of muscle tissue and other tissues. An organ alone and would be useless without other organs. They work together in groups. The heart will work with the blood vessels (arteries, veins and capillaries) and the blood **system**, whose job it is to transport blood around the body.



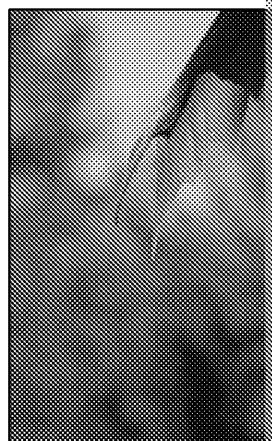
Plant Organs

It isn't just animals that have organs – plants have them too. We have already looked at some plant organs.

Our arteries and veins are organs whose job it is to help in the transport of blood. In plants, the xylem and phloem need to transport materials such as water and sugars around them. They do this through the plant's transport system. The xylem is a system of dead hollow cells that form tubes running throughout the plant. The function of the xylem is to allow the transport of water and salts from the roots to the leaves where it is needed in the production of sugars. The phloem is another part of the transport system. Its function is to pass those sugars to other parts of the plant where they are needed, e.g. fruits, storage in stems, etc.

Roots are also an example of a plant organ. The **roots** function is twofold. Their primary function is to absorb water and dissolved minerals from the soil. To do this they increase their surface area by having a large number of root hairs; these are long thin hair-like projections. The second function of roots is to provide anchorage and support to the ground, thus preventing the plant from falling over.

Leaves are another plant organ. The function of the leaves is the manufacture of sugars via photosynthesis. They do this by having a large surface area. They also tend to be very flat so that the sunlight does not have to travel far into the leaves. Plants also require carbon dioxide for photosynthesis via small holes, stomata, on the underside of the leaf. These stomata are regulated by guard cells which cause them to open or close depending on the weather conditions.



INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

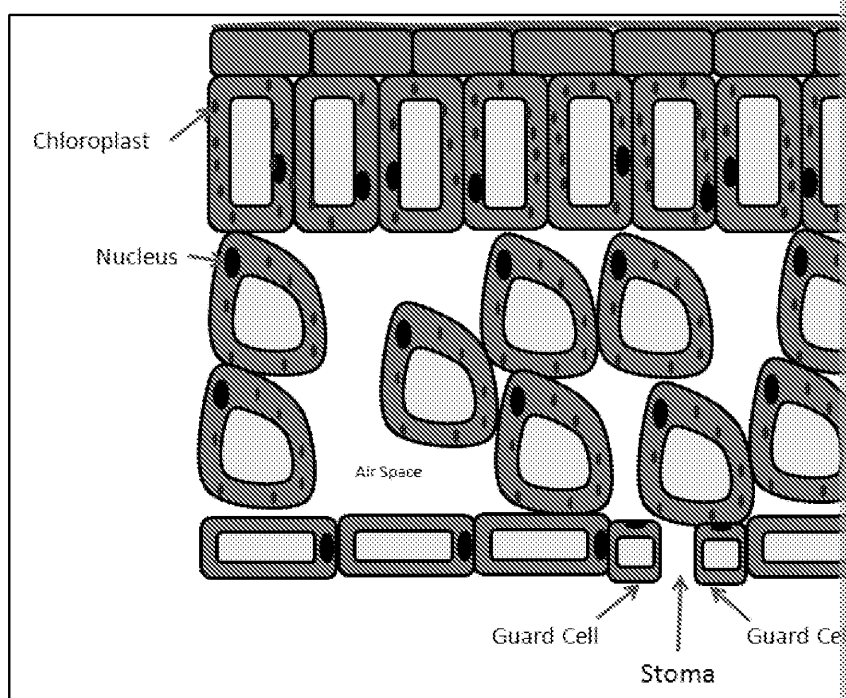


Transpiration

If you wanted to get water to the top of your house you would need a very large pump indeed; but plants have no pumps to rely on to get water to their leaves from the roots and they can be much taller than houses. So how do they do it?

The answer is in a process called transpiration. When the stomata are opened to let carbon dioxide in and oxygen out water vapour is lost to the environment. Because of the way water molecules are attracted to each other, as they evaporate into the air other water molecules are pulled through the xylem to take its place. This movement of water up through the xylem is called the transpiration stream.

Transpiration is increased when the plant is photosynthesising as the stomata need to be open to let in the carbon dioxide. Transpiration can also be affected by environmental factors such as increased temperature, increased wind and decreased humidity, all of which increase transpiration.



A cross-section of a leaf

Exam-Style Questions – Cells, Tissues, Organs and Transpiration

1. Our bodies are made of cells, tissues, organs and organ systems. How are they all linked to each other?
2. Each organ has its specific function. What is the function of the human heart?
3. Each organ system is responsible for a range of functions. What is the function of the digestive system?
4. Plants also have organs. What is the function of xylem?
5. What is the function of phloem?
6. What is the function of roots?
7. It is crucial that organs are adapted to suit their function. How are root cells adapted for their function?
8. What is the function of leaves?
9. How are leaves adapted to suit their function?
10. Transpiration is vital for plant life. What is transpiration?

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Exam-Style Questions – Cells, Tissues, Organs and Transpiration

1. Our bodies are made of cells, tissues, organs and organ systems. How are they linked to each other?

.....
.....
.....
.....

2. Each organ has its specific function. What is the function of the human heart?

.....

3. Each organ system is responsible for a range of functions. What is the function of the digestive system?

.....

4. Plants also have organs. What is the function of xylem?

.....

5. What is the function of phloem?

.....

6. What is the function of roots?

.....

7. It is crucial that organs are adapted to suit their function. How are root hairs adapted for their function?

.....

8. What is the function of leaves?

.....

9. How are leaves adapted to suit their function?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

10. Transpiration is vital for plant life. What is transpiration?

.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 3 – DNA, Chromosomes and Genes

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:


- That DNA is a double helix containing a sequence of complementary base pairs
 - ★ adenine pairs with thymine
 - ★ guanine pairs with cytosine
- That chromosomes, in the nucleus, are made up of DNA, and sections of DNA which give instructions for individual characteristics.
- That alleles are different forms of the same gene that give rise to heterozygous genotypes.

Key words: DNA, double helix, base pairs, chromosomes, genes, alleles, genotype

Starter

Ask pupils: What is DNA?

Main

1. Explain that DNA is a double helix. This can be demonstrated with a model if available, or a model can be made from pipe cleaners and straws.
2. Describe sequence of complementary base pairs, adenine pairs with thymine and guanine with cytosine.
3. Describe chromosomes as being made of DNA.
4. Describe genes as sections of DNA which give instructions for individual characteristics.
5. Describe alleles as different forms of the same gene that give rise to heterozygous genotypes.
6. Pupils to answer Questions 1–12.
7. Go through the answers.
8.  DNA extraction. Add sodium chloride solution to a beaker. In another beaker add 10 cm³ of liquid hand soap with 3 cm³ of distilled water. Pour 1 cm³ of the soap solution into a test tube using a pipette. Place 10 cm³ of bottled water into a plastic cup free from any food debris. Rinse the bottled water in mouth for a few seconds, then spit. Scrape the inside of cheeks with teeth to remove extra cells. Spit into the cup. Place the contents of the cup into the test tube containing the sodium chloride solution. Add 1 cm³ of liquid hand soap solution to the test tube using the pipette. Place a bung on the test tube. Mix the contents by turning the test tube. Add 5 cm³ of alcohol to the test tube by pouring it slowly at an angle down the side of the test tube from a clean pipette. Leave for around 5 minutes. The DNA should precipitate. Pour the contents of alcohol into an Eppendorf tube using a pipette. Use the thin stick to stir the DNA from the test tube by twisting the rod gently. Place the DNA into a clean test tube and close the lid.

Plenary

Science Boggle. Pupils work in groups of five and write down as many true facts as they can in two minutes. After this time they should compare their list to the other groups and find the facts they have in common. The winner is the one with the greatest number of facts in common. The winner is the one with the greatest number of facts expanded to find the class winner as well.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

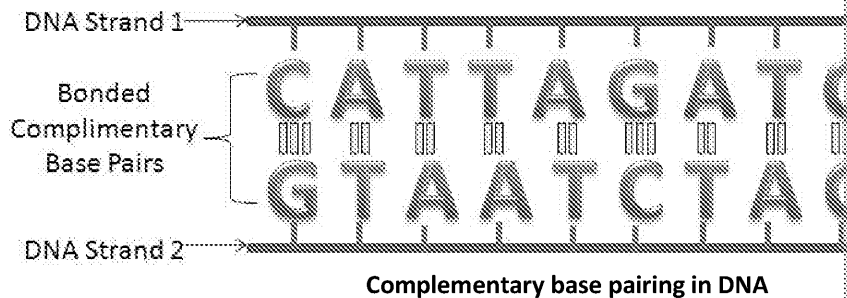


DNA

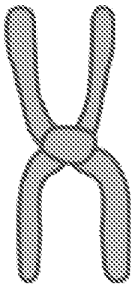
DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid) is the genetic material found in the nucleus that controls the cell's activity and acts as a guide in the development of living creatures such as ourselves. All DNA, whether it comes from humans, dogs, plants or bacteria, has the same make-up; in fact we share 96% of our DNA with chimps and more than 50% with bananas. DNA is a very long molecule made up of two joined strands which twist around each other and looks a little like a twisted ladder. We call this structure a **double helix**.

DNA is the language of the cell, and like all languages it needs letters. In the case of DNA the letters are chemicals, or bases, called **adenine, thymine, guanine** and **cytosine**, or A, T, G and C as they are commonly abbreviated.

These chemicals – called nucleotides – stick together in different sequences along the order they arrange themselves in determine everything about us. But whatever they are, they always pair up with the same molecules on the opposite strand. Thymine and Guanine always pairs with Cytosine. We call this **complementary base pairing**.



Chromosomes



DNA is split up into sections called **chromosomes**. Chromosomes are sections of DNA that typically form in a shape resembling an X, and which are found in pairs. Humans have 23 pairs of chromosomes which we inherit from our parents. Chromosomes are thought of as volumes of a book and just as volumes of books are made up of pages, chromosomes themselves are split up into sections called **genes**. Genes are sections of DNA that give instructions for individual characteristics such as eye color. Some genes make a protein such as an enzyme.

We have two copies of every chromosome: one we inherit from our mothers, the other from our fathers. The chromosome has the same arrangement of genes, resulting in us having two copies of every gene. Different forms of the same gene are called **alleles**. So with the blood group gene, you could have the O allele, the B allele or the A allele. If both of your alleles of a gene are the same (your genetic makeup) for that gene is **homozygous**; if both alleles of a gene are different, it is **heterozygous**.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – DNA, Chromosomes and Genes

1. DNA is vital for life. What does DNA stand for?
2. DNA can be found in nearly every cell. Where will you find DNA in a eukaryotic cell?
3. What is the function of DNA?
4. What shape is DNA?
5. DNA consists of four bases. Give the names of the four DNA bases.
6. DNA bases pair up in a consistent way. How do the bases pair up?
7. What do we call this pairing?
8. Chromosomes can be found in the nuclei of cells. What are chromosomes?
9. How many pairs of chromosomes do humans normally have and where are they found?
10. Our body has tens of thousands of genes. What is a gene?
11. What is the difference between a gene and an allele?
12. Define the terms:
 - a. Genotype
 - b. Homozygous
 - c. Heterozygous

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – DNA, Chromosomes and Genes

1. DNA is vital for life. What does DNA stand for?
.....
.....
2. DNA can be found in nearly every cell. Where will you find DNA in a eukaryotic cell?
.....
.....
3. What is the function of DNA?
.....
.....
4. What shape is DNA?
.....
.....
5. DNA consists of four bases. Give the names of the four DNA bases.
.....
.....
6. DNA bases pair up in a consistent way. How do the bases pair up?
.....
.....
7. What do we call this pairing?
.....
.....
8. Chromosomes can be found in the nuclei of cells. What are chromosomes?
.....
.....
.....
9. How many pairs of chromosomes do humans normally have and where are they found?
.....
.....
10. Our body has tens of thousands of genes. What is a gene?
.....
.....
11. What is the difference between a gene and an allele?
.....
.....
.....
12. Define the terms:
 - a. Genotype
.....
.....
 - b. Homozygous
.....
.....
 - c. Heterozygous
.....
.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 4 – Inheritance and Genetics

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:







- how to represent monohybrid inheritance using Punnett squares
- how to determine genotypes and phenotypes of offspring from genetic crosses
- how to calculate the probability, percentage or ratio of offspring displaying a particular characteristic from genetic crosses

Key words: monohybrid inheritance, alleles, dominant, recessive, Punnett square

Starter

Ask pupils: what does the word inheritance mean to you?

Main

1.  Explain the concept of monohybrid inheritance using a Punnett square.
2.  Explain the difference between the terms 'dominant' and 'recessive'.
3.  Introduce the term 'phenotype'.
4.  Demonstrate genetic cross diagrams using heterozygous and homozygous.
5.  Show how to calculate percentage probability of offspring.
6.  Pupils to answer Questions 1–7 from the pack.
7. Go through the answers.

Plenary

On a post-it note pupils should write three things about inheritance that they learned at the beginning of the lesson.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

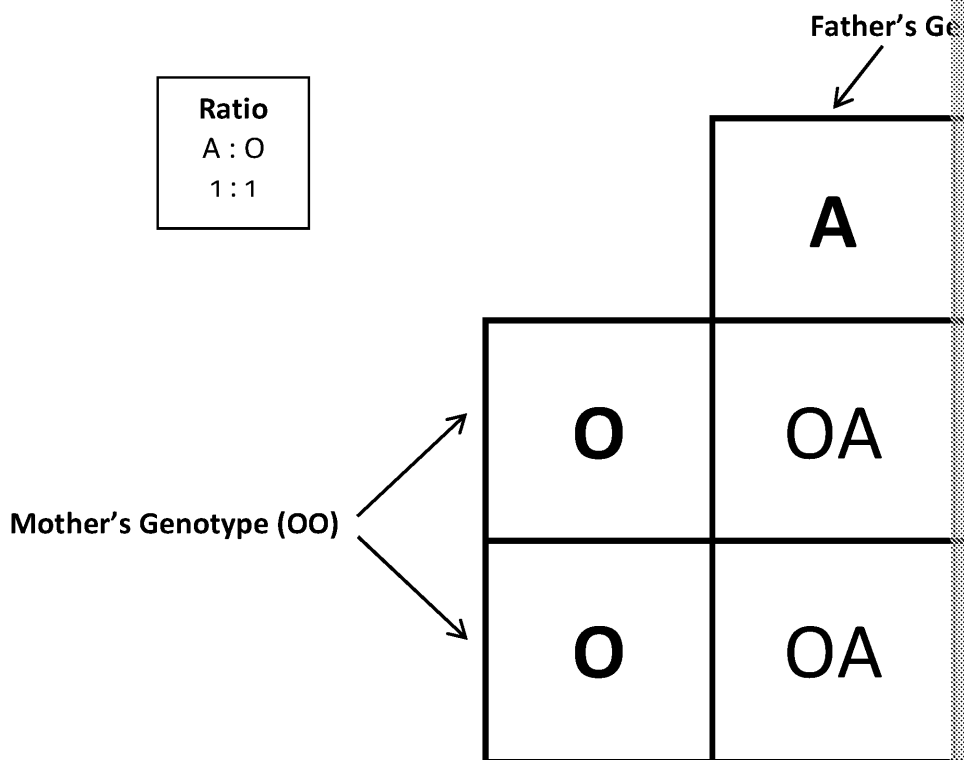


Inheritance

What determines what genes you have? Each of your parents have two copies of genes, one in turn got from their parents and so on all the way back. However, the sperm and egg cells at fertilisation only contained half their genetic make-up, i.e. one copy of every gene. This is entirely random and this results in genetic diversity and explains why you don't look like your parents. We call this passing on of genes **monohybrid inheritance**.

Let's look at an example.

We will assume that a mother's genotype for her blood group is OO (homozygous) and a father's genotype is AO (heterozygous). They could pass either allele on to their offspring so there can represent monohybrid inheritance in Punnett squares or genetic cross diagrams.



This Punnett square or genetic cross diagram shows that the potential offspring could be OO, OA, OO or OA. So they have a 50% chance of being OO and a 50% chance of being OA. (The order of the alleles: OA or AO is fine.)

But what would be their actual blood groups?

To understand this we need to know about something called dominance.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



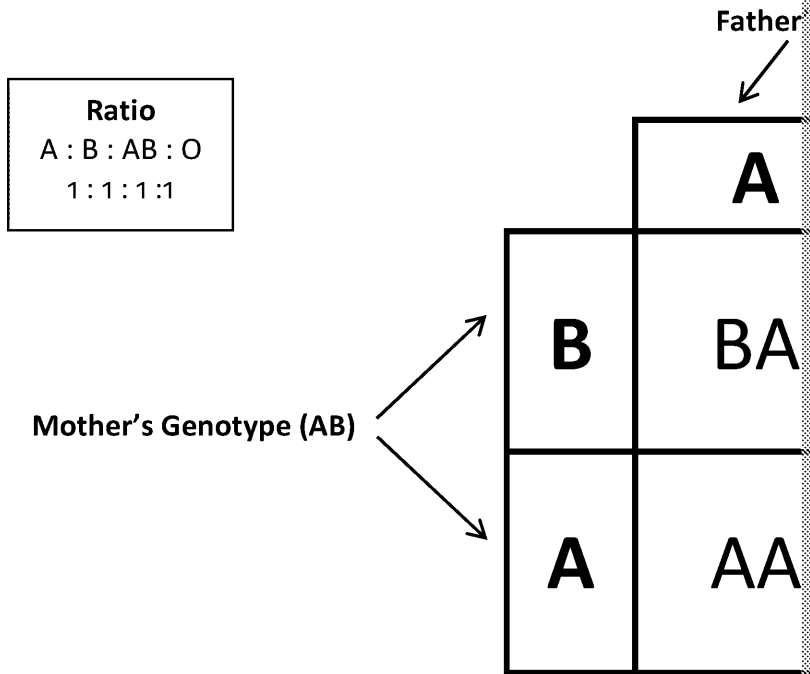
Dominant and Recessive Alleles

Alleles are either **dominant** (strong) or **recessive** (weak). That means if you inherit one dominant allele and one recessive allele the dominant one will play a part in determining that particular characteristic. Only if you have two copies of the recessive allele the recessive allele will determine that characteristic.

With blood groups O is the recessive allele and A and B are the dominant alleles (in a case where there is not just one dominant allele). This means that because the mother is homozygous recessive (she had blood group O); we call this her **phenotype** (meaning observable characteristic). The father has the genotype AO (heterozygous); because the A allele is dominant he has blood group A (his phenotype).

As the potential offspring have the same genotypes as the parents the phenotype is O and if the genotype is OA the phenotype is A.

Let's look at another example. This time we will assume the mother's genotype is AB. This means the mother's blood group is AB (because of the co-dominance) and the father's genotype is AO. This time the potential offspring's genotype is more varied.



They could be BA, BO, AO or AA. But what would their phenotype and blood group be?

Genotype	Phenotype	Blood Group
OO	O	O
OA	A	A
OB	B	B
AA	A	A
BB	B	B
AB	AB	AB

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Let's take a look at one more example. Eye colour is a commonly studied form of a number of different alleles for eye colour but we will only look at two, brown and blue. Brown is the dominant allele whilst blue is the recessive allele.

It is common to represent the dominant allele with a capital letter and the recessive allele with a lowercase letter (especially important in this case as blue and brown both begin with the same letter).

In this example the mother's genotype is BB (homozygous dominant) so she has brown eyes and the father's genotype is bb (homozygous recessive) so he has blue eyes.

	b	b
B	Bb	Bb
B	Bb	Bb

So all the offspring would have the same genotype Bb and would all have brown eyes. There is a 100% chance of the genotype Bb.

But it is possible for a brown-eyed parent and a blue-eyed parent to have blue-eyed offspring.

<p>Ratio Brown : Blue 1 : 1</p>
--

	b	b
b	bb	bb
B	Bb	Bb

If the mother's genotype is Bb her eyes would still be brown but she would be a carrier. At the same time the chances are: **50% bb** and **50% Bb**

Half the offspring would have blue eyes and half would have brown.

Genotype
BB
Bb
bb

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Inheritance and Genetic Diagrams

1. Define the terms in relation to inheritance.
 - a. Dominant
 - b. Recessive
 - c. Phenotype
2. What is the difference between phenotype and genotype?
3. Draw genetic cross diagrams for the crosses between the following pairs of parents. In each cross state the percentage of each phenotype and the genotype of the offspring.
 - a. Someone with a blood group genotype AB and another person with blood group genotype OO.
 - b. Someone with a blood group genotype AO and another person with blood group genotype BO.
 - c. Someone with a blood group genotype AA and another person with blood group genotype BB.
 - d. Two people both of whom have the eye colour genotype Bb where B is the dominant allele for brown eyes and b is the recessive allele for blue eyes.
 - e. A person with the eye colour genotype BB and another person with the eye colour genotype bb.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Inheritance and Genetic Diagrams

1. Define the terms in relation to inheritance.

a. Dominant

.....

b. Recessive

.....

c. Phenotype

.....

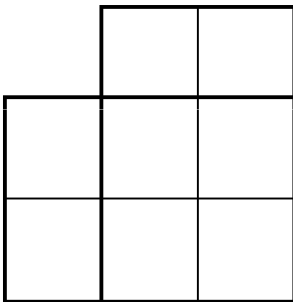
2. What is the difference between phenotype and genotype?

.....

.....

3. Draw genetic cross diagrams for the crosses between the following parents. In each cross state the percentage of each phenotype and the percentage of each genotype.

a. Someone with a blood group genotype AB and another person with a blood group genotype OO.



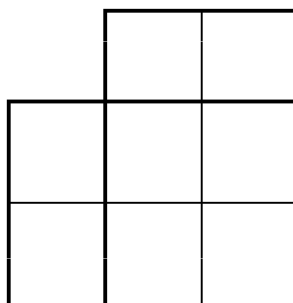
Phenotypes

.....

Blood groups

.....

b. Someone with a blood group genotype AO and another person with a blood group genotype BO.



Phenotypes

.....

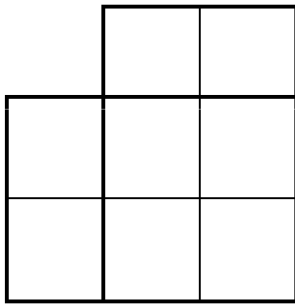
Blood groups

.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



c. Someone with a blood group genotype AA and another person with BB.



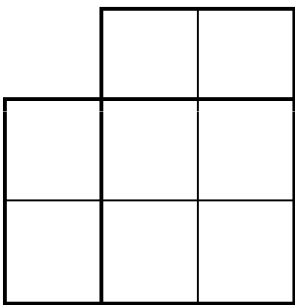
Phenotypes

.....

Blood groups

.....

d. Two people both of whom have the eye colour genotype Bb when



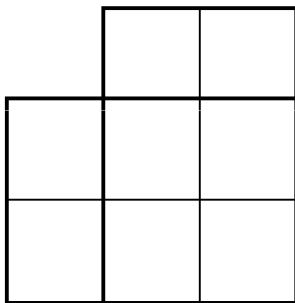
Phenotypes

.....

Eye colours

.....

e. A person with the eye colour genotype BB and another person with



Phenotypes

.....

Eye colours

.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 5 – Pedigree Analysis and Gen

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:










- pedigree analysis using homozygous and heterozygous individuals
- determination of genotypes and phenotypes of offspring from pedigree
- that gene mutations occur when the base sequence on a DNA molecule
 - ★ genetic mutations can change the characteristics of organisms
 - ★ genetic mutations can be beneficial or harmful to organisms.

Key words: pedigree analysis, carriers, genetic mutations, questions.

Starter

Ask the pupils to draw a genetic cross diagram for an example you have noted. Then ask them to calculate the probability of characteristics of offspring.

Main

1.  Explain that it is also possible to track genetic conditions and characteristics using pedigree analysis.
2.  Show how to construct a pedigree analysis diagram.
3.  Work through an example of a dominant genetic condition in a family. Work out the phenotype and genotype.
4.  Work through an example of a recessive genetic condition in a family. Work out the phenotype and genotype. Show that it is sometimes harder to identify a person with a recessive characteristic.
5.  Answer Questions 1–4 from the pack.
6. Go through the answers.
7.  Explain what a genetic mutation is in terms of base pair alteration.
8.  Describe the possible causes of genetic mutation.
9.  Describe harmful and beneficial gene mutations.
10.  Answer Questions 1–6 from the pack.
11. Go through the answers.

Plenary

Text it: pupils to explain the causes and effects of genetic mutations in 160 seconds.

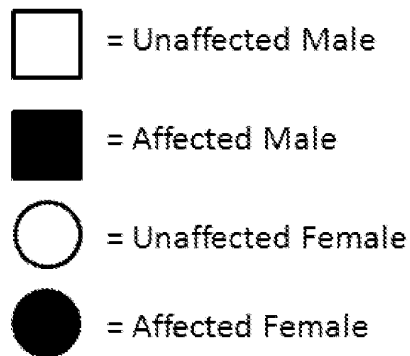
INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



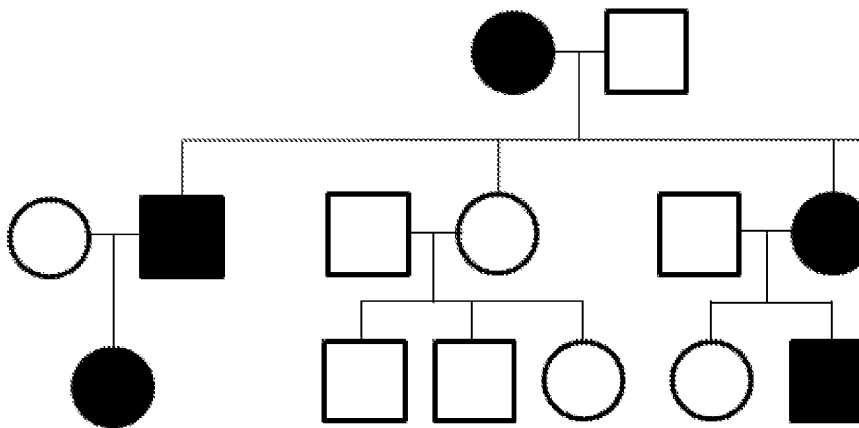
Pedigree Analysis

We can track the occurrence of a trait such as eye colour, or more commonly genetic **analysis**. To carry out pedigree analysis doctors will find out who in the family has a trait and then they will construct a chart, similar to a family tree, using the following symbols:

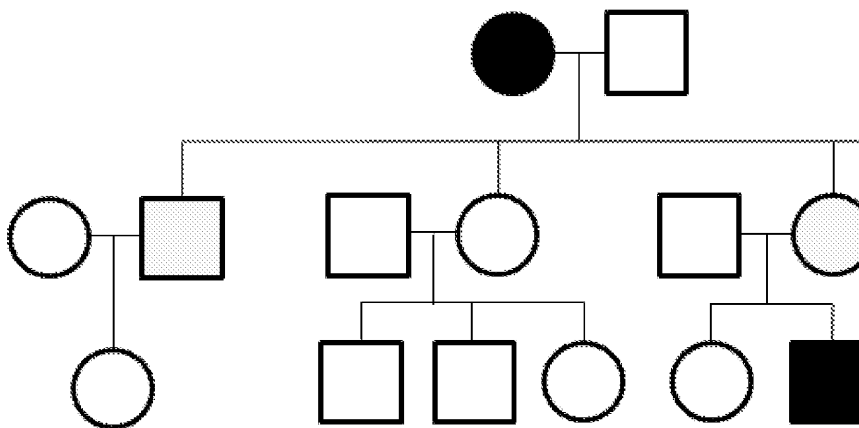


This way it is possible to determine the likelihood of that characteristic appearing in future generations.

A dominant characteristic will normally appear frequently throughout the generations.



Whereas a recessive characteristic will only appear infrequently.



INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

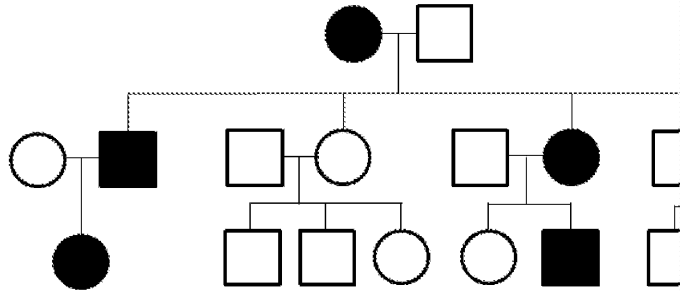


Using Pedigree Analysis

It is possible to determine the genotypes of individuals by analysis of the chart. We will look at a dominant characteristic.

Dominant Characteristics

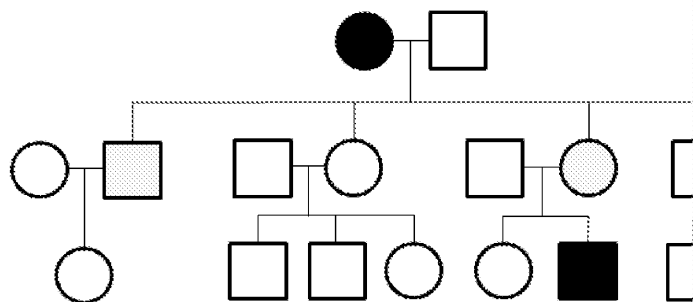
N = dominant, n = recessive – NN and Nn would both have the characteristic; nn would not.



- ☆ The grandfather (the top white square) is unaffected; his genotype must be NN.
- ☆ The grandmother (the top black circle) is affected; her genotype could be NN or Nn. If all her children are unaffected the grandmother must be Nn.
- ☆ The first son must be Nn as he is affected but his father isn't.
- ☆ The first daughter must be nn as she is not affected.
- ☆ The second daughter must be Nn as she is affected but her father isn't.
- ☆ The third daughter must be Nn as she is affected but her father isn't.
- ☆ The first granddaughter must be Nn as she is affected but her mother isn't.
- ☆ The first and second grandsons and the second granddaughter must be nn as they are unaffected.
- ☆ The third granddaughter must be nn as she is unaffected.
- ☆ The third grandson must be Nn as he is affected but his father isn't.
- ☆ The fourth grandson must be nn as he is unaffected.
- ☆ The fourth granddaughter must be Nn as she is affected but her father isn't.

Recessive Characteristics

With a recessive characteristic it is more difficult to tell the genotypes of all the family members. Some people carry the gene in their genotype but do not express that gene in their phenotype. We will look at a recessive characteristic. nn would have the characteristic; NN and Nn would not.



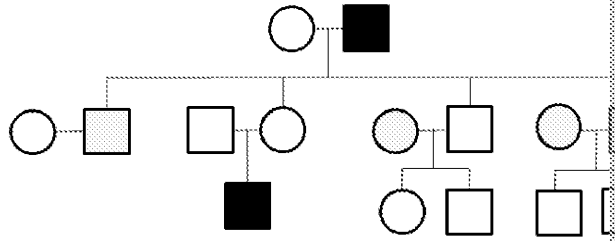
- ☆ The grandmother (top black circle) has the characteristic so must be nn.
- ☆ The grandfather (top white square) does not have the characteristic so could be NN or Nn. If he were Nn we would expect some of his children to have the characteristic he is probably NN (if he were Nn we would expect some to be affected).
- ☆ All the children are Nn and are carriers of the characteristic.
- ☆ The affected grandson must be nn as he is affected.
- ☆ His father must also be a carrier (Nn) to have had an affected son.
- ☆ The rest of the grandchildren's genotype is uncertain from the information given.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

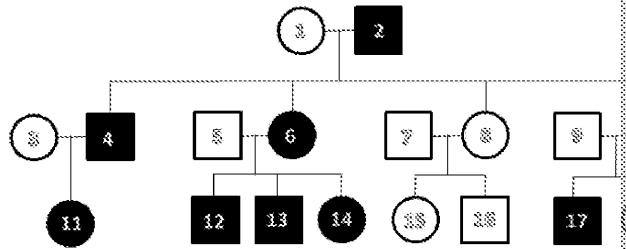


Exam-Style Questions – Pedigree Analysis

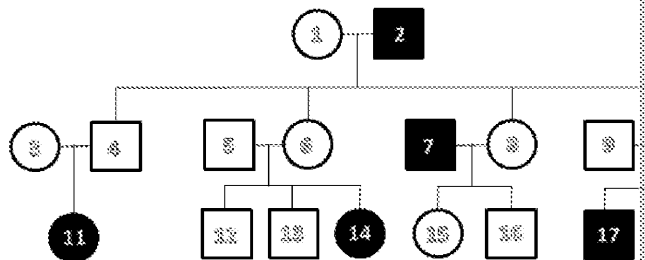
1. Is this chart more likely to show a recessive or a dominant characteristic?



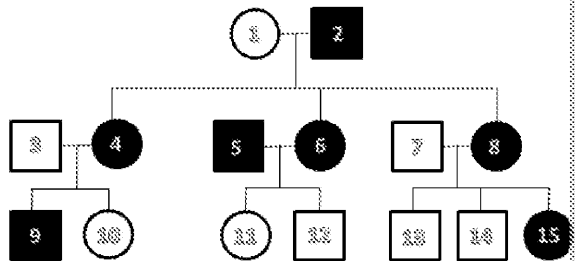
2. The following chart shows a dominant genetic trait, i.e. NN and Nn would not. For each person determine their genotype from the information provided. Each person has been numbered to make distinguishing between people easier.



3. The following chart shows the occurrence of blue eyes in a family. For each person determine their genotype from the information in the chart, or state if it is not possible to tell from the information provided. Each person has been numbered to make distinguishing between people easier.



4. The following chart shows the occurrence of a dominant trait in a family. For each person determine their genotype from the information in the chart or state if it is not possible to tell from the information provided. Each person has been numbered to make distinguishing between people easier.

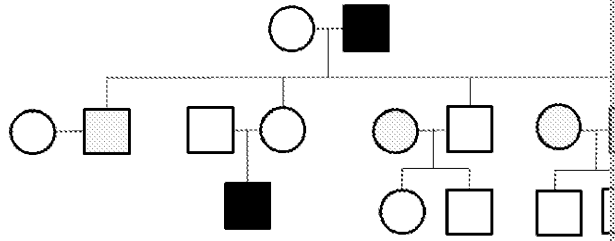


**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Pedigree Analysis

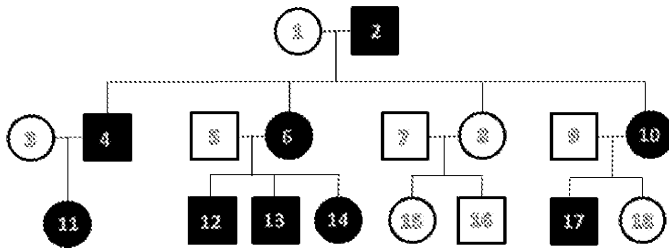
1. Is this chart more likely to show a recessive or a dominant characteristic?



.....

.....

2. The following chart shows a dominant genetic trait, i.e. NN and Nn would not. For each person determine their genotype from the information person has been numbered to make distinguishing between people e



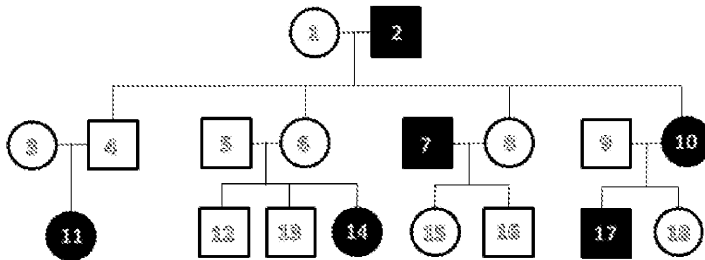
.....

.....

.....

.....

3. The following chart shows the occurrence of blue eyes in a family. For genotype from the information in the chart, or state if it is not possible provided. Each person has been numbered to make distinguishing between people e



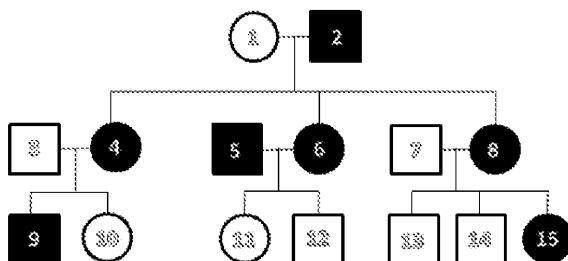
.....

.....

.....

.....

4. The following chart shows the occurrence of a dominant trait in a family homozygous: one for, one against the trait. For each person determine information in the chart or state if it is not possible to tell from the information person has been numbered to make distinguishing between people e



.....

.....

.....

.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Genetic Mutations

When the base sequence (GCTA) on a DNA molecule is changed genetic mutation can be caused by a number of different things including a failure to copy DNA correctly (common with age), radiation including UV light, and certain chemicals.

If the mutation happens in a body cell it will only affect the organism it is in; if the mutation happens in a sex cell (sperm and egg) then the individual will be unaffected but the offspring will be.

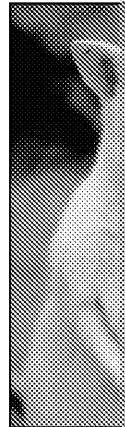
As a great deal of DNA is non-coding (has no known function) a large number of mutations are harmless. However, where this mutation occurs in a gene it can result in a change in the characteristics of the organism.

Genetic mutations can be harmful or negative to an organism; cancer is an example of multiple gene mutations. In cancer, the section of a gene telling the cells to stop dividing is mutated. Therefore, the cells proliferate, each copy having the same gene mutation and leading to further replication, resulting in the formation of a lump of cells called a tumour.

Other genetic mutations can be beneficial or good for an organism. In fact without these mutations we would have likely been far less successful. Sometimes genetic mutations provide a new function to an old gene. For example genetic mutations have been seen to allow bacteria to resist heat and antibiotics which, although it is not good for us, it is good for them.

Did you know?

Albinism is just one condition that is caused by a genetic mutation. Albino animals are born when one of the genes involved in the production of melanin (which determines their skin colour) mutates or is deleted during their development.



An albino rabbit

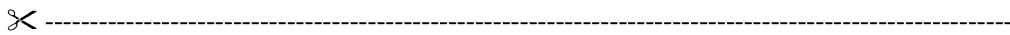
INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Genetic Mutations

- 1. There are many factors which cause genetic mutations. What factors cause mutations?
- 2. The type of cell that becomes mutated affects who will be affected by a mutation in a body cell?
- 3. Who would be affected by a mutation in a sex cell?
- 4. What could happen if a mutation happens in a gene?
- 5. Mutations can be harmful, beneficial or neutral. Give an example of a harmful mutation.
- 6. Give an example of a beneficial mutation.



Exam-Style Questions – Genetic Mutations

- 1. There are many factors which cause genetic mutations. What factors cause mutations?
.....
.....
.....
- 2. The type of cell that becomes mutated affects who will be affected by a mutation in a body cell?
.....
- 3. Who would be affected by a mutation in a sex cell?
.....
- 4. What could happen if a mutation happens in a gene?
.....
- 5. Mutations can be harmful, beneficial or neutral. Give an example of a harmful mutation.
.....
- 6. Give an example of a beneficial mutation.
.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 6 – Homeostasis, the Nervous System

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:

- That homeostasis is the maintenance of a constant internal environment through nervous and hormonal communication.
- The structure of the nervous system is made up of the central nervous system (CNS) (brain and spinal cord) and the peripheral nervous system (PNS) (sensory and motor neurones that carry electrical impulses to and from the CNS).
- The difference between involuntary and voluntary responses.
- The transmission of electrical impulses from receptor to effector and the transmission across synapses.
- The components of a simple reflex arc and its role in protecting the body.
- The endocrine system consists of glands that release hormones into the blood through the blood to target organs.
- The differences in communication between the endocrine and nervous systems
 - ★ speed of communication
 - ★ method of transport or transmission
 - ★ duration of response

Key words: Homeostasis, nervous communication, hormonal communication, stimulus, receptor, effector, synapse, reflex arc, the endocrine system, question

Starter

Ask pupils to list as many forms of communication as they can.

Main

1. Explain that organs and cells within the bodies of multicellular organisms communicate with each other for various reasons including homeostasis.
2. Explain that cells can communicate via nervous or hormonal communication.
3. Explain the function and structure of the nervous system.
4. Explain the difference between voluntary and involuntary responses.
5. Describe a signal from stimulus to effector.
6. Explain how a synapse works.
7. Describe a reflex arc.
8. Knee-jerk reaction. One pupil should sit on a bench with their legs hanging over the edge. Then tap their knee tendon to elicit a knee-jerk response.
9. Explain how the endocrine system works.
10. Highlight the difference between both methods of communication: method of communication, transport/transmission, specificity of response.
11. Answer Questions 1–9 from the pack.
12. Go through the answers.

Plenary

Pupils to think of a reflex pathway and describe it from stimulus to effector.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



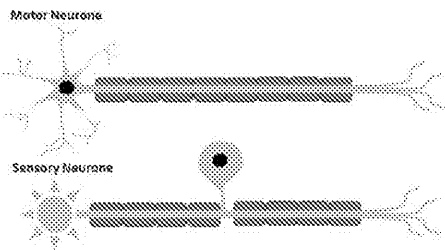
Homeostasis

During the day you may find yourself hot, cold, thirsty, hungry or even in pain. For your survival that the internal conditions of your body are kept within a strict set of limits is called a consistent internal environment **homeostasis**.

Homeostasis is controlled (regulated) in two ways. The first is by **nervous communication** and the second is by **hormonal communication**.

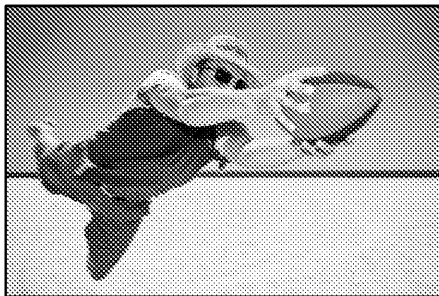
The Nervous System

The nervous system is of vital importance to your daily life; not only does it allow you to control your body at will, it also protects you when you place your hand on a hot surface or suffer the misfortune to sit down on a pin.

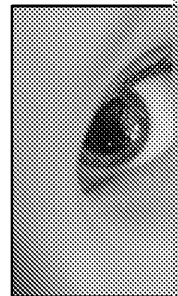


The nervous system is a collection of different types of cells working together. These include the **nervous system** or **CNS**, which is made up of the brain and the spinal cord; and the **peripheral nervous system** or **PNS**, which is made up of sensory and motor neurones (which we looked at earlier). These neurones transmit electrical signals to and from the rest of the body.

There are two main types of nervous response: **voluntary** and **involuntary**. Voluntary responses are those that you are aware of consciously; this could include scratching an itch, or catching a ball. Involuntary responses are those that you are not consciously aware of; they could include blinking, your heart beating, you or your pupils dilating in the dark.



Catching a ball
A voluntary response



Pupil dilation
An involuntary response

We sense our environment in a number of ways, through sight, sound, touch and taste. Sensory organs are responsible for picking up the **stimulus** that will eventually cause a **response**. An **impulse** is generated and passed along the **sensory neurone** towards the **CNS**. Once the impulse reaches the CNS, it needs to be relayed or sent on (think of a relay race during sports day when a baton is passed to the next runner). It is first sent to a relay neurone within the CNS and the relay neurone then sends the impulse to an appropriate **motor neurone**. The signal then reaches an **effector**, which is normally a muscle or gland, and a **response** occurs, e.g. you move.



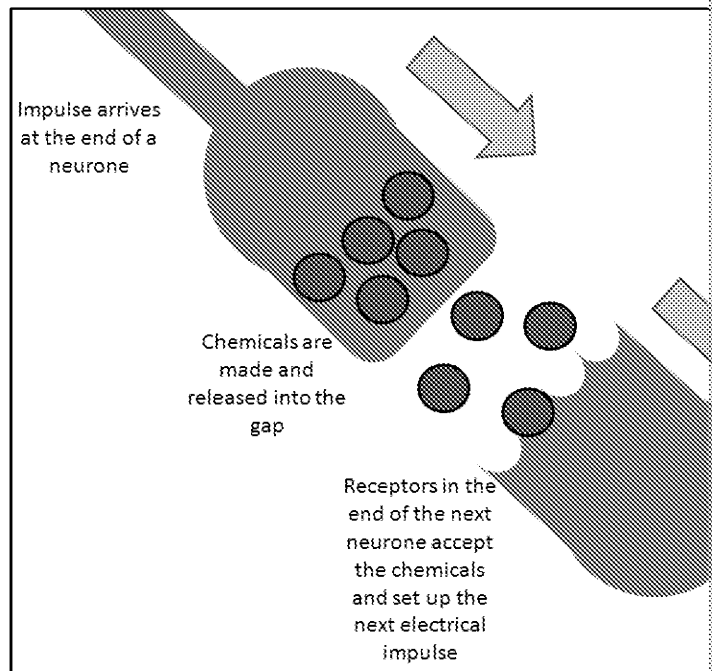
INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Synapse

Neurones are not physically connected to other neurones, but instead there is a gap between two neurones.

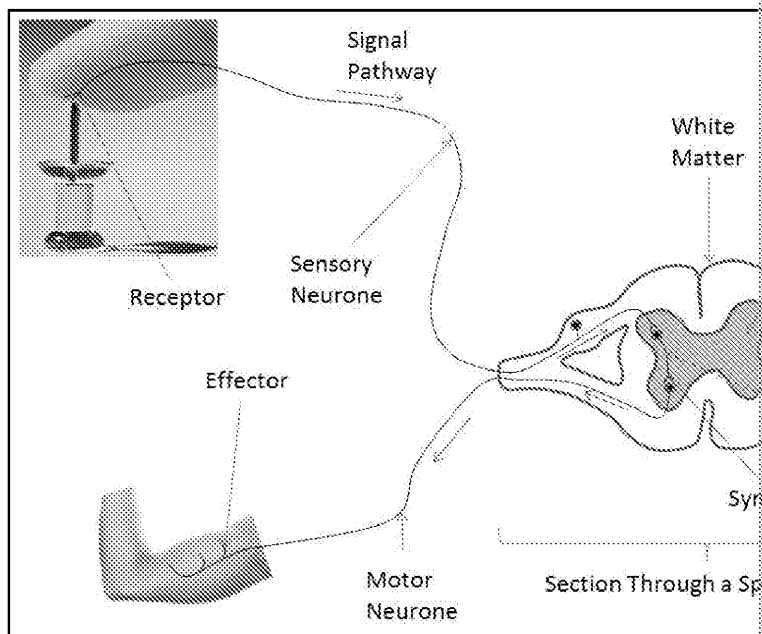


Having synapses means that neurones are able to communicate with numerous other neurones, which allows specific responses to specific stimuli. If neurones were connected to each other directly, all stimuli would always lead to the same response whether it was appropriate or not. Communication between neurones occurs through chemical transmission.

Reflex Arc

Sometimes you have to act quickly to avoid damage such as placing your hand on a hot surface. The pathway for a reflex arc is very similar to the pathway we looked at earlier. The reflex arc is that it will bypass the conscious part of your mind. This speeds up the response to avoid damage.

Reflexes are also vital for carrying out other everyday activities which you would not think about every single time they happened, e.g. breathing.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



The Endocrine System

The **endocrine system** is the way parts of our body communicate with other parts of the body. **Hormones** are chemicals produced by the body in organs called glands. The hormones travel in the blood to the target organs where they have their effect.

Differences between the endocrine system and nervous system

Although the basic outcome is the same, i.e. a response, the endocrine and nervous systems work in very different ways. The nervous system is very fast indeed (shine a light in someone's eyes and they will contract) whilst the endocrine system is far slower making its effects, relying upon the blood to flow around the body, or even longer. Also the method of communication is different; the endocrine system uses chemicals which are transported in the blood whilst the nervous system transmits electrical impulses. Another difference is the duration of the response (how long the response lasts); the nervous system gives a one-off instant response; once you have removed your hand from the pin you may get odd looks if you do; whilst the endocrine system is much longer-acting, days and weeks. In addition, the endocrine system is very non-specific; it sends chemicals all over the body and can be picked up by any organ with the correct receptors. The nervous system is very specific; if when you put your hand on the pin you contracted every muscle in your hand, that is useful (and you'd definitely get odd looks).

Property	Nervous System	Endocrine System
Speed of Communication	Fast	Slow
Method of Communication	Electrical	Chemical
Transport/Transmission	Nerves	Blood
Duration of Response	Short	Long
Specificity of Response	Specific	Non-specific

Did you know?

The glands responsible for hormone production are located in different parts of the body and make hormones that regulate different things – e.g. the testes produce testosterone which controls male secondary sexual characteristics. The thyroid gland produces thyroxine which controls metabolism. There are many others.

Exam-Style Questions – Homeostasis

- Homeostasis is vital for life. What is homeostasis?
- The CNS is a crucial part of our nervous system. What does CNS stand for?
- The PNS works with the CNS in controlling our bodies. What does PNS stand for? What is it made up of?
- What is the functional difference between a sensory neurone and a motor neurone?
- Describe, with examples, the difference between a voluntary and an involuntary muscle.
- Draw and label a reflex arc and explain how it helps protect the body.
- Describe the similarities and differences between nervous communication and hormonal communication.
- Draw a flow diagram of the transmission of an electrical signal from a neurone to a muscle.
- Describe how a synapse functions.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Homeostasis

1. Homeostasis is vital for life. What is homeostasis?
.....
.....
2. The CNS is a crucial part of our nervous system. What does CNS stand for?
.....
.....
3. The PNS works with the CNS in controlling our bodies. What does PNS stand for?
.....
.....
4. What is the functional difference between a sensory neurone and a motor neurone?
.....
.....
5. Describe, with examples, the difference between a voluntary and an involuntary muscle.
.....
.....
.....
6. Draw and label a reflex arc and explain how it helps protect the body.
.....
.....
.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



7. Describe the similarities and differences between nervous communication.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

8. Draw a flow diagram of the transmission of an electrical signal from receptor to effector.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

9. Describe how a synapse functions.

.....

.....

.....

.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 7 – Blood Glucose and Body Temperature

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:





- An example of nervous communication.
- That blood glucose concentration is regulated by the endocrine system (insulin lowers blood glucose concentrations and glucagon raises it).
- That body temperature is regulated by the nervous system using the following:
 - ★ sweating
 - ★ shivering
 - ★ raising/lowering of body hair
 - ★ vasoconstriction and vasodilation

Key words: reflex, blood glucose, insulin, glycogen, glucagon, body temperature, thermoregulatory centre, sweating, body hair, vasodilation, vasoconstriction

Starter

Ask pupils what the differences are between nervous and hormonal communication.

Main

1.  Drop the ruler reflex to demonstrate the reflex arc. Pupils to work in pairs. One pupil holds a dropped meter stick or ruler. One pupil extends their index finger to touch the ruler and the other pupil catches it. Measure the distance between the index finger and the ruler. Repeat several times and measure reaction response. Do this again after exercise and compare results. Pupils are likely to find an initial decrease in reaction after exercise but it could increase after a short rest.
2. Discuss results.
3.  Explain how blood glucose level is regulated by hormones.
4.  Explain how body temperature is regulated by the nervous system.
5.  Answer Questions 1 and 2 from the pack.
6. Go through the answers.

Plenary

Endocrine and hormonal mix and match: ask pupils to match properties of communication to either the nervous or endocrine systems, e.g. nervous system is electrical.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



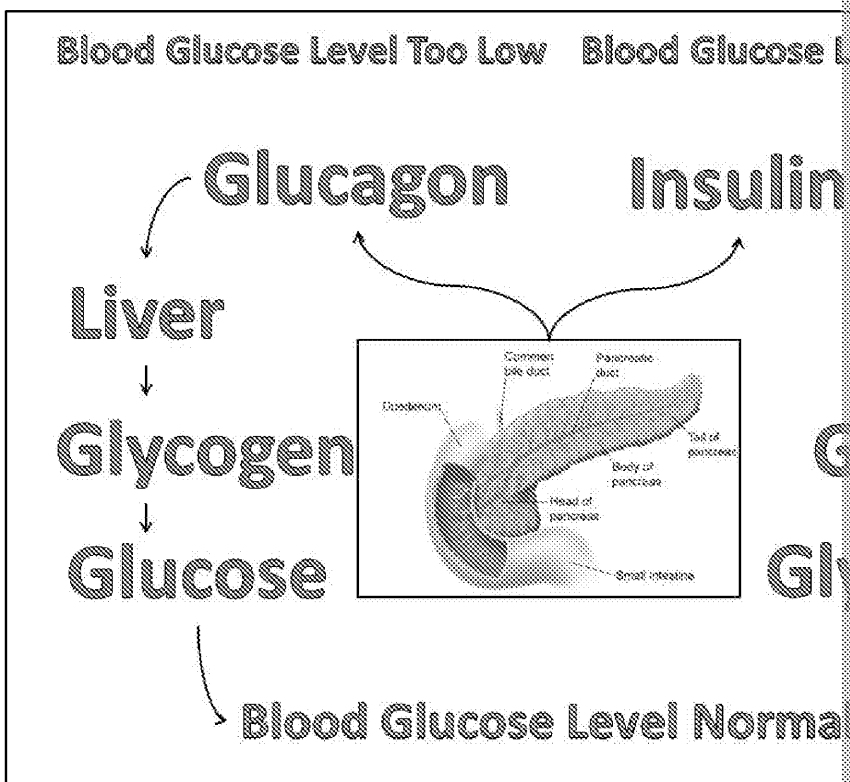
Blood Glucose Level

Blood glucose level is very important to regulate, not allowing it to go too high or too low. To regulate blood glucose levels we call the condition diabetes; this can have some serious complications if not treated, including death. Blood glucose level is regulated by the endocrine system.

Blood glucose level is regulated by a gland called the **pancreas** (which is just under the stomach). The pancreas senses that the blood sugar level is too high it manufactures and **secret**s **insulin** into the blood. Insulin's target organ is the **liver** and it causes the liver to remove any glucose from the blood and converts it to the insoluble **glycogen**.

If sugar levels decrease too much the pancreas secretes the hormone **glucagon**. This causes the **liver** to release the glycogen back into the blood; this time the glucagon converts the glycogen back into glucose.

Using these two hormones the pancreas is able to keep the average blood glucose level constant in about 100cm³ of blood.



Regulation of blood glucose level

Glucagon = hormone
Glucose = soluble carbohydrate
Glycogen = insoluble carbohydrate

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
 PROTECTED**



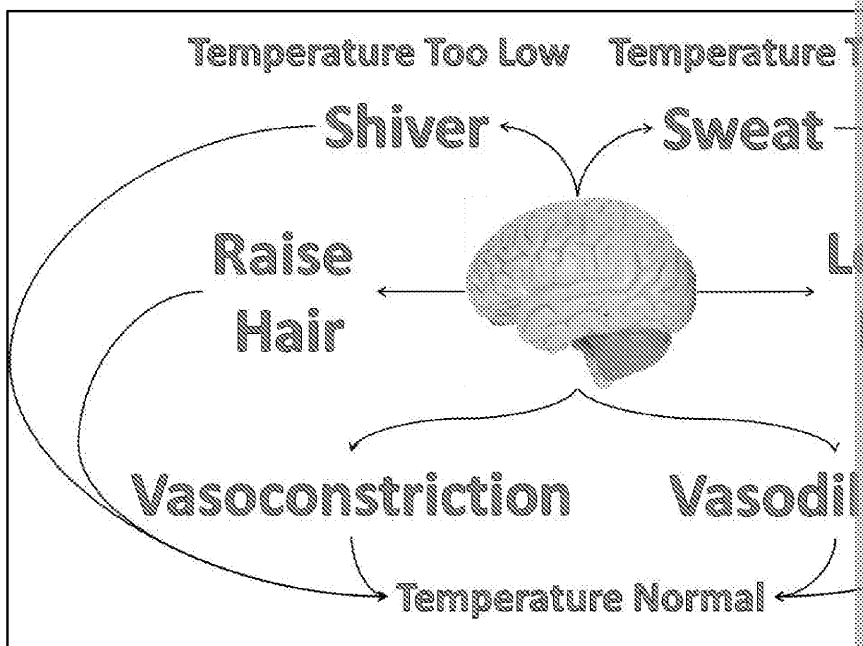
Body Temperature

Body temperature is another important internal environment we need to regulate. Our internal environment relies on a number of chemical reactions, including the body gets too cold then the **enzymes** that regulate these reactions stop working. If your body temperature is too low, your energy, your cells start to die and so, eventually, will you. On the other hand, if your body temperature is too high, your **enzymes** **denature** (stop working) and will not be able to carry out the same reactions, and you will die. To imagine an enzyme denaturing, think of the changes in an egg when you fry it. The nervous system controls body temperature.

Body temperature is controlled in a number of ways by the **thermoregulatory centre** in the brain. The thermoregulatory centre detects tiny temperature changes in the blood running through it. It is very sensitive it can detect temperature changes of just half of one degree, and will generate a response. It also has temperature receptors in the skin as well. If it detects that the blood is too hot it will generate a number of effects. One of the things that will happen is you will begin to sweat. Sweating cools the body down because it uses the heat energy in your body to evaporate. As it evaporates it takes away the energy that used to be inside you. That is why it is very uncomfortable on humid days. If the sweat does not evaporate easily and so it is more difficult to control your body temperature.

Your **body hair** will also flatten closer to your skin reducing any insulating air that is trapped between your skin and your hair. The **blood vessels** near your skin will also dilate (get wider); we call this vasodilation. This allows a greater amount of blood to enter the vessels near your skin where it will be the coolest. This is why you go red when you get hot; it is the extra blood running through the vessels near your skin.

If the thermoregulatory centre detects a drop in temperature it is also able to release hormones that cause muscles to twitch a little. This twitching releases energy in the form of heat. We know this better as **shivering**. The **body hair** will also rise trapping a layer of air between the skin and the hairs. Finally the blood vessels close to the skin constrict. This is called **vasoconstriction**. This prevents blood from entering the cooler parts of your body. This is the reason you start to turn white or blue in the cold; it is the lack of blood running through the vessels near your skin.



Regulation of temperature

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Lesson Plan 8 – Atomic Structure and the Periodic Table

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:

- Elements as metals or non-metals according to their position in the periodic table.
- The structure of the atom as a nucleus containing protons and neutrons and electron shells (energy levels).
- That the nucleus of an atom is very small compared to the overall size of the atom.
- That atoms of a given element have the same number of protons in the nucleus, which is unique to that element.
- the meaning of the terms 'atomic number', 'mass number' and 'relative atomic mass'.
- The relative charge and relative mass of a proton, a neutron and an electron.
- That atoms contain equal numbers of protons and electrons.
- That elements are arranged in the periodic table in order of increasing atomic number, called periods, and elements with similar properties are placed in the same columns, called groups.
- The existence of isotopes means some relative atomic masses are not whole numbers.
- The relative atomic mass of an element from the relative masses and abundances of its isotopes.
- The rules about the filling of electron shells (energy levels) to predict the electronic configuration of the first 20 elements in the periodic table as diagrams and in the form of a shorthand notation.
- The connection between the number of outer electrons and the position of an element in the periodic table.

Key words: atomic structure, periodic table, charge and mass, isotopes, electronic configuration

Starter

Show clip: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zGM-wSKFBpo>

Main

1. Explain that the periodic table is an arrangement of all the known elements, ordered by atomic number, with the metals on the left and the non-metals on the right.
2. Explain the structure of the atom.
3. Describe the data found on the periodic table and what it tells us about elements.
4. Describe the relative charge and mass of the sub-atomic particles.
5. Explain the terms 'period' and 'group', and that elements within a group have similar properties.
6. Explain the term 'isotope' and why not all atomic masses are whole numbers.
7. Explain how to draw the electronic configuration of the first 20 elements.
8. Explain how to represent electrons of the first 20 elements in the periodic table as diagrams and in the form of a shorthand notation.
9. Point out the link between group number and outer electron shell.
10. Pupils to answer Questions 1–17 from the pack.
11. Go through the answers.

Plenary

Show clip: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SmwlzwGMMwc>

Pupils are to invent their own element song or try to memorise Tom Lehrer's song.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Atomic Structure

Atoms are the smallest unit of matter and are arranged in the **periodic table of elements**. There are many ways of dividing the elements. One such way is into **metals** and **non-metals**. In general the metals are located on the left-hand side of the table whilst the non-metals (with the exception of hydrogen) can be found on the right of the table. On the periodic table on page 47, the non-metals are shaded.

Atoms (the smallest unit of matter) are made up of three things: **protons**, **neutrons** and **electrons**. The protons and neutrons are arranged together in the middle of the atom (we call this the **nucleus**); the electrons orbit around the outside of the nucleus in **shells** or **energy levels**.

An atom's nucleus is very small when related to the overall size of the atom. Most of the empty space in between the electrons. Although all atoms are different sizes, nucleus size and atom size can be made. If you imagine an atom scaled up to the size of a fly, imagine a fly buzzing around the centre spot then that would be the equivalent of the stadium would be empty space with a few specs of dust (the electrons) fly, however, account for the vast majority of the mass of the atom.

All atoms of a specific element have the same number of protons, and that number is the **atomic number**. For example, if you examined every carbon atom in the world you would find that they all have 6 protons. Then if you found the time to check all the atoms in the world you would find that none of them had a different number of protons. Clearly it is the number of protons that decides what that element is, so each element has a special number and it is given a special name. The number of protons in an element is the **atomic number**.

The meaning of the data on the periodic table:

12	←	Relative atomic mass is the (average) relative mass of an atom on the scale where a carbon-12 atom is the mass number.
C	←	Chemical symbol (the first letter is always capital; if there is a second it is lower case).
carbon	←	Chemical name.
6	←	Atomic number is the number of protons (it is also the number of electrons).

Relative Atomic Mass

The relative atomic masses in the table are based on a **comparison with** the mass of a carbon-12 atom. They are called **relative** atomic masses.

Carbon atoms contain six protons and six neutrons in their nucleus and six electrons. Electrons hardly have any mass so we ignore them when talking about mass. The mass of an atom is due to the protons and neutrons. Since protons and neutrons have **the same mass**, carbon atoms have 12 'mass units' (six protons + six neutrons = 12 mass units). Normally, we just say carbon has a relative atomic mass of 12.

The masses of all other atoms are compared to carbon, taking one atom of carbon as having a mass of 12; e.g. magnesium atoms are double the mass of carbon (twice as heavy) so they have a mass of 24. A magnesium atom has 12 protons and 12 neutrons so you can see that it has a relative atomic mass of 24 (12 p + 12 n = 24 mass units). Sometimes, however, we use **relative atomic masses**; e.g. the relative atomic mass of chlorine on the table is 35.5.

Here the idea of mass units seems to break down. The table shows that chlorine has a relative atomic mass of 35.5 so it has 17 protons, but to get 35.5 it would have to have 18.5 neutrons! This is because that chlorine exists as different atoms. Most chlorine atoms have 17p and 18n (35 mass units). Some chlorine atoms have 17p and 20n (37 mass units). These different forms of chlorine are called **isotopes**. The number 35.5 therefore represents an **average** value for the relative atomic mass.

INSPECTION COPY

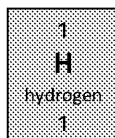
COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



The Periodic Table of Elements

1 2

Key



relative atomic mass
atomic symbol
name
atomic (proton) number

7 Li lithium 3	9 Be beryllium 4									
23 Na sodium 11	24 Mg magnesium 12	Transition Metals								
39 K potassium 19	40 Ca calcium 20	45 Sc scandium 21	48 Ti titanium 22	51 V vanadium 23	52 Cr chromium 24	55 Mn manganese 25	56 Fe iron 26	59 Co cobalt 27	59 Ni nickel 28	63.5 Cu copper 29
85 Rb rubidium 37	88 Sr strontium 38	89 Y yttrium 39	91 Zr zirconium 40	93 Nb niobium 41	96 Mo molybdenum 42	[98] Tc technetium 43	101 Ru ruthenium 44	103 Rh rhodium 45	106 Pd palladium 46	108 Ag silver 47
133 Cs caesium 55	137 Ba barium 56	139 La* lanthanum 57	178 Hf hafnium 72	181 Ta tantalum 73	184 W tungsten 74	186 Re rhenium 75	190 Os osmium 76	192 Ir iridium 77	195 Pt platinum 78	197 Au gold 79
223 Fr francium 87	226 Ra radium 88	227 Ac* actinium 89	261 Rf rutherfordium 104	262 Db dubnium 105	266 Sg seaborgium 106	264 Bh bohrium 107	277 Hs hassium 108	268 Mt meitnerium 109	271 Ds darmstadtium 110	272 Rg roentgenium 111

* The lanthanoids (atomic numbers 58–71) and the actinoids (atomic numbers 90–103) have been omitted for brevity. The relative atomic masses of copper and chlorine have not been rounded to the nearest whole number.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Charge and Mass

Each subatomic particle (proton, neutron, electron) has a charge and a mass.

Subatomic Particle	Relative Charge	Relative Mass
Proton	+ 1	1
Neutron	0 (No Charge)	1
Electron	- 1	Negligible (1/1836)

In an atom, the number of electrons is equal to the number of protons. As protons have a positive charge and electrons have a negative charge they cancel each other out giving atoms a neutral charge.

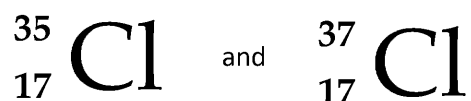
Arranging the Elements in the Periodic Table

Over the years there have been a number of attempts at arranging the elements. The modern periodic table arranges the elements in order of increasing atomic number. The rows are called **periods**. Atoms in period 1 will have one electron shell, atoms in period 2 will have two, and so on (more on electron shells later). The columns of the periodic table are called **groups**. Elements in the same group have similar chemical properties.

Isotopes

We have already seen that chlorine exists in two forms:

The two different types (isotopes) of chlorine mentioned above can be represented as follows:



These are known as chlorine 35 and chlorine 37 and are called the **isotopes** of chlorine.

Using this example you can see that **both** isotopes have 17 protons (the atomic number). The number of protons which decides what element it is. However one isotope has 18 neutrons (35-17) and the other isotope has 20 (37-17) neutrons.

From this we can write: atoms which have the same number of protons but a different number of neutrons are known as **isotopes**.

In the case of chlorine there are two types, chlorine-35 and chlorine-37. This means that in a sample of chlorine gas, some would have a mass of 35 and some would have a mass of 37. Those with a mass of 35 would have 18 neutrons; those with a mass of 37 would have 20 neutrons. The average mass of all the atoms in a sample. If there were equal amounts of chlorine-35 and chlorine-37 the average would be 36, but as there is greater abundance of chlorine-35 than chlorine-37 the average mass is 35.5.

INSPECTION COPY


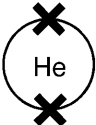
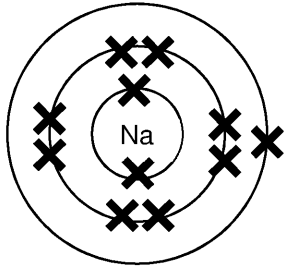

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Electron Shells

Electrons are arranged in shells or energy levels. The first shell is small, so can only hold two electrons. For all other shells the other shells can hold up to eight electrons each.

Electrons fill up the shells from the inner shell to the outer shell; the inner shells are full before placing electrons in the next shell.

<p>If we look at hydrogen we can see that its atomic number is 1; this means that it has one electron. As there is only one it goes into the first shell.</p> 	<p>If we look at helium we can see that its atomic number is 2; this means that it has two electrons. As there are only two they can both still go into the first shell.</p> 	<p>Lithium</p>
<p>Sodium has an atomic number of 11 (11 electrons); the first two electrons go into the first shell, the next eight electrons go into the second shell, and the final electron goes into a third shell.</p> 	<p>Potassium has an atomic number of 19 (19 electrons); the first two electrons go into the first shell, the next eight electrons go into the second shell, the next eight electrons go into the third shell, and the final electron goes into a fourth shell.</p> 	<p>Lithium</p>

This can be a complicated way to show the electron arrangement of atoms, so a simpler way is to use a shorthand notation where the number of electrons in each shell is separated by a full stop.

For example:

Hydrogen = 1	Oxygen = 2.6	Phosphorus = 2.8.5
Helium = 2	Fluorine = 2.7	Sulphur = 2.8.6
Lithium = 2.1	Neon = 2.8	Chlorine = 2.8.7
Beryllium = 2.2	Sodium = 2.8.1	Argon = 2.8.8
Boron = 2.3	Magnesium = 2.8.2	Potassium = 2.8.8.1
Carbon = 2.4	Aluminium = 2.8.3	Calcium = 2.8.8.2
Nitrogen = 2.5	Silicon = 2.8.4	

As we noted earlier, atoms in period 2 had two shells, etc. There is a similar pattern where the number of shells is equal to the group number. All atoms in group 1 have one electron in the outer shell and so on.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Atomic Structure and The Periodic Table

- The periodic table is an arrangement of elements. Where on the periodic table would you find the metals?
- Where on the periodic table would you find the non-metals?
- An atom is the simplest form of matter. Where in an atom will you find
 - Protons
 - Neutrons
 - Electrons
 - Nucleus
- True or false? The nucleus accounts for most of the mass of an atom.
- True or false? The nucleus accounts for most of the space within an atom.
- Choose the correct words.
All atoms of an element have **the same / a different** number of protons.
Different types of atoms have **the same / a different** number of protons.
Atoms have **the same / a different** number of electrons and protons.
- Define the terms:
 - Relative atomic mass
 - Atomic number
- How are atoms arranged in the periodic table?
- What do we call the rows in the periodic table?
- What do we call the columns in the periodic table?
- Some atoms have isotopes. What are isotopes?
- Give an example of an isotope.
- Why is the relative atomic mass of chlorine not 36?
- Draw the electronic configuration of:
 - Hydrogen
 - Helium
 - Lithium
 - Oxygen
 - Sodium
 - Magnesium
 - Potassium
 - Carbon
 - Fluorine
 - Chlorine
- Write the electronic configuration for the first 20 elements in the periodic table.
- How is the number of electrons in the outer shell of an atom related to its position in the periodic table?
- Copy and complete.

Subatomic Particle	Relative Charge	Relative Mass
	+1	1
Neutron		
Electron		

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Atomic Structure and The Periodic Table

1. The periodic table is an arrangement of elements. Where on the periodic table are the metals?

.....

2. Where on the periodic table would you find the non-metals?

.....

3. An atom is the simplest form of matter. Where in an atom will you find

a. Protons

.....

b. Neutrons

.....

c. Electrons

.....

d. Nucleus

.....

4. True or false? The nucleus accounts for most of the mass of an atom.

5. True or false? The nucleus accounts for most of the space within an atom.

6. Choose the correct words.

All atoms of an element have **the same / a different** number of protons.

Different types of atoms have **the same / a different** number of protons.

Atoms have **the same / a different** number of electrons and protons.

7. Define the terms:

a. Relative atomic mass

.....

b. Atomic number

.....

8. How are atoms arranged in the periodic table?

.....

9. What do we call the rows in the periodic table?

.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



10. What do we call the columns in the periodic table?

.....

11. Some atoms have isotopes. What are isotopes?

.....

.....

12. Give an example of an isotope.

.....

13. Why is the relative atomic mass of chlorine not 36?

.....

.....

14. Draw the electronic configuration of:

a. Hydrogen

b. Helium

c. Lithium

d. Oxygen

e. Sodium

f. Magnesium

g. Potassium

h. Carbon

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



i. Fluorine

j. Chlorine

15. Write the electronic configuration for the first 20 elements in the period

- | | | | |
|----|-------|----|-------|
| 1 | | 2 | |
| 3 | | 4 | |
| 5 | | 6 | |
| 7 | | 8 | |
| 9 | | 10 | |
| 11 | | 12 | |
| 13 | | 14 | |
| 15 | | 16 | |
| 17 | | 18 | |
| 19 | | 20 | |

16. How is the number of electrons in the outer shell of an atom related to

.....

17. Complete the table.

Subatomic Particle	Relative Charge	Relative
	+ 1	1
Neutron		
Electron		

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Lesson Plan 9 – Chemical Substances, Reactions

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:

- How to use the periodic table to recognise elements and formulae of simple compounds
- The difference between elements, compounds, mixtures, molecules
- How to write word chemical equations and simple balanced equations
- That chemicals react to form products with different properties including colour, state, temperature, etc.

Key words: chemical substances, chemical reactions, atom, element, compound, word equations, symbol equations, questions.

Starter

Pupils are to sing their songs from last lesson.

Main

1. Explain how to use the periodic table to identify elements and compounds.
2. Explain the difference between the words 'atom', 'element', 'compound', 'mixture' and 'molecule' with examples.
3. Explain the basics of a chemical reaction.
4. Explain how to write simple word and balanced symbol equations.
5. Answer Questions 1–4 from the pack.
6. Go through the answers.

Plenary

Atom, element, compound, mixture bingo. Make bingo cards of various atoms, elements, compounds and mixtures and hand out to class. Call out a description of the atoms, elements, compounds and mixtures and pupils to mark off as they are called.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Chemical Substances and Chemical Reactions

The periodic table is a list of all the known types of atoms. An element can be described as a substance in which all the atoms are the same.

So for example if you were lucky enough to discover some pure gold all the atoms within it would be gold atoms.

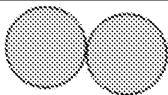
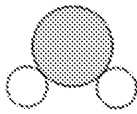

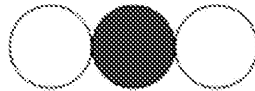
All atoms have their own symbol; for example gold is Au. The first letter of every symbol **must** be a capital letter; if there is a second letter it **must** be written in lower case. This is very important to avoid confusion; e.g. Co is the symbol for a cobalt atom whereas CO is the formula for a molecule of carbon monoxide.

We can use these symbols to construct the formulae of compounds too. Compounds are substances in which two or more atoms have been chemically joined together to form a different substance; e.g. oxygen (element) and hydrogen (element) can be chemically joined to form water (compound).

Commonly Confused Words

Atom	Atoms are the smallest unit of matter. They are made up of three electrons . The protons and neutrons are arranged together in the nucleus ; the electrons orbit around the outside of the nucleus.
Element	All the atoms in a substance are the same, e.g. hydrogen gas.
Compound	A substance in which two or more different atoms have been chemically joined together to form a different substance, e.g. hydrogen and oxygen combining to make water.
Mixture	When two or more substances have been jumbled together (not joined together) and can be separated again; e.g. the air is a mixture of nitrogen, oxygen, water vapour, etc.
Molecule	A small unit of matter made of two or more atoms bonded together to form a compound or an element.

Examples of elements and compounds

	oxygen molecule	O_2	units of matter in an element
	water molecule	H_2O	units of matter in a compound
	hydrogen molecule	H_2	units of matter in an element
	carbon dioxide molecule	CO_2	units of matter in a compound

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



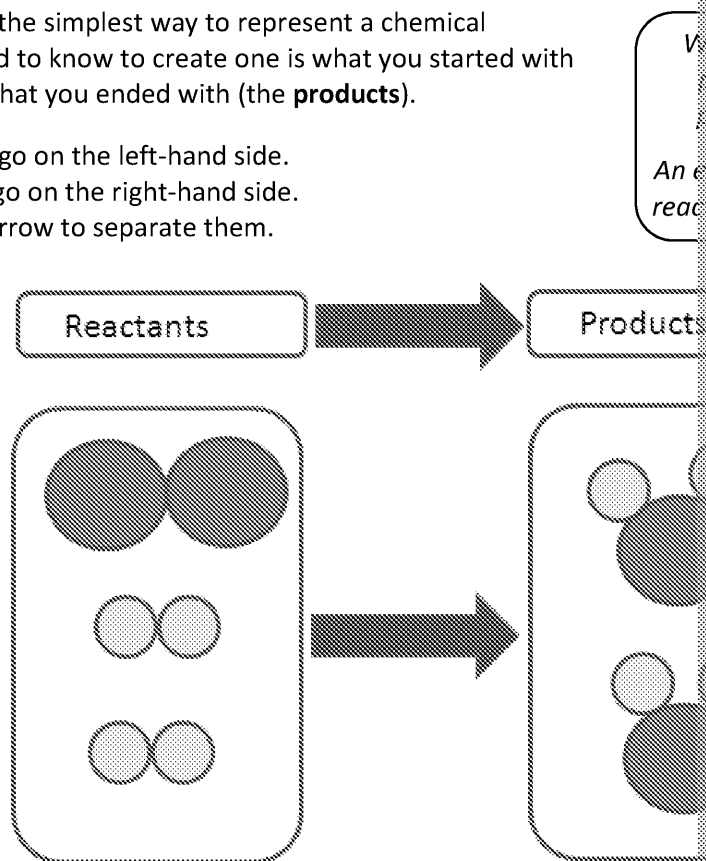
Equations

In Chemistry we frequently need to represent chemical reactions. Chemical reactions are substances that chemically combine with other substances to create a different substance. Think of ingredients in a recipe. Ingredients undergo a chemical reaction in the oven. We can do this in one of two ways: using a word equation, and the other is using a symbol equation. We will look at these in turn.

Word Equations

Word equations are the simplest way to represent a chemical equation. All you need to know to create one is what you started with (the **reactants**) and what you ended with (the **products**).

The reactants always go on the left-hand side.
The products always go on the right-hand side.
Normally we use an arrow to separate them.



Symbol Equations

For this section we will consider the task of writing the **symbol** equation for the reaction of hydrogen and oxygen producing water.

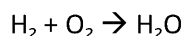
The **word** equation for this is simple:



We will now try to construct the **symbol** equation for this reaction.

There are many steps in writing a symbol equation; all but the last step is incomplete. To write a symbol equation we need to know a little bit more.

Step 1: First we need to know the symbols of elements which we can look up on the periodic table. The symbol equation for the above reaction would be:



Remember that the first letter of every atomic symbol **must** be capital and the second letter must be lower case.

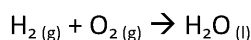
We must also check the formula; for example we must put O_2 because the oxygen exists as a diatomic molecule. Also note that the 2 is small and just below the O.

INSPECTION COPY

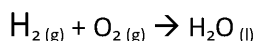
COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Step 2 involves adding states of matter symbols to the equation. Remember the solid, liquid and gas. These are shown on the equation by (s), (l), and (g). Sometimes a substance can be dissolved in water, in which case we say it is aqueous or (aq). So our equation becomes:

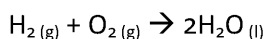


But it's still not quite right yet. A basic scientific law states 'matter cannot be created or destroyed' that we must always have the same number of atoms of each element at the end of the reaction as at the beginning of the reaction.

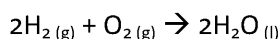


In the reactants we have two hydrogen atoms and two oxygen atoms.
In the products we have two hydrogen atoms but only one oxygen atom.

Step 3: To overcome this we must **balance** the equation. To balance equations we look at the beginning of the substances in question. At the moment we don't have enough oxygen on the product side of the equation; we have one but we need two. To solve this we place the figure 2 in front of the product; we simply place a number in the middle or end of a substance as that would be a different substance. So it becomes:



That solves the oxygen problem but has created a new problem. Now our product has four hydrogen atoms on the product side but only two on the reactant side. To overcome this we place a 2 in front of the H_2 . So it becomes:



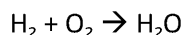
We call this a balanced chemical equation.

It might help your understanding if you realise that when you are 'balancing equations' you are changing the 'ratio' of the molecules involved until you get the same number of atoms at the end of the reaction. When we change the ratio of molecules involved we clearly have to put numbers **in front** of the molecules.

Remember

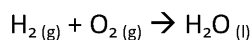
Step 1

Write the symbol equation and check formulae



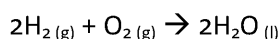
Step 2

Add the state symbols



Step 3

Balance



Differences between Number Meaning

H_2O means two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom. The small number **only** refers to the number of atoms before it.

Adding a number at the beginning multiplies **everything** by that number. So:

$2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ means four hydrogen atoms and two oxygen atoms.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Chemical Substances, Reaction

1. Complete the table, writing the formula/symbol for each substance and state whether that substance is a compound or an element.

Substance	Formula/Symbol	Compound or Element
Water	H ₂ O	Compound
Oxygen	O ₂	Element
Carbon Dioxide	CO ₂	Compound
Hydrogen	H ₂	Element
Carbon Monoxide	CO	Compound
Methane	CH ₄	Compound
Magnesium Oxide	MgO	Compound
Gold	Au	Element
Sodium Chloride	NaCl	Compound
Carbon	C	Element
Silicon	Si	Element
Nitrogen	N ₂	Element
Ammonia	NH ₃	Compound
Iron	Fe	Element

2. Describe the differences between an atom, an element, a compound and a mixture.
3. Balance the following equations:
- $\text{FeO}_{(s)} + \text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{FeCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{CuO}_{(s)} + \text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CuCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{CaCO}_{3(s)} + \text{HNO}_{3(aq)} \rightarrow \text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_{2(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_{3(s)} + \text{HNO}_{3(aq)} \rightarrow \text{NaNO}_{3(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{CuCO}_{3(s)} + \text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CuCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{Ca}_{(s)} + \text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CaCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_{2(g)}$
 - $\text{Mg}_{(s)} + \text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{MgCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_{2(g)}$
4. Use the periodic table to identify the following elements and compounds:
- H₂
 - O₂
 - MgO
 - C
 - CO
 - Co
 - Element with atomic number 17
 - Element with 6 protons
 - Element with 5 neutrons
 - Element with 79 electrons
 - An isotope
 - A non-metal in group 3
 - Two elements with a relative atomic mass of 40
 - An element with no neutrons

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Chemical Substances, Reaction

1. Copy and complete the table, writing the formula/symbol for each substance and whether that substance is a compound or an element.

Substance	Formula/Symbol	Compound or Element
Water	H ₂ O	Compound
Oxygen	O ₂	Element
Carbon Dioxide	CO ₂	Compound
Hydrogen	H ₂	Element
Carbon Monoxide	CO	Compound
Methane	CH ₄	Compound
Magnesium Oxide	MgO	Compound
Gold	Au	Element
Sodium Chloride	NaCl	Compound
Carbon	C	Element
Silicon	Si	Element
Nitrogen	N ₂	Element
Ammonia	NH ₃	Compound
Iron	Fe	Element

2. Describe the differences between an atom, an element, a compound and a mixture.

.....

.....

.....

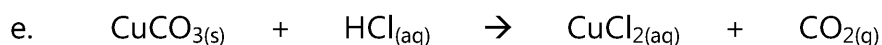
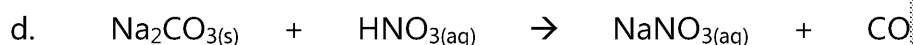
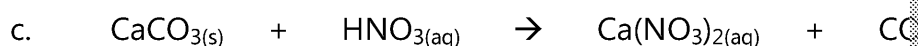
.....

.....

.....

.....

3. Balance the following equations:



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



4. Use the periodic table to identify the following elements and compounds
- a. H₂
 - b. O₂
 - c. MgO
 - d. C
 - e. CO
 - f. Co
 - g. Element with atomic number 17
 - h. Element with 6 protons
 - i. Element with 5 neutrons
 - j. Element with 79 electrons
 - k. An isotope
 - l. A non-metal in group 3
 - m. Two elements with a relative atomic mass of 40
 - n. An element with no neutrons

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 10 – Hazard Symbols and Neutralisation

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:







- Hazard symbols
- Neutralisation reactions using hydrochloric acid, nitric acid and sulphuric acid or a metal hydroxide
- How to write word chemical equations and simple balanced equations

Key words: hazard symbols, neutralisation reactions, metal hydroxides and acids, questions.

Starter

Ask pupils to list any warning or hazard signs they have seen this week.

Main

1. Go through responses.
2.  Show pupils common hazard symbols including examples of laboratory and household substances displaying such symbols.
3.  Explain what a neutralisation reaction is.
4.  Pupils to react metal hydroxides and metal oxides with acid. For each reaction use a universal indicator and 10cm³ of hydrochloric acid into a small beaker. Add sodium hydroxide drop-wise and note the change in colour. Once the reaction is complete.
5.  Pupils to note the reaction. They should be able to write the word equation and balance the symbol equation for all reactions.
6.  Pupils to produce a poster on the applications of neutralisation reactions.
7.  Answer Questions 1–5 from the pack.
8. Go through the answers.

Plenary

Match the products to the reactants mix and match. Ask pupils to match a product to a reactant; e.g. Copper (II) Oxide + Hydrochloric Acid → Copper (II) Chloride

INSPECTION COPY


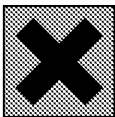
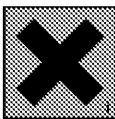





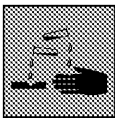

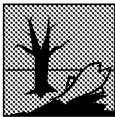
**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Hazard Symbols

You have probably seen warning signs or hazard symbols on roads and on household products. Hazard symbols are there to grab our attention and highlight possible misusing items and causing harm to ourselves and others.

The square hazard symbols in the table below are the ones that you are most likely to see on containers in the lab. These were updated in December 2010 with new diamond symbols. Remember to learn these new symbols for your exam.

Hazard	Symbol	Old symbol(s)	Description
CAUTION (previously 'harmful' and 'irritant')		 Harmful  Irritant	Substances labelled 'caution' symbol used as either 'harmful' or 'irritant'. Harmful substances can cause damage if they are inhaled, swallowed, or absorbed. Irritant substances can cause irritation but can cause irritation to skin upon contact.
FLAMMABLE			Flammable substances catch fire very easily.
TOXIC (also called 'acute toxicity')			Toxic substances can be harmful if swallowed or cause other effects on contact.
CORROSIVE			Corrosive substances can damage living tissues upon contact.
HAZARDOUS TO THE AQUATIC ENVIRONMENT (previously 'dangerous for the environment')			These substances can cause immediate or delayed effects on the aquatic environment.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

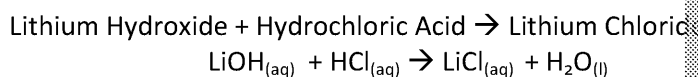
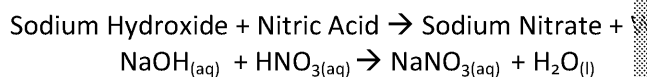
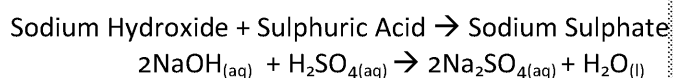
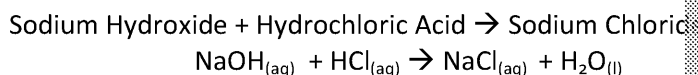


Neutralisation Reactions

Neutralisation reactions are reactions between acids (chemicals which have a pH which have a pH of 8–14) to produce a neutral salt (pH 7) and water. If the base is an alkali.

Metal Hydroxides and Acids

There are many different types of neutralisation reaction. One example is between sodium hydroxide and hydrochloric acid:

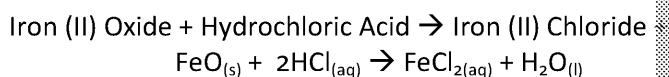
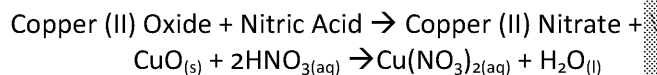
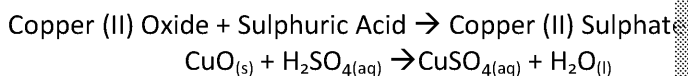
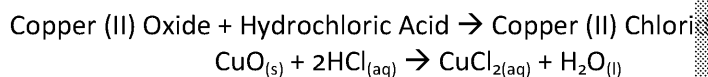


This can be summarised by the equation:



Metal Oxides and Acids

Another type is between metal oxides and acid, for example:



This can be summarised by the equation:



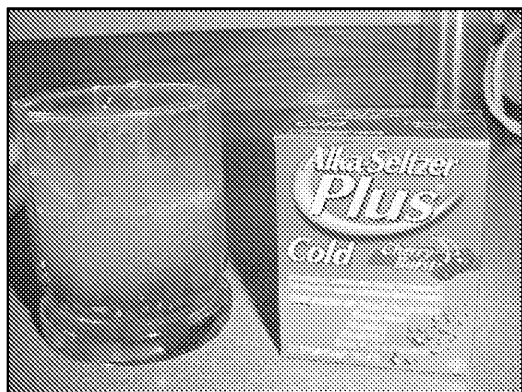
INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Applications of Neutralisation Reactions

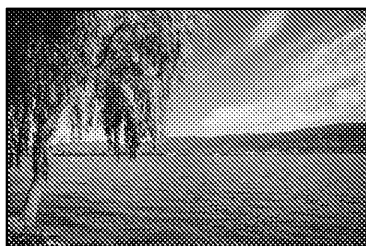
Neutralisation reactions can be very useful.



If you have ever had heartburn or used Gaviscon or other indigestion

Heartburn or acid indigestion is caused by the acid in the stomach reacting with the lining of the oesophagus (the pipe connecting the stomach to the mouth). The stomach is lined with a protective mucus coating to protect it from harming it; however, the oesophagus does not have this protection. Gaviscon and other remedies contain **aluminium hydroxide**, **calcium carbonate** and **sodium bicarbonate**, which react with the acid in a neutralisation reaction to form water and a salt. The safe dose of these remedies is 16 tablets per day.

Neutralisation reactions are also used in agriculture and gardening to reduce the acidity of soils. Acidic soils can cause a number of problems to plants such as aluminium toxicity and damage to the roots. The most common way to increase soil pH is the addition of calcium carbonate and magnesium carbonate (CaCO_3 or MgCO_3), which is finely ground into a powder called lime. Other substances that can be used to increase the pH of soil include wood ash, calcium oxide (CaO) and oyster shells. These all react with the acid in the soil to produce carbon dioxide, water and a variety of salts (the particular salt formed depends on which acid was present).



Acid rain causes increased acidity in large bodies of water such as lakes

Acid rain, caused by man-made pollutants reacting with water, causes the increased acidity of the water in rivers and lakes, which has a negative impact on the plants and animals that live in them. A number of things can be done to reduce the acidity.

One treatment is the addition of calcium oxide to the water to form calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH)_2), which then reacts with the acid in a neutralisation reaction.

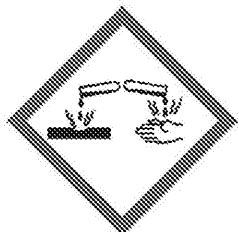
INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Exam-Style Questions – Hazard Symbols and Neutralisation

1. Match the hazard symbol with the meaning.



<p>Corrosive</p> <p>Includes harmful and irritant substances that can cause damage to the skin, eyes or respiratory system. Irritant substances are not corrosive but can cause irritation.</p>
<p>Toxic</p> <p>These substances can cause very serious effects if inhaled, swallowed or absorbed via the skin.</p>
<p>Flammable</p> <p>These substances can catch fire easily.</p>
<p>Dangerous to the Environment</p> <p>These substances can cause damage to the aquatic environment.</p>
<p>Corrosive</p> <p>These substances can cause severe damage to the skin, eyes or respiratory system.</p>

2. Write the balanced chemical equations for the following reactions:
- Sodium Hydroxide + Hydrochloric Acid → Sodium Chloride + Water
 - Sodium Hydroxide + Sulphuric Acid → Sodium Sulphate + Water
 - Iron (II) Oxide + Nitric Acid → Iron(II) Nitrate + Water
 - Copper (II) Oxide + Hydrochloric Acid → Copper (II) Chloride + Water
3. Write the word equations for the following chemical reactions:
- $\text{NaOH}_{(aq)} + \text{HNO}_{3(aq)} \rightarrow \text{NaNO}_{3(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{LiOH}_{(aq)} + \text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{LiCl}_{(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{FeO}_{(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{FeCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{FeO}_{(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_{4(aq)} \rightarrow \text{FeSO}_{4(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
4. What is the generalised word equation for the reaction of an acid with a metal?
5. What is the generalised word equation for the reaction of an acid with a metal oxide?

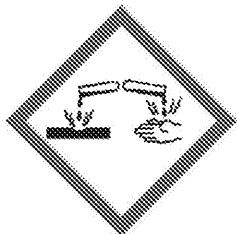
INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Hazard Symbols and Neutralisation

1. Match the hazard symbol with the meaning.



<p>Ca</p> <p>Includes harmful and ir substances can cause dam absorbed via the skin. In corrosive but can cause irr co</p>
<p>T</p> <p>These substances can caus very serious ef</p>
<p>Flam</p> <p>These substances c</p>
<p>Dangerous to the A</p> <p>These substances can ca damage to the ac</p>
<p>Cor</p> <p>These substances can c co</p>

2. Write the balanced chemical equations for the following reactions:

a. Sodium Hydroxide + Hydrochloric Acid → Sodium Chloride + Wa

.....

b. Sodium Hydroxide + Sulphuric Acid → Sodium Sulphate + Water

.....

c. Iron (II) Oxide + Nitric Acid → Iron(II) Nitrate + Water

.....

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



d. Copper (II) Oxide + Hydrochloric Acid \rightarrow Copper (II) Chloride + Water

.....

3. Write the word equations for the following chemical reactions:

a. $\text{NaOH}_{(aq)} + \text{HNO}_{3(aq)} \rightarrow \text{NaNO}_{3(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$

.....

b. $\text{LiOH}_{(aq)} + \text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{LiCl}_{(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$

.....

c. $\text{FeO}_{(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{FeCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$

.....

d. $\text{FeO}_{(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_{4(aq)} \rightarrow \text{FeSO}_{4(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$

.....

4. What is the generalised word equation for the reaction of an acid with a metal?

.....

5. What is the generalised word equation for the reaction of an acid with a metal oxide?

.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 11 – Exploring Chemical Reactions

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:








- The reactions of hydrochloric acid and sulphuric acid with metals (no)
- The reactions of hydrochloric acid, sulphuric acid and nitric acid with metal carbonate and calcium carbonate.
- The chemical tests for hydrogen and carbon dioxide.

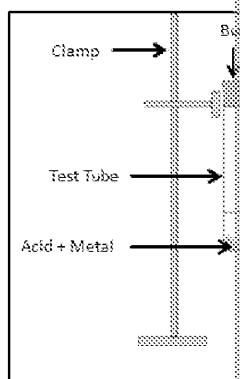
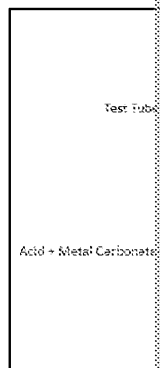
Key words: metal carbonates and acid, metals and acids, testing for carbon dioxide, hydrogen, questions.

Starter

Ask pupils: what is a neutralisation reaction?

Main

1.  Explain how metal carbonates react with hydrochloric acid, sulphuric acid and nitric acid.
2.  Explain how metals react with hydrochloric acid and sulphuric acid.
3.  Demonstrate how to test for carbon dioxide and hydrogen.
4.  Answer Questions 1–5 from the pack.
5. Go through the answers.
6.  Pupils to react metal carbonates, e.g. 2 g of calcium carbonate reacted with 6 cm³ 2 mol dm⁻³ hydrochloric acid and test the gas coming off. See diagram (right).
7.  Pupils to react metal with acid and test the gas coming off, e.g. 4 cm of magnesium ribbon reacted with 6 cm³ 2 mol dm⁻³ hydrochloric acid. Place a lit splint next to the gas in the tube, which will create a pop. See diagram (right).
8.  Pupils to note the reaction. They should be able to write the word equation, balance the symbol equation for all reactions.
9. Go through results.



INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

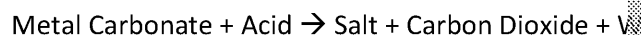


Plenary

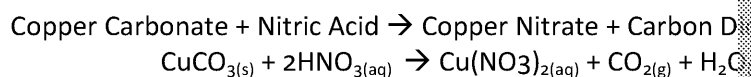
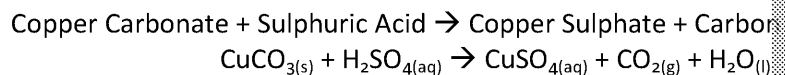
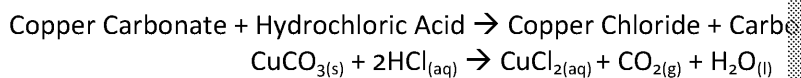
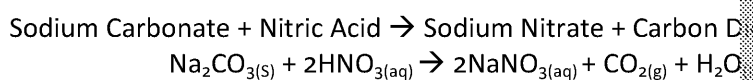
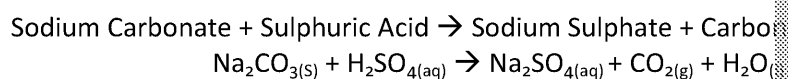
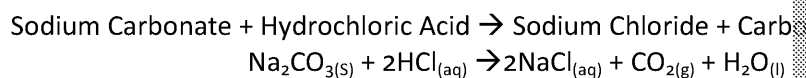
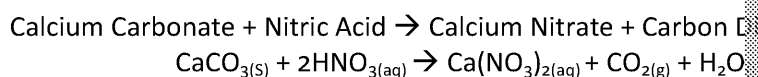
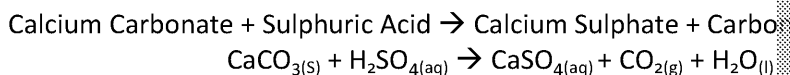
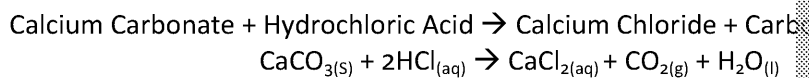
Text it: Pupils to describe the reactions of acids with metals and carbonate

Metal Carbonates and Acids

Acids will also undergo a neutralisation reaction with metal carbonates. The general equation is:

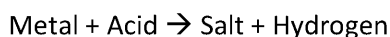


Examples:

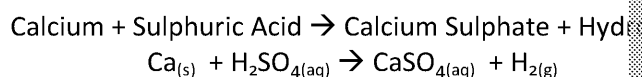
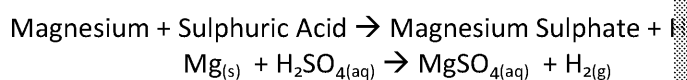
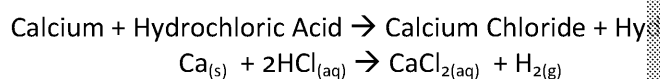
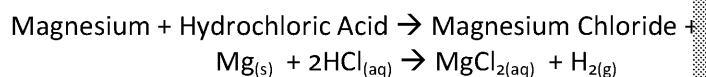


Metals and Acids

Metals also react with acids. The general equation for this is:



Examples:



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



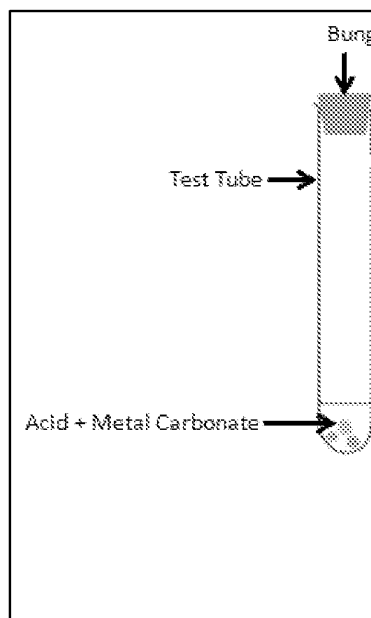
Testing for Gases

As we have seen, sometimes a gas is evolved (given off) during a chemical reaction. To distinguish between the gases which are given off if they have no smell or colour, test tube reactions we can carry out to determine which gas has been evolved.

Carbon Dioxide

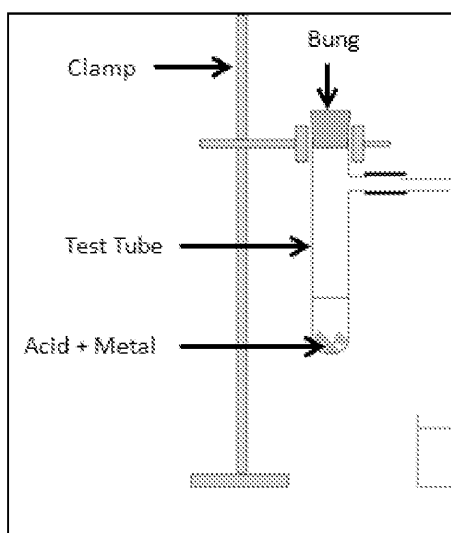
If you bubble carbon dioxide through lime water the lime water will turn from colourless to milky.

In addition carbon dioxide can also be tested for with a flaming splint. Carbon dioxide will cause the splint to go out.



Hydrogen

Hydrogen can be collected using the apparatus shown on the right. Hydrogen will be made in the reaction and will collect in the second test tube displacing the water within. Once the test tube is filled with gas remove the test tube from the water and immediately place a lit splint next to the open end of the tube. You will hear a high pitched sound. This is commonly called the squeaky pop test.



Another common test is the test for oxygen. Collect oxygen in as described in the hydrogen method, only substituting suit. The test is to place a recently blown-out splint inside the test. If oxygen is present the splint will reignite.

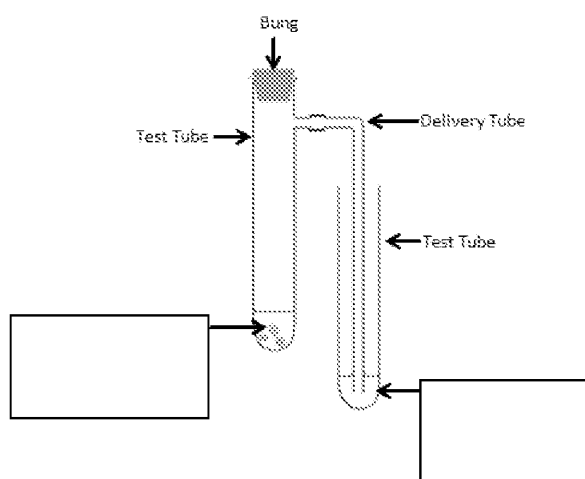
INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Exam-Style Questions – Exploring Chemical Reactions

- Write the balanced chemical equations for the following reactions:
 - Calcium Carbonate + Hydrochloric Acid \rightarrow Calcium Chloride + Carbon Dioxide + Water
 - Sodium Carbonate + Sulphuric Acid \rightarrow Sodium Sulphate + Carbon Dioxide + Water
 - Copper Carbonate + Nitric Acid \rightarrow Copper Nitrate + Carbon Dioxide + Water
 - Magnesium + Hydrochloric Acid \rightarrow Magnesium Chloride + Hydrogen
 - Calcium + Sulphuric Acid \rightarrow Calcium Sulphate + Hydrogen
- Write the word equations for the following chemical reaction:
 - $\text{CaCO}_{3(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_{4(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CaSO}_{4(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O(l)}$
 - $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_{3(s)} + 2\text{HNO}_{3(aq)} \rightarrow 2\text{NaNO}_{3(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O(l)}$
 - $\text{CuCO}_{3(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CuCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O(l)}$
 - $\text{Mg}_{(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_{4(aq)} \rightarrow \text{MgSO}_{4(aq)} + \text{H}_{2(g)}$
 - $\text{Ca}_{(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CaCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_{2(g)}$
- Carbon dioxide is often given off during a chemical reaction. Copy and complete the diagram showing the collection and testing of carbon dioxide.



- Another gas which is often given off in a chemical reaction is hydrogen. Copy and complete the diagram showing the collection and testing of hydrogen.

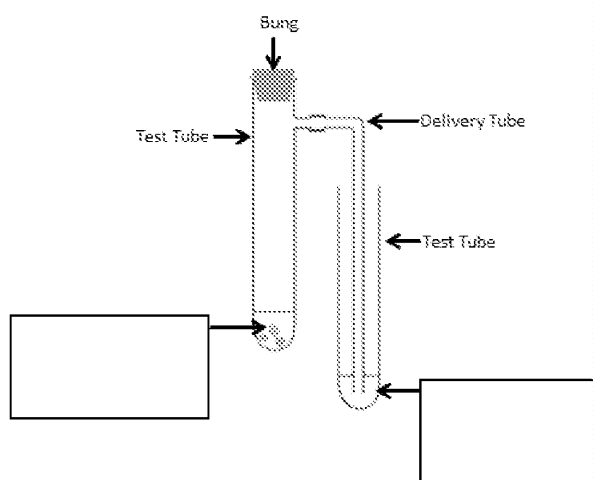
**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

Exam-Style Questions – Exploring Chemical Reactions

1. Write the balanced chemical equations for the following reactions:
- a. Calcium Carbonate + Hydrochloric Acid \rightarrow Calcium Chloride + Carbon Dioxide
.....
.....
- b. Sodium Carbonate + Sulphuric Acid \rightarrow Sodium Sulphate + Carbon Dioxide
.....
.....
- c. Copper Carbonate + Nitric Acid \rightarrow Copper Nitrate + Carbon Dioxide
.....
.....
- d. Magnesium + Hydrochloric Acid \rightarrow Magnesium Chloride + Hydrogen
.....
.....
- e. Calcium + Sulphuric Acid \rightarrow Calcium Sulphate + Hydrogen
.....
.....
2. Write the word equations for the following chemical reaction:
- a. $\text{CaCO}_{3(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_{4(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CaSO}_{4(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
.....
.....
- b. $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_{3(s)} + 2\text{HNO}_{3(aq)} \rightarrow 2\text{NaNO}_{3(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
.....
.....
- c. $\text{CuCO}_{3(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CuCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
.....
.....
- d. $\text{Mg}_{(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_{4(aq)} \rightarrow \text{MgSO}_{4(aq)} + \text{H}_2(g)$
.....
.....
- e. $\text{Ca}_{(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CaCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_2(g)$
.....
.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

3. Carbon dioxide is often given off during a chemical reaction. Complete and testing of carbon dioxide.



4. Another gas which is often given off in a chemical reaction is hydrogen.

.....

.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 12 – pH and Universal Indicators

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:




- How to use pH tests using universal indicator and litmus

Key words: pH scale, universal indicator, litmus, questions.

Starter

Ask pupils to describe the importance of car indicators.

Main

1. Explain the pH scale.
2.  Explain how to use universal indicator and litmus paper.
3. Answer Questions 1 and 2 from the pack.
4. Go through the answers.
5.  Using universal indicator to identify unknown samples. Place hydrochloric acid, 1 mol dm⁻³ sodium hydroxide and water into beakers. Add 2 cm³ of samples to a few drops of indicator and identify by colour. Universal indicator will turn red in the presence of acid.
6.  Making your own universal indicator. Calibration and identification. Same as above but pupils to make their own indicator by boiling red cabbage for five minutes and use filtrate as the indicator. Use the same method as before for acid/alkali/neutral identification.
7. Go through results and show the most vivid colour changes.

Plenary

Pupils to write a rap/song/poem about the importance of indicators in science.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



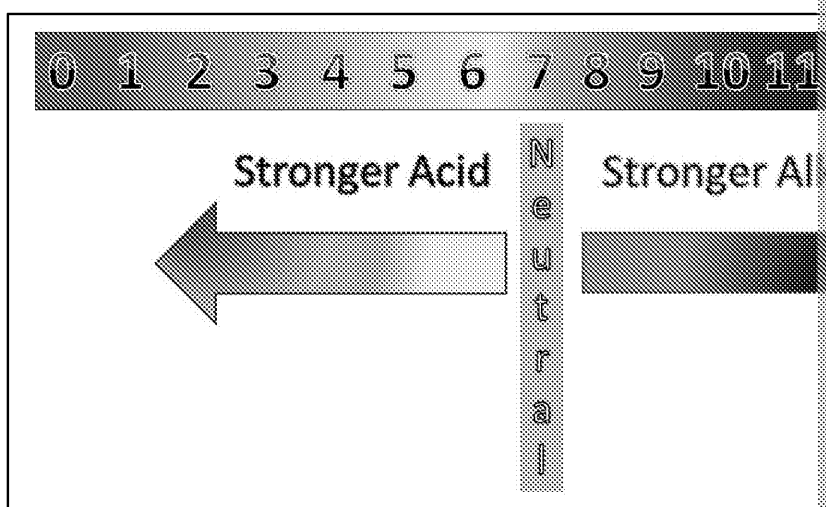
pH Tests

pH is a measure of the acidity or alkalinity of a substance. If the substance has a pH of 1–7 it is acidic and if the substance has a pH of 8–14 it is alkaline and if the substance has a pH of 7 it is neutral. There are a number of different indicators we can use to tell if a substance is acidic or alkaline. The most common are universal indicator and litmus paper.

Universal Indicator

Universal indicator can either be in the form of small strips of paper or in the form of drops of the liquid or a piece of the paper are placed in a sample of the substance and a colour change occurs.

- Acids will turn the indicator red.
- Alkalis will turn the indicator blue.
- Neutral substances will turn the indicator green.



Litmus Paper

There are a number of different types of litmus paper. In general it works in the same way as universal indicator; it will turn red in the presence of acids, blue in the presence of an alkaline substance and green unchanged in the presence of a neutral substance.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Exam-Style Questions – pH and Universal Indicator

1. Copy and complete:

_____ is a measure of the acidity or alkalinity of a substance. If
0–6 it is an _____, if the substance has a pH of 8–14 it is _____
has a pH of 7 it is _____.

2. Copy the sentences with the correct word.

Acids will turn universal indicator **red/blue/green**.

Alkalis will turn the universal indicator **red/blue/green**.

Neutral substances will turn the universal indicator **red/blue/green**.

**Exam-Style Questions – pH and Universal Indicator**

1. Complete:

_____ is a measure of the acidity or alkalinity of a substance. If
0–6 it is an _____, if the substance has a pH of 8–14 it is _____
has a pH of 7 it is _____.

2. Circle the correct word.

Acids will turn universal indicator **red/blue/green**.

Alkalis will turn the universal indicator **red/blue/green**.

Neutral substances will turn the universal indicator **red/blue/green**.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 13 – Energy Forms and Energy

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:

Forms of energy and their uses:

- thermal
- electrical
- light
- sound
- mechanical (kinetic and potential)
- nuclear

Energy stores and their uses:




- chemical
- kinetic (in a moving object)
- gravitational potential (due to the position of an object in a gravitational field)
- elastic potential (in a stretched or compressed spring)
- thermal (in a warm object)
- nuclear

Key words: energy; thermal, electrical, light, sound, kinetic, gravitational potential, elastic potential, questions.

Starter

Ask pupils to list as many forms of energy they can think of.

Main

1.  State the listed forms of energy (thermal, electrical, light, sound, kinetic, nuclear, chemical, elastic potential) showing examples of each.
2.  For each of the forms of energy listed (thermal, electrical, light, sound, kinetic, potential, nuclear, chemical, elastic potential), describe the human uses of each over time.
3.  Pupils to answer Questions 1–11.
4. Go through the answers.

Plenary

Energy and their uses mix and match. Ask pupils to match a list of nine energy stores to their uses, e.g. light → illumination.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Energy

Energy can be defined as having the ability to do work and is measured in a unit. There are a number of different forms of energy including:

Energy Forms

- **Thermal** – also known as heat energy
- **Electrical** – the energy between objects of different electrical charge and generated by a power source
- **Light** – such as the energy from the Sun
- **Sound** – the energy transmitted by vibrating objects
- **Kinetic** – energy within a moving object
- **Potential** – energy an object has owing to its position
- **Mechanical** – the sum of the kinetic energy and the potential energy of an object
- **Nuclear** – energy in the nuclei of atoms

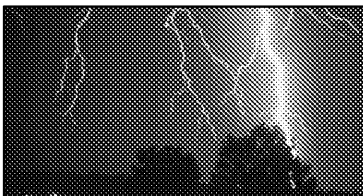
Energy Stores

- **Chemical** – stored in substances like food and within batteries
- **Kinetic** – energy within a moving object such as a falling ball
- **Gravitational potential** – energy an object has owing to its position within a gravitational field
- **Elastic potential** – the energy within a stretched or compressed object like a spring
- **Thermal** – energy stored in hot objects like hot water
- **Nuclear** – stored in the nuclei of atoms.

Thermal Energy

Thermal or heat energy is the energy stored in a warm object such as a cup of tea or a hot bath. The amount of energy in an object depends on the size of the object and the temperature of the object. You may think that a cup of hot tea has more thermal energy than a hot bath because it is hotter but because there is only a very small volume of water in the cup of tea the bath of hot water will have far more energy. Another example could be a spark from a sparkler. Whilst the temperature of it is several hundred degrees the amount of energy within it is very small as it has virtually no mass. Generally we use thermal energy to keep us and other objects warm. It can also be used to generate electricity.

Electrical Energy



Electrical energy is very useful indeed. It can be used to power many things but basically by moving a metal object through a wire. Electrical energy can be used to power all sorts of items from a light bulb to a computer.

Light Energy

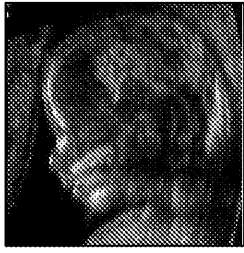
Light energy, such as from the Sun or from a fire, is given out by any luminous object. Its most common use is to light a room. More recently it has been used in fibre optic cables as a mechanism for transmitting data.

INSPECTION COPY

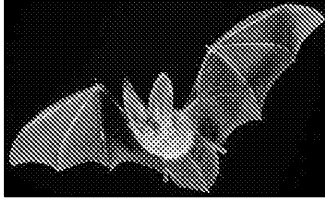
**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Sound Energy



An ultrasound scan of a foetus (unborn baby)



Bats use sound energy for navigation

When we think of sound energy we normally think of music but sound energy can also be used in many other ways. For example, a pregnant woman goes for a scan (ultrasound) of the baby. Ultrasound waves are generated and they penetrate the woman and are rebounded by the baby. A sensor times how long it takes for the waves to rebound and a computer turns this information into an image of the baby. Ultrasound is also used to scan concrete and metal for faults and is also how bats and submarines navigate. Ultrasound can also be used to clean delicate objects. An object to be cleaned is placed within a liquid together with a speaker. The speaker causes the liquid to vibrate and this causes the dirt to vibrate and be removed from the object.

Kinetic Energy

Kinetic energy is the energy an object has as a result of moving. A ball falling through the air, a car moving has kinetic energy. It is most commonly seen when energy is transformed from one form to another.

This

Gravitational Potential Energy

Gravitational potential energy is the energy an object has owing to its location. For example, an object on a high shelf has more gravitational potential energy than an identical object on a lower shelf. On roller coasters where gravitational potential energy is transformed into kinetic energy and then back into gravitational potential energy later!

Nuclear

Nuclear Fusion

Nuclear fusion is the way energy is released inside stars. The extreme heat and pressure cause the nuclei of atoms to overcome their electrons, thus turning them into **plasma**. These nuclei (atoms without electrons) are then bombarded together with such force that they actually stick together to form larger nuclei. This process releases vast amounts of energy. The reactant in this process is hydrogen and the product is helium.

Nuclear Fission

Nuclear power stations generate their electricity via nuclear fission. This form of energy production is free from carbon dioxide production and so does not cause global warming. Some people are concerned that the radioactive waste products can be dangerous if not stored correctly and that power stations could be the target of a terrorist attack. Nuclear fission works by bombarding atoms with neutrons. This causes the atom to become unstable. The instability is so great that the atom breaks into two separate smaller atoms, releasing a huge amount of energy and also releasing other neutrons, which in turn collide with other atoms and propagate the reaction. We call this a chain reaction. To stop the reaction becoming unmanageable control rods are placed within the reaction chamber of a nuclear reactor which absorb the extra neutrons.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Chemical

Chemical energy is a type of stored energy which can be found in food and batteries. Large food molecules we eat; then we break down the molecules in our bodies into other forms of energy are released.

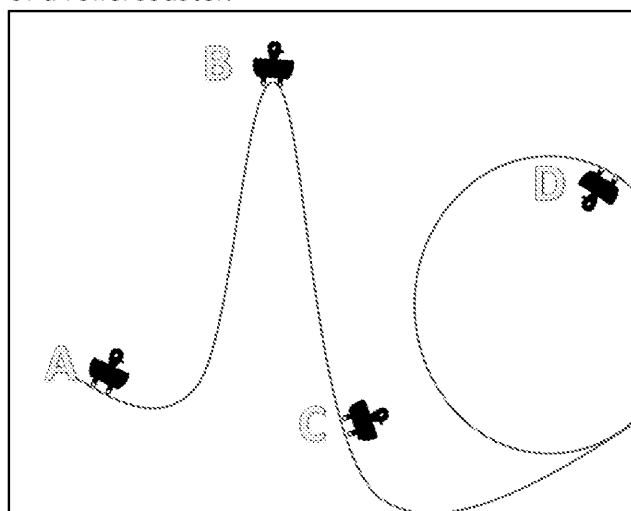
Elastic Potential

Elastic potential energy is the energy stored in an object as a result of it being stretched or compressed, such as a tightly wound spring. Energy was stored in the object at the time of its distortion; that energy will in turn be released into the surroundings once the original shape returns. One example of this is winding a watch spring which slowly unwinds driving a watch mechanism.



Exam-Style Questions – Energy Forms and Energy Stores

- There are many different types and stores of energy. List nine forms of energy. For each one give a use of that energy.
- Give another name for thermal energy.
- Energies have their own specific uses. What type of energy do submarines use?
- Different objects have different types of energy. If an object is moving, what type of energy does it have?
- Which has more gravitational potential energy: a book on a high shelf or a book on a low shelf?
- Which has more thermal energy: a hot cup of coffee or a warm bath?
- Look at the diagram of a rollercoaster.



- Which carriage has the most kinetic energy?
 - Which carriage has the most gravitational potential energy?
 - Which carriage has the least gravitational potential energy?
- Explain the term "nuclear fusion".
 - Explain the term "nuclear fission".
 - Give an example of an object with elastic potential.
 - Explain how sound energy can be used to detect the outline of a foetus.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Energy Forms and Energy Stores

1. There are many different types and stores of energy. List nine forms of energy and for each one give a use of that energy.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

2. Give another name for thermal energy.

.....

3. Submarines have their own specific uses. What type of energy do submarines use?

.....

4. Different objects have different types of energy. If an object is moving, what type of energy does it have?

.....

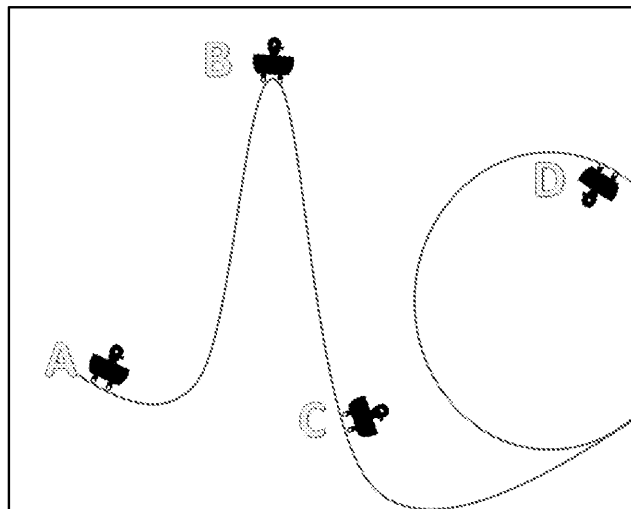
5. Which has more gravitational potential energy: a book on a high shelf or a book on a low shelf?

.....

6. Which has more thermal energy: a hot cup of coffee or a warm bath?

.....

7. Look at the diagram of a rollercoaster.



- a. Which carriage has the most kinetic energy?
- b. Which carriage has the most gravitational potential energy?
- c. Which carriage has the least gravitational potential energy?

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



8. Explain the term 'nuclear fusion'.

.....
.....
.....
.....

9. Explain the term 'nuclear fission'.

.....
.....
.....
.....

10. Give an example of an object with elastic potential.

.....

11. Explain how sound energy can be used to detect the outline of a foetus

.....
.....
.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 14 – Energy Transformations

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:

Energy transformations (from one form of energy to another).

Energy transfers:

- mechanically
- electrically
- by conduction
- convection
- radiation

Energy transfer measurement:














- joule (J) as the unit of energy
- principle of conservation of energy
- diagrams to represent energy transfers and energy dissipation

Key words: law of energy conservation, energy transformations, Sankey diagrams, conduction, convection, infrared radiation, electrical transfer, mechanical energy, questions.

Starter

Ask pupils to list as many forms of energy as they can. (This should be most of the lesson.)

Main

1.  Explain the law of conservation of energy.
2.  Explain the difference between energy transformation and transfer.
3.  Demonstrate the energy transformation in a bulb by connecting it to a power source or battery in a Locktronics (or similar) circuit and switching it on.
4.  Discuss other energy transformation, e.g. roller coasters, human energy.
5.  Explain how to use Sankey diagrams.
6.  Discuss and explain conduction.
7.  Demonstrate conduction in action, e.g. pins stuck with Vaseline on one end of the rod and watch the pins drop off one by one as the heat passes through the Vaseline.
8.  Explain convection.
9.  Demonstrate convection of water with a small amount of potassium manganate (VII) dissolved in water. Place the potassium manganate (VII) in the middle of a square tray filled with water. Heat one side of the square. The potassium manganate (VII) will move away from the heat source and show a convection current.
10.  Explain infrared and electrical transfer.
11.  Explain work done with examples.
12.  Describe sound energy transfer.
13.  Pupils answer Questions 1–20.
14. Go through answers.

Plenary

Pupils work in pairs. Each person writes four questions (with answers) and asks the other. One point is gained for every question they get correct; one point is lost for every question they get wrong.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



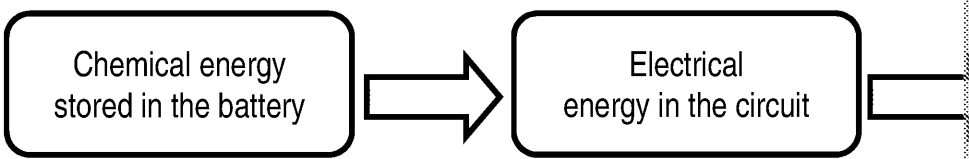
Energy Transformations

Law of Energy Conservation

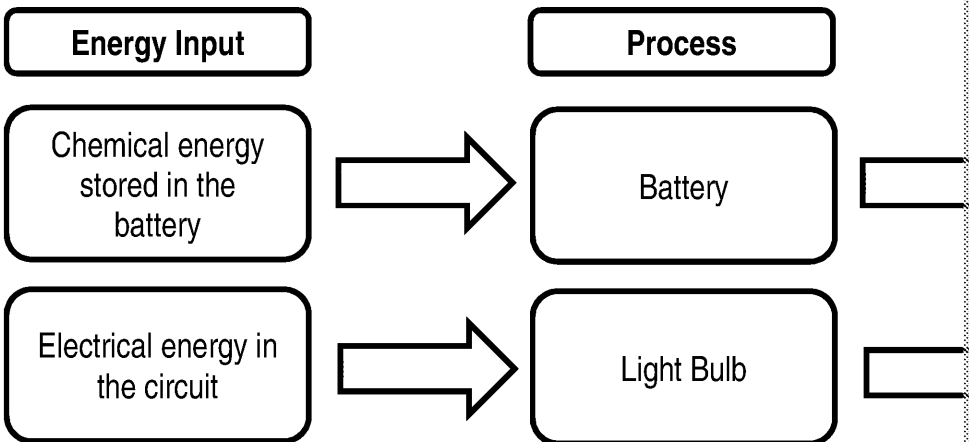
The first law of thermodynamics and the law of energy conservation (two of the state 'energy cannot be created or destroyed', but only change forms from one to another or transferred into other objects. But the amount of energy you end with is exactly the same as the amount you started with. The only problem is that the energy we end up with could be less useful than the energy we started with.

For energy to be useful it needs to be able to undergo energy transformations, i.e. energy is transferred from one form to another. For example, if a battery is connected to a light bulb in an electrical circuit, energy transformations are taking place:

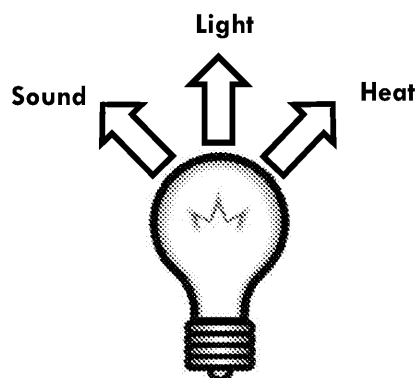
An energy transfer diagram simply displays each of the conversions as an energy input, an energy conversion process, and an energy output:



It is important to note that both of these processes also produce heat energy as well as useful energy output is included in the above diagram. Heat energy is not the only useful energy output from these processes, but a by-product which is lost to the surroundings, and so is considered as a waste product.



So, the amount of energy we ended up with is exactly the same; however the light, sound, and heat energy is dispersed into the surroundings and is no longer easily available for us to use.



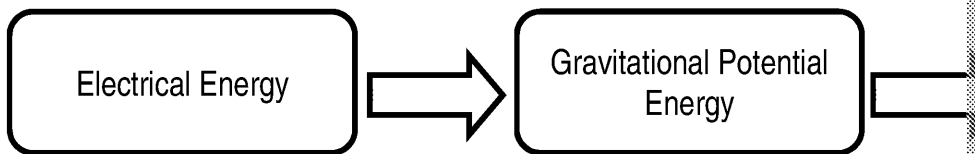
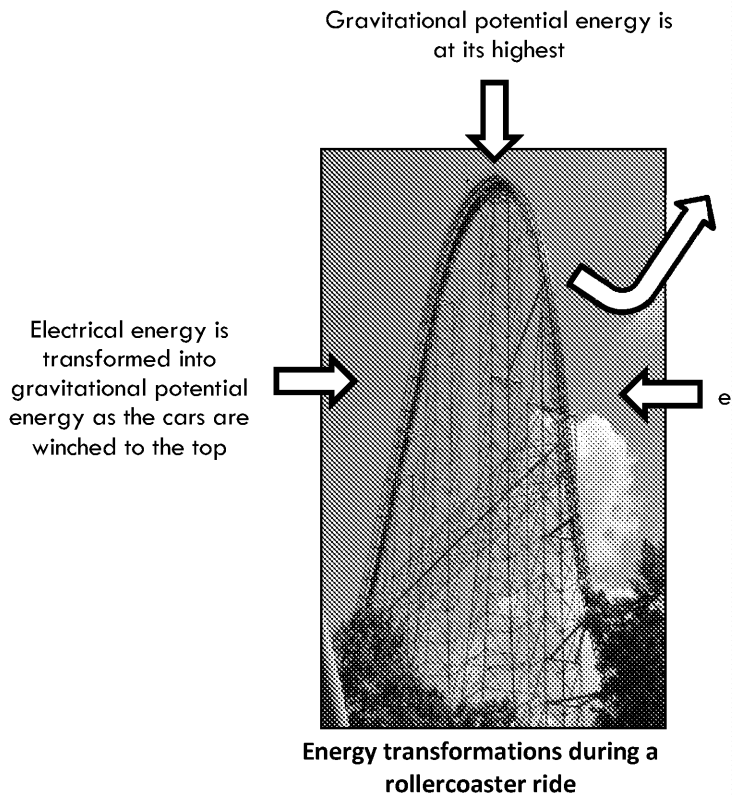
INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



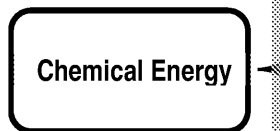
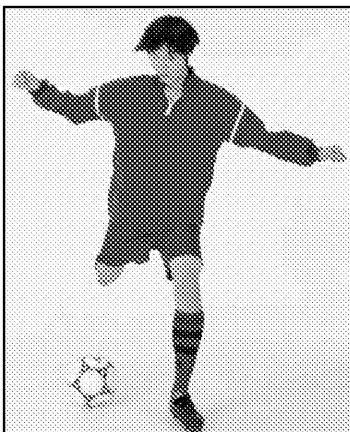
Rollercoasters

Other examples of energy transformations include rollercoasters. Rollercoasters take the cars to the top. So, electrical energy is transformed into gravitational potential energy as the cars are winched to the top. At the top, the gravitational potential energy is transformed into kinetic energy as the cars plummet over the top. Friction and air resistance are also produced as a wasted by-product).



Humans

Energy transformations also happen inside us. The chemical energy stored in the food you have eaten is transformed into kinetic energy as you move, heat energy to keep you warm, sound energy as you speak, or gravitational energy as you walk up the stairs etc.



Energy transform

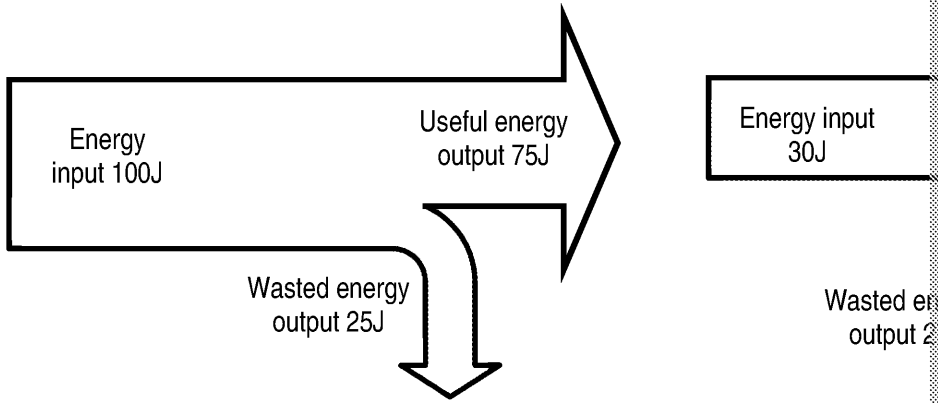
**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Sankey Diagrams

Sankey diagrams are a different way of showing energy transformations which include inputs and outputs of a process. They use arrows of different thickness to represent the amount of energy involved. For example, if the diagram were describing a tumble dryer, the energy input would be electrical energy from the mains. The useful energy output would be kinetic energy to dry the clothes. The wasted energy output would be the heat lost to the surroundings.

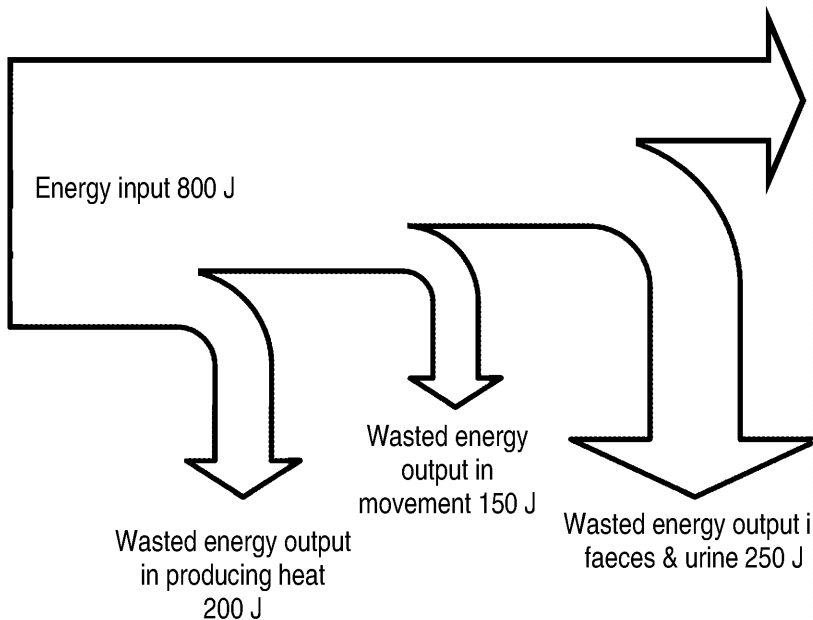
Not all energy transformations produce such a large proportion of useful energy. For example, a light bulb wastes most of its energy in heat and sound. Very little was transformed into light.



Sankey diagram showing the energy transformations in a tumble dryer

Sankey diagram showing energy transformations in a light bulb

Some Sankey diagrams can be more complicated. The following diagram shows the energy transformations in a cow. It can be very useful to the farmer who wants as much of the energy he puts into the cow as possible to be used for making more cows, not to be wasted in movement, heat or excreted in the form of faeces and urine.



As you can see in the diagram most of the energy the farmer puts in is actually lost.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Energy Transfers

Energy is not only transformed from one type of energy to another but it is also transferred from one to another.

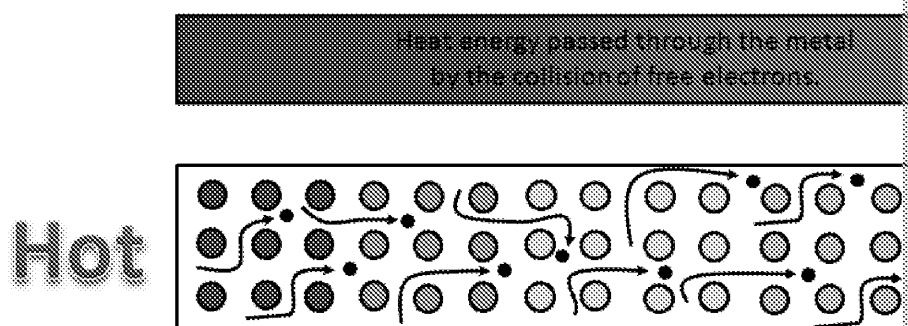
Conduction

Heat is always transferred from warmer areas to colder areas. Heat can move through solids most commonly through solids.

Conduction involves the transfer of energy from one particle to the next; this is especially true for solids as particles are very close together, although some solids are very poor conductors; we call them insulators. Metals are especially good conductors because their structure contains free electrons that can move through the metal carrying energy with them.

Imagine one end of a metal rod placed in a Bunsen burner flame. The metal atoms at the hot end begin to vibrate faster. They bump into neighbouring cooler metal atoms making them vibrate. In this way energy begins to pass the heat down the length of the rod.

However, at the same time, and more importantly, the heating makes the loose electrons in the metal vibrate about more excitedly (more kinetic energy). They collide with other electrons which are also vibrating. This structure colliding with metal atoms and passing on their heat energy. It is this sea of electrons that makes metals so good at conducting heat.

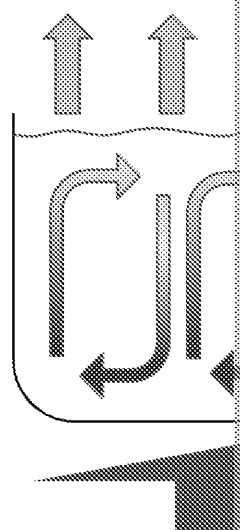


Convection

Heat energy can be transferred through a liquid or a gas via convection. Whilst conduction involves the vibration of particles convection requires the movement of particles through the substance.

As the substance is heated it expands. This is because the particles are given more kinetic energy and move faster, widening the gaps between individual particles. Because they expand they are less dense (less dense objects will float on more dense ones).

Because the particles are free to move within the substance, the warmer, less dense particles will tend to rise towards the top, while the colder, denser particles will fall to the bottom. If the colder parts of the substance are then heated when they reach the bottom, they will in turn rise, while the fluid at the top will cool and return to the bottom. This is called a convection current; examples include radiators heating a room and the water in a saucepan heating.



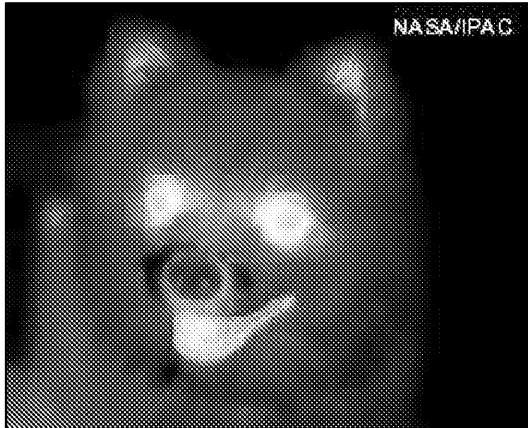
INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Infrared Radiation

Infrared or thermal radiation is a form of electromagnetic radiation which transfers energy. An object which is exposed to infrared radiation will heat up whilst an object which emits infrared radiation will cool down as a result.



An infrared image
The darker regions are cooler and are emitting low energy radiation, while the lighter parts are warmer and are emitting higher energy radiation.

Infrared radiation travels in electromagnetic waves, meaning that like other forms of radiation (such as visible light) it can travel through a vacuum. This is why you can feel the heat from a fire even if you are not touching it.

All objects are absorbers and emitters of infrared radiation. The hotter an object is, the more it will emit in a given time; the colder it is the more it will absorb.

The nature of an object's surface also affects the rate at which it absorbs or emits infrared radiation. Dark surfaces are good absorbers and good emitters of infrared radiation but poor reflectors. Light surfaces are poor absorbers and poor emitters of infrared radiation, but good reflectors.

Sound Radiation

Sound energy would be useless to us if it didn't move from one place to another. Sound energy moves in a similar way to heat being moved via convection. When sound is made it causes the particles in the air around the object to vibrate and move. These movements cause adjoining particles to move and so on until the vibrations reach our ears, where they are converted into recognisable sound inside our brains. You probably see the picture on the right every day without thinking about it. The picture shows a speaker vibrating the air particles and those vibrations spreading out into the surrounding air. Sound waves can be transferred through solids, liquids or gases, although they tend to move a much smaller distance through solids and liquids.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Electrical Transfer

Electrical energy can also move from one place to another within an electrical device. Electrical energy most commonly passes through metal wires. This is because metal wires are made of positively charged ions (atoms with a charge) surrounded by a 'sea of free electrons' with a negative charge. These electrons can also be called delocalised electrons, meaning they are not local to the atom from which they came. Because the electrons are free to move it means that they can move throughout the metal structure carrying electrical energy with them. We call this flow of electrons an electric current.

Electrical transfer
in metals



Mechanical Transfer

Mechanical transfer is when a force moves through a distance. We generally call this 'work done', i.e. it is the energy transferred into something when we move it.

To calculate the work done we use the equation:

$$W = Fd$$

Where: **W** = work done (J or Nm)

F = force (N)

d = distance (m)

The force is simply the weight of the object moved measured in newtons (N).

The distance is the distance the object has been moved measured in metres (m)

Examples

If you lifted boxes weighing 100 N from the floor to a height of 1.5 m the calculation is:

$$100 \text{ N} \times 1.5 \text{ m} = 150 \text{ J of work done}$$

Don't be confused by the way questions are asked in the exam, as they often sound different. Let's look at a possible way the exam could ask the question:

Calculate the energy transferred if a force of 100 newtons acts along a path of 1.5 metres.

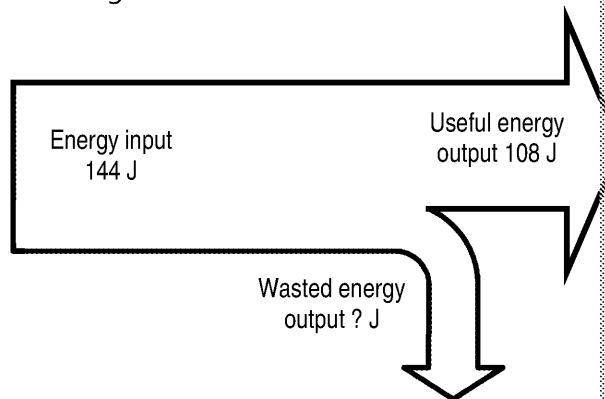
This is exactly the same as the example we have just looked at: $100 \times 1.5 = 150 \text{ J}$.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Energy Transformations and Transfer

1. State the law of energy conservation.
2. What is the difference between an energy transformation and an energy transfer?
3. Draw a flow diagram of the energy transformations that occur in boiling water.
4. Draw a flow diagram of the energy transformations that occur whilst jumping.
5. Draw a flow diagram of the energy transformations that occur when walking.
6. Describe the process of conduction.
7. Describe the process of convection.
8. What type of surface emits infrared radiation best?
9. What type of surface absorbs infrared radiation best?
10. What do we call the electrons within metal structures?
11. What unit do we measure energy in?
12. What do we call this type of diagram?



13. For the diagram shown in Question 12, calculate the missing number.
14. What does the term 'mechanical transfer' mean?
15. What equation do we use to calculate the amount of work done?
16. Calculate the work done if a 15 N object is raised vertically 12 metres.
17. Calculate the energy transferred if a force of 15 N acts along a path of 10 metres.
18. Calculate the energy transferred if a force of 7.5 N acts along a path of 20 metres.
19. Explain how sound is transferred from a speaker to an ear.
20. Can sound move through a vacuum?

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Energy Transformations and Transfer

1. State the law of energy conservation.
.....
.....
2. What is the difference between an energy transformation and an energy transfer?
.....
.....
3. Draw a flow diagram of the energy transformations that occur in boiling water.
.....
.....
4. Draw a flow diagram of the energy transformations that occur whilst jumping.
.....
.....
5. Draw a flow diagram of the energy transformations that occur when walking.
.....
.....
6. Describe the process of conduction.
.....
.....
.....
.....
7. Describe the process of convection.
.....
.....
.....
.....
8. What type of surface emits infrared radiation best?
.....
9. What type of surface absorbs infrared radiation best?
.....
10. What do we call the electrons within metal structures?
.....

INSPECTION COPY

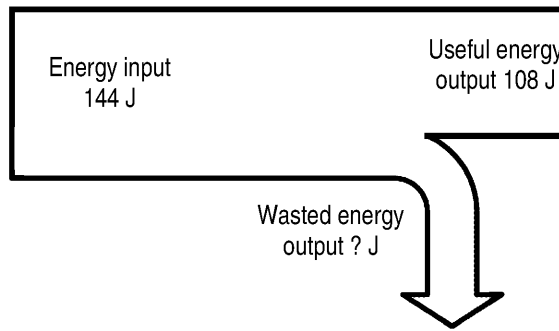
**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



11. What unit do we measure energy in?

.....

12. What do we call this type of diagram?



.....

13. For the diagram shown in Question 12, calculate the missing number.

.....

.....

14. What does the term 'mechanical transfer' mean?

.....

15. What equation do we use to calculate the amount of work done?

.....

16. Calculate the work done if a 15 N object is raised vertically 12 metres.

.....

.....

17. Calculate the energy transferred if a force of 15 N acts along a path of

.....

.....

18. Calculate the energy transferred if a force of 7.5 N acts along a path o

.....

.....

19. Explain how sound is transferred from a speaker to an ear.

.....

.....

20. Can sound move through a vacuum?

.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 15 – Power and Efficiency

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:

Energy transfer measurement:

- joule (J) as the unit of energy
- principle of conservation of energy
- diagrams to represent energy transfers and energy dissipation
- watt (W) as the unit of power
- power calculations

Efficiency of energy transfers and transformations:










- efficiency as the proportion of energy transferred to useful forms
- calculations involving efficiency

Key words: power, efficiency, questions.

Starter

Ask pupils to list two energy transfers and two energy transformations.

Main

1.  Explain the concept of electrical power.
2.  State the equation to calculate electrical power.
3.  State the units.
4.  Demonstrate how to rearrange the equation to make energy the subject.
5.  Explain how to use the equations to calculate power and energy cost.
6.  State the equation to calculate efficiency.
7.  State the units.
8.  Explain how to use the equations to calculate efficiency.
9.  Pupils to answer Questions 1–18 from the pack.
10. Go through the answers.

Plenary

Pupils are to list some everyday examples of efficiency and inefficiency.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Energy Calculations – Power

Electrical appliances play an increasingly important part in our everyday lives, due to the conversion of electrical energy into other forms of energy. Without electricity, we could not light our homes, use the Internet or keep our food fresh in the fridge.

Electrical appliances are designed to convert electrical energy into another form of energy.

- **Heat energy** – kettles, toasters, microwaves and electric heaters are just a few examples of appliances that convert electrical energy into heat.
- **Light energy** – light bulbs and fluorescent tubes provide us with light within our homes. Computer displays also emit light.
- **Sound** – appliances such as MP3 players and the speakers in TVs convert electrical energy into sound.
- **Kinetic energy** – any appliance designed to cause movement, such as a fan, a washing machine or a food processor, works by converting electrical energy into movement (kinetic) energy.

Electrical power measures the rate at which an appliance is able to transfer energy and is calculated using the equation:

$$\text{Power (watts)} = \frac{\text{Energy (joules)}}{\text{Time (seconds)}} \quad \text{Which can be rearranged to make:} \quad \text{Energy (joules)}$$

Examples

Calculate the power rating of an appliance that uses 780 J of energy in one minute.
Power = $780/60 = 13 \text{ W}$

Calculate how much energy is used by a 60 W appliance in an hour.
Energy = $60 \times (60 \times 60) = 216,000 \text{ joules}$

Kilowatt-Hours

Energy is normally measured in joules but as this is such a small amount of energy, we often measure the energy you use in kilowatt-hours or kWh. We can use the same equations as above. Instead of joules and seconds we use kilowatts (1000 watts) and hours. So the equation becomes:

$$\text{Energy (kWh)} = \text{Power (kilowatts)} \times \text{Time (Hours)}$$

The cost is calculated by multiplying the number of kWh of energy you have used by the cost of 1 kWh. To calculate the cost of running a 60 W light bulb for two hours if the cost of 1 kWh is 9p:
Energy = $(60/1000 \text{ or } 0.06) \times 2 = 0.12 \text{ kWh}$
Cost = $0.12 \times 9 = 1.08 \text{ p}$

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Energy Calculations – Efficiency

As we have seen, every energy transfer and transformation will result in some use of some energy which is wasted and is lost to the surroundings as unwanted heat, sound, etc.

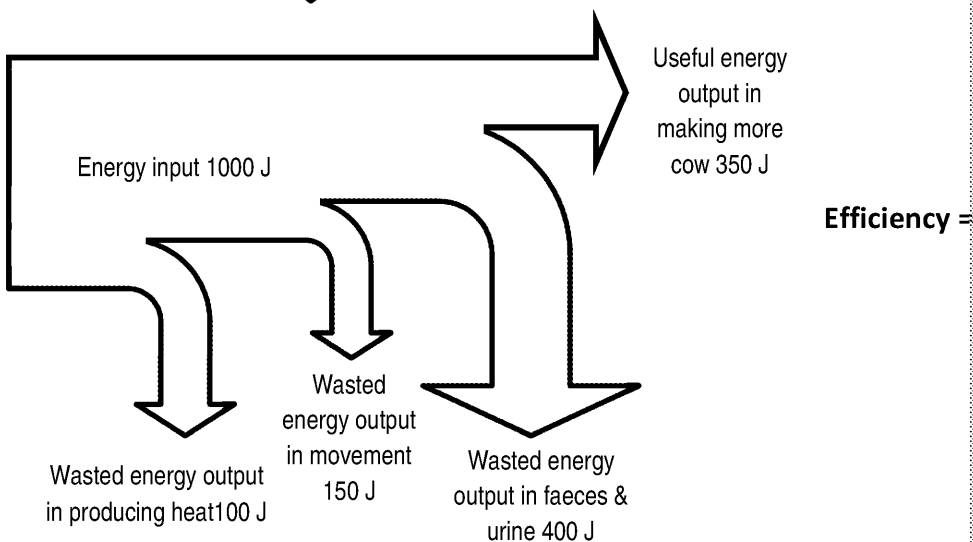
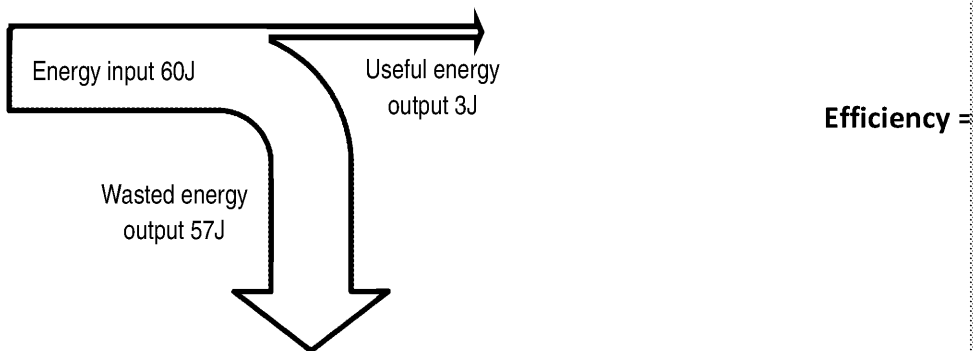
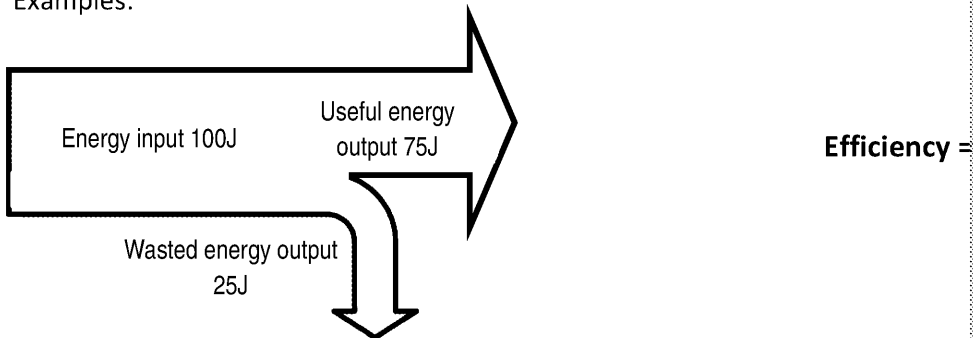
The efficiency of a process is the proportion of the energy input which is converted to useful energy. The less energy a process wastes, the more efficient it is.

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\text{Useful Energy}}{\text{Total Energy Supplied}}$$

Efficiency is calculated using the equation:

The more efficient a process is, the less energy is wasted and so it is cheaper to run and less damaging to the environment. Therefore, it is important to try and make devices as efficient as possible.

Examples:



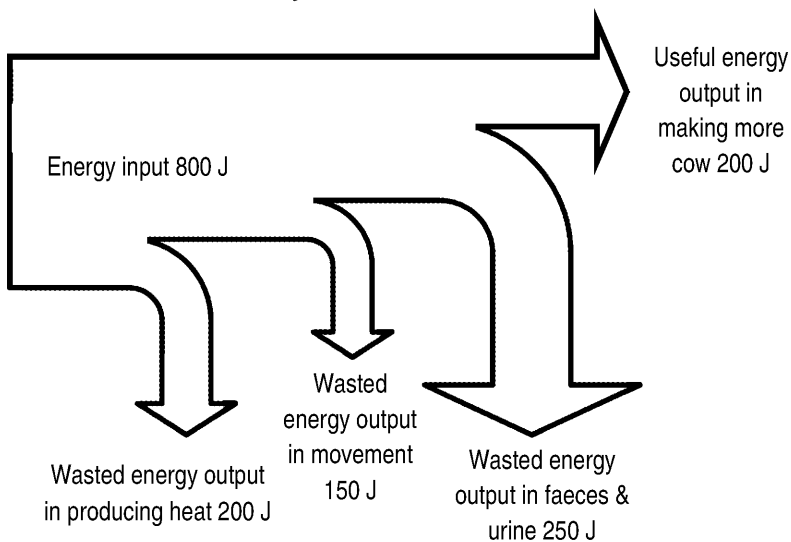
INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

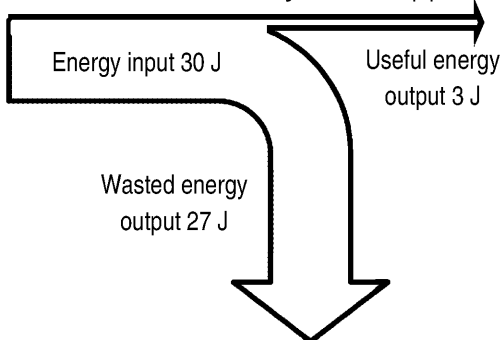


Exam-Style Questions – Power and Efficiency

1. What is electrical power?
2. What unit do we use to measure power?
3. Give the equation to calculate power.
4. Give the equation to calculate the amount of energy consumed.
5. Calculate the power rating of an appliance that uses 1,569 J of energy in 15 s.
6. Calculate the power rating of an appliance that uses 195 J of energy in 15 s.
7. Calculate the power rating of an appliance that uses 780 J of energy in 15 s.
8. Calculate the power rating of an appliance that uses 1,000 J of energy in 10 s.
9. Calculate how much energy is used by a 30 W appliance in an hour.
10. Calculate how much energy is used by a 12 W appliance in 30 minutes.
11. Calculate how much energy is used by a 15 W appliance in three minutes.
12. Calculate how much energy is used by a 3 W appliance in a day.
13. What does the term efficiency mean?
14. Give the equation used to calculate efficiency.
15. Calculate the efficiency of this cow.



16. Calculate the efficiency of this appliance.



17. An appliance has an input of 1200 J and wastes 800 J. Draw a Sankey diagram and calculate its efficiency.
18. An appliance uses 250 J of energy usefully and wastes 800 J. Draw a Sankey diagram for the appliance and calculate its efficiency.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Power and Efficiency

1. What is electrical power?
.....
.....
2. What unit do we use to measure power?
.....
.....
3. Give the equation to calculate power.
.....
.....
4. Give the equation to calculate the amount of energy consumed.
.....
.....
5. Calculate the power rating of an appliance that uses 1,569 J of energy
.....
.....
6. Calculate the power rating of an appliance that uses 195 J of energy in
.....
.....
7. Calculate the power rating of an appliance that uses 780 J of energy in
.....
.....
8. Calculate the power rating of an appliance that uses 1,000 J of energy
.....
.....
9. Calculate how much energy is used by a 30 W appliance in an hour.
.....
.....
10. Calculate how much energy is used by a 12 W appliance in 30 minutes
.....
.....
11. Calculate how much energy is used by a 15 W appliance in three minutes
.....
.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



12. Calculate how much energy is used by a 3 W appliance in a day.

.....

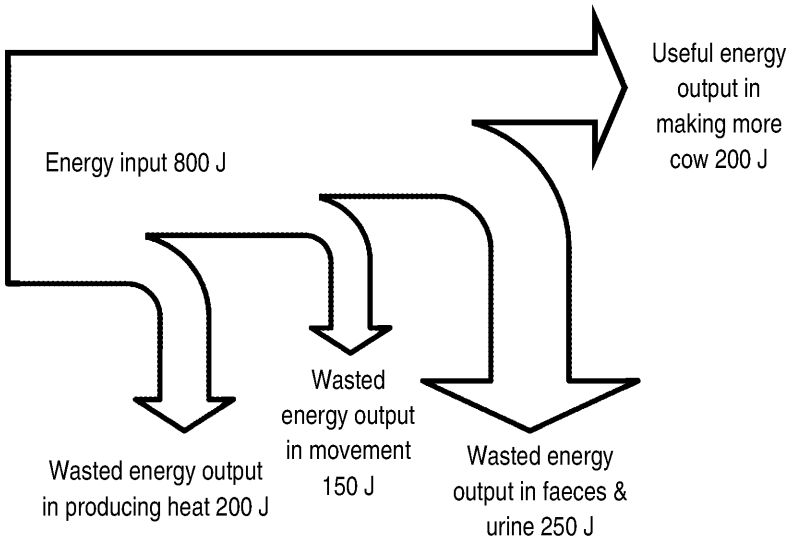
13. What does the term efficiency mean?

.....

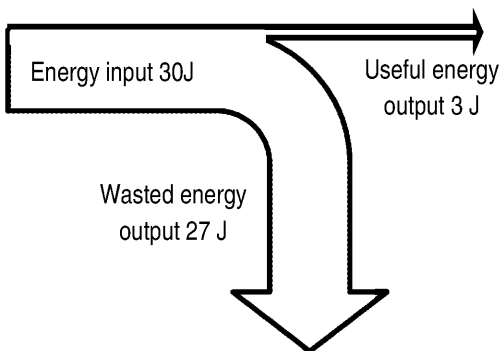
14. Give the equation used to calculate efficiency.

.....

15. Calculate the efficiency of this cow.



16. Calculate the efficiency of this appliance.



17. An appliance has an input of 1200 J and wastes 800 J. Draw a Sankey diagram and calculate its efficiency.

Efficiency

**COPYRIGHT
 PROTECTED**



18. An appliance uses 250 J of energy usefully and wastes 800 J. Draw a Sankey diagram for the appliance and calculate its efficiency.

Efficiency

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 16 – Sources and Stores of Energy

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:

Sources of energy:

- renewable (solar, wind, biofuels, hydroelectric, wave, tidal, geothermal)
- non-renewable (fossil fuels, nuclear)
- using energy sources effectively



Key words: sources of energy, renewable, solar, wind, biofuels, hydroelectric, non-renewable, fossil fuels, nuclear, using energy sources effectively, questions

Starter

Ask pupils 'Where do we get our energy from?'

Main

Independent research project:

1.  Pupils answer Questions 1–6.
2.  Pupils create a poster explaining renewable and non-renewable energy sources by the end of the lesson.
3. Teacher to monitor and provide assistance where needed.

Plenary

Pupils are to present their posters.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Sources and Stores of Energy

Electricity is generated from a variety of energy sources. Each source has its own based on factors such as cost, reliability or environmental impact.

An energy source is described as a renewable energy source if it is not going to run out. For example, solar energy is renewable because it will always be available for the next about 4 billion years or so, while wood is also renewable because new trees can be planted which are chopped down.

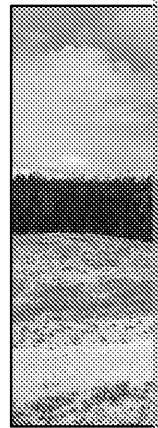
If there is only a finite (fixed) amount of an energy source available, it is known as non-renewable. Such as coal and natural gas are examples of non-renewable energy sources because the amount of these resources left on Earth. Non-renewable energy sources are a concern because they will run out, and we will no longer be able to rely on them for supplying energy.

Geothermal Energy

Geothermal energy is the energy from the heat generated by the core of the Earth.

In some cases, rocks in volcanic areas contain radioactive material which decays, releasing heat; this heats water between the rocks, causing it to rise to the surface of the Earth as steam. This steam can be used to drive turbines and generators which convert kinetic energy into electrical energy.

In other cases, the rocks can be hot but have no water between them. Instead, the water is pumped down through wells to reach the rocks. As it runs through cracks between the rocks, it heats up and evaporates into steam, which then rises through other wells and is used to drive the turbines.



Steam being released

The advantages of geothermal energy are:

- There are no fuel costs whatsoever.
- There are no waste products or harmful substances released as a by-product.
- Once set up, the energy source is reliable.
- Geothermal energy is a renewable source – it will not run out in the foreseeable future.

The disadvantages of geothermal energy are:

- The start-up time and initial cost are both very high, particularly where it is far from the rocks.
- It is difficult to find suitable locations for this type of power station.
- Earth's crust needs to be thin enough for drilling to be beneficial.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Solar Energy

Solar energy is energy sourced directly from the light of the Sun. It is usually collected using either solar panels or solar cells.

Solar panels are supplied with cold water, and placed in locations likely to get a lot of direct sunlight, e.g. on a roof. The solar panel absorbs light from the Sun, which heats the water. The water is then taken to a storage tank, and more cold water is supplied to the solar panel.

Solar cells, on the other hand, convert light energy from the Sun directly into electricity. Solar cells are used to power most man-made satellites orbiting the Earth. They can also be found in more common places such as pocket calculators.

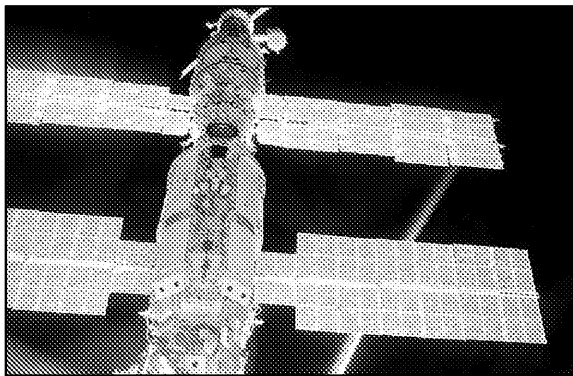
The advantages of solar energy are:

- The source is renewable – the Sun will outlast us by many billions of years.
- There are no fuel costs.
- The start-up time of both solar panels and solar cells is fairly quick.
- There are no waste products or harmful by-products.

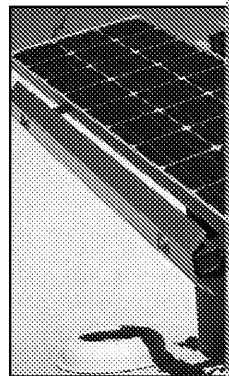
The disadvantages of solar energy are:

- Solar cells in particular are very expensive, which means the electricity they generate costs are beginning to fall as the technology becomes more popular.
- The heat generated by solar panels depends strongly on the climate – they are not suitable for all locations.
- At night there is no sunlight, so no solar energy can be collected: the same is true for solar panels.
- Large solar power stations require lots of space.

Solar energy can be most useful in local settings where only a small amount of electricity is used increasingly to power road signs in isolated areas, where it can be easier to install a solar cell than to try and connect it to the National Grid.



Solar cells can be a good source of energy in space



A solar panel

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Water

Hydroelectric

At a hydroelectric plant, a large reservoir of water is stored high up in a river valley behind a dam. The height at which the water is stored means that it has a lot of gravitational potential energy, which is then converted to kinetic energy when the water falls down pipes inside the dam. Turbines within the dam are then driven by the falling water, transferring the energy to electrical generators.

During times of low demand, energy from a hydroelectric plant can be used to pump water back up into the reservoir, to be released again at peak times. This is known as a pumped storage system.

Smaller-scale hydroelectric systems can be useful in remote areas where it is harder to supply energy from other sources.

Tidal

Tidal barrages are built in river estuaries where there is a lot of tidal variation (big high and low tide). Electrical generators are kept in tubes in the barrage, which vibrate as the water moves in or out. The kinetic energy of the water drives the generators.

Wave

Wave machines work in a similar way to tidal barrages, except that instead of using the inward and outward motion of water in estuaries, they use the up and down motion of waves in the sea to convert kinetic energy.

The advantages of water as an energy source are:

- Water is a renewable source – it does not get used up by any of the processes.
- There are little or no fuel costs.
- The start-up time is fairly short.
- Hydroelectric dams (particularly pumped storage systems) and tidal barrages are reliable sources.
- No harmful by-products are formed.
- Useful for islands that cannot connect to the national grid.

The disadvantages of water energy are:

- Hydroelectric dams and tidal barrages both disturb their ecosystems – tidal estuary-dwelling species, such as wading birds, while hydroelectric dams can flood farmland and force people to leave their homes.
- In the flooding caused by hydroelectric dams, plant life under the water can produce a greenhouse gas and contributes towards global warming.
- Wave machines are inefficient and cannot generate a large amount of electricity.
- Problems with getting electricity generated at sea back to land.
- Building dams is expensive.

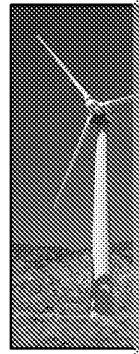


**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Wind

Wind occurs as a result of huge convection currents in the air of the Earth's atmosphere. The kinetic energy of wind can be harnessed by wind turbines, which have large blades that are pushed by the movement of the wind so that they rotate. The rotating blades are attached to an electrical generator inside the wind turbine.



The advantages of wind energy are:

- It is renewable – the convection currents are driven by heat from the Sun, which will not be exhausted in the foreseeable future.
- There are no fuel costs.
- There are no harmful by-products or waste products.
- Wind turbines are fairly cheap and have an almost immediate start-up time.

The disadvantages of wind energy are:

- A single turbine cannot generate much electricity on its own – huge wind farms are required to generate a significant amount.
- It is unreliable – the amount of electricity generated depends entirely on the time. If there is no wind, then no electricity can be generated at all.
- Wind farms are considered by some to be an eyesore. They can also be very noisy for nearby residents. These issues are known as visual and noise pollution.
- Turbines can cause damage to wildlife such as birds that try to fly through the blades.

Biofuels



Biofuels can be solids, liquids or gases. Biogas, which contains methane, can be obtained by the decomposition of organic matter. The methane can then be channelled off and used as a fuel.

People are also trying to develop alternative biofuels such as ethanol. These are fuels made from plants. The carbon dioxide produced when you burn ethanol is replaced by the carbon dioxide taken up by the plants during photosynthesis.

The advantages of biofuels are:

- They are renewable – the organisms involved are not endangered and will last.
- Low fuel cost – biofuels are mostly generated from substances that would otherwise be waste.
- Cheap and quick start-up.
- Although burning biogases produces CO_2 , the organic waste used to produce them is renewable. These plants took in CO_2 from the air as they grew (photosynthesis) so the burning of the plants is replacing this CO_2 back in the atmosphere. For this reason we say this process is a net **overall** change to the carbon dioxide in the air.

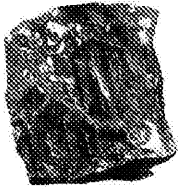
The disadvantages of biofuels are:

- The decomposition process produces a very unpleasant smell.
- The amount of land required for significant biofuel generation is very large.
- It reduces the amount of land for growing food crops.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Fossil Fuels



Coal

Fossil fuels provide approximately 75% of the electricity used in the UK. Fossil fuels are formed from dead organic matter which has been buried under the surface of the Earth for millions of years.

Fossil fuels are burnt in power stations to release heat. The heat is used to evaporate water into steam, which then rises and drives turbines which are connected to electrical generators.

The main advantages of using fossil fuels are:

- Their relatively quick start-up time – gas power stations take the shortest time to start up and then coal.
- They are more reliable energy sources – the amount burnt in power stations can be adjusted according to demand. Matching supply and demand is very important when using fossil fuels.

The disadvantages of using fossil fuels are:

- Because they are non-renewable, fossil fuels will one day run out and we will no longer be able to rely on them.
- Fossil fuels release carbon dioxide (CO₂) when they are burnt. Carbon dioxide is a greenhouse gas, and so releasing large amounts of it into the atmosphere can contribute to global warming. Coal produces the most carbon dioxide, followed by oil and then gas.
- Additionally, fossil fuels can release sulphur dioxide when burnt. Sulphur dioxide is toxic and can be harmful to organisms which breathe it in, and can also react with water in the atmosphere to produce acid rain which damages trees and buildings.

It should be noted that although carbon dioxide emission is a problem when burnt, there are rapidly evolving technologies which are able to 'capture' the carbon dioxide before it is released and can be stored elsewhere. Often the carbon dioxide can be stored in natural containers like oil fields which have already been mined – there are many of these underneath the UK.

Nuclear Fuels

Radioactive elements uranium and plutonium are used as nuclear fuels. The process is similar to that of fossil fuels, except that nuclear fuels are not burnt – the heat supplied to the water comes from nuclear reactions in the reactor of the power plant. The process is called nuclear fission.

The advantages of nuclear power are:

- Like fossil fuels, nuclear fuels are reliable sources of energy, which can be used to provide energy whenever it is needed to meet demand.
- Unlike fossil fuels, nuclear fuels do not release any harmful gases into the atmosphere.
- Nuclear fuels are relatively cheap.

The disadvantages of using nuclear fuels are:

- Again, nuclear fuels are non-renewable, and so the amount available to us is limited.
- Radioactive material is dangerous to deal with. In the event of an accident, it can release very harmful radioactive substances.
- When the fuel is used up, the remaining waste is still radioactive and remains so for many years, so it is difficult to dispose of safely.
- Nuclear plants have a longer start-up time than fossil fuel plants, and are more expensive to dismantle.
- Security issues.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Using Energy Sources Effectively

However we generate our electricity, whether it's via nuclear, fossil, solar or any other source, it is important to use our energy sources effectively.

Doing this will reduce waste, and reduce the price to the consumer and to industry. This could in turn lead to a reduced cost of manufacturing, which could also cost the consumer less.

In addition, effective use of energy resources will lead to less of an environmental impact, such as reduced carbon dioxide emissions into the atmosphere or fewer wind turbines required.

Storing Energy in Batteries and Fuel Cells

Batteries contain chemicals and convert chemical energy into electrical energy.

Advantages of batteries include:

- Portability
- Appliances do not need to be plugged in
- Can be used in areas where electricity is not provided
- Can easily be replaced

Disadvantages of batteries include:

- Can only be used for a limited amount of time
- There are environmental concerns over their manufacture and disposal
- They can leak and damage the appliance
- They can add weight to an appliance
- Some batteries can be dangerous, with a risk of exploding

Fuel cells are similar to batteries in the sense that they convert chemical energy into electrical energy but are different as they require a constant supply of fuel in order to do this.

Hydrogen can also be used in fuel cells to produce electricity to power vehicles. When commercially available they too provide clean energy, with only water as a by-product. They are ideal for long journeys (unlike battery powered cars that are limited to city driving) and can be used for long journeys (unlike battery powered cars that take many hours to recharge). Disadvantages include that batteries are very expensive to produce and need rare metals to build and have a lack of hydrogen refuelling stations and a change to manufacturing would need a different car.

Exam-Style Questions – Sources and Stores of Energy

1. What is the difference between a renewable energy source and a non-renewable energy source?
2. Name seven renewable energy sources.
3. Name two non-renewable energy sources.
4. Name one advantage and one disadvantage of the following sources:
 - a. geothermal energy
 - b. solar energy
 - c. water
 - d. wind
 - e. biofuels
 - f. fossil fuels
 - g. nuclear
5. Why is it important to use energy sources effectively?
6. Every energy resource has its own advantages and disadvantages. Give an example of an energy resource that the human race should do in the future to maintain its energy levels and a reason why. You must argue your point clearly, giving reasons and examples when appropriate.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – Sources and Stores of Energy

1. What is the difference between a renewable energy source and a non-renewable energy source?

.....
.....

2. Name seven renewable energy sources.

.....

3. Name two non-renewable energy sources.

.....

4. Name one advantage and one disadvantage of the following sources

a. geothermal energy

.....
.....

b. solar energy

.....
.....

c. water

.....
.....

d. wind

.....
.....

e. biofuels

.....
.....

f. fossil fuels

.....
.....

g. nuclear

.....
.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



5. Why is it important to use energy sources effectively?

.....
.....
.....
.....

6. Every energy resource has its own advantages and disadvantages. Give the human race should do in the future to maintain its energy levels and a must argue your point clearly, giving reasons and examples when appropriate.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 17 – The Electromagnetic

Learning Aims

Pupils should understand:

Wave characteristics:

- amplitude (m)
- frequency (Hz)
- wavelength (m)
- wave speed (m/s)

Wave calculations:

- using wave speed (m/s) = wavelength (m) × frequency (Hz)
- using values expressed in standard form

The electromagnetic (EM) spectrum:

- radio waves, microwaves, infrared, visible (including the colours of the visible spectrum), ultraviolet, X-rays and gamma rays
- the EM spectrum is continuous from radio waves to gamma rays, increasing wavelength and decreasing frequency
- each group has a range of wavelengths with different uses and dangers

Uses of electromagnetic radiation in transferring energy:

- radio waves
- microwaves
- infrared
- visible light
- ultraviolet
- X-rays
- gamma rays

Harmful effects of excessive exposure to electromagnetic radiation:

- microwaves (internal heating of body cells)
- infrared (skin burns)
- ultraviolet (damage to surface cells and eyes, leading to skin cancer)
- X-rays and gamma rays (mutation or damage to cells in the body)

Key words: properties and applications of the electromagnetic spectrum, radio waves, microwaves, infrared, visible light, UV, X-rays, gamma rays, harmful effects, questions

Starter

Ask pupils to give the pros and cons of renewable energy sources.

Main

1. Describe the characteristics of a wave.
2. Describe the electromagnetic spectrum.
3. Explain the uses of electromagnetic spectrum, radio waves, microwaves, infrared, visible light, UV, X-rays and gamma rays, giving examples.
4. Discussion of the harmful effects of excessive exposure to EM radiation.
5. Pupils to answer Questions 1–10.
6. Go through answers.

Plenary

EM uses, and dangers mix and match. Ask pupils to match a list of EM waves with their uses and dangers, e.g. UV → sunburn.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

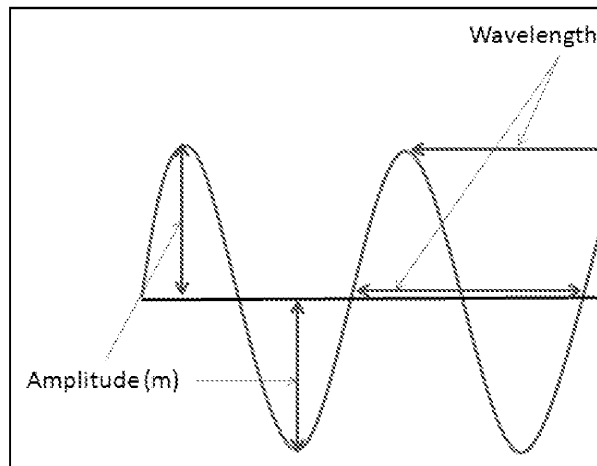


Properties and Applications of the Electromagnetic Spectrum

Waves are vibrations which transfer energy from one place to another, without the transfer of matter.

A wave can be described by its wavelength, frequency and amplitude.

- The wavelength of a wave is the distance between any point on a wave and the next point in phase, for example, the distance between two crests or two troughs in a series of waves.
- The frequency of a wave is the number of wavelengths that pass a certain point in a given time.



The amplitude of a wave is its maximum displacement from its undisturbed position. It is half the distance between the top and bottom of the wave – it is half the wavelength (see below).

We can use the wavelength and frequency of a wave to calculate its speed using the following equation:

$$\text{Wave Speed (m/s)} = \text{Wavelength (m)} \times \text{Frequency (Hz)}$$

Example

Calculate the wavelength of a wave with a wave speed of 299,792,458 m/s and a frequency of 30,000 Hz.

$$\text{Wavelength} = \text{wave speed/frequency} = \frac{299,792,458 \text{ m/s}}{30,000 \text{ Hz}} = 9,993 \text{ m}$$

As these numbers can often be very big they may well be expressed in a way known as standard form. For example, 300,000,000 may be written 3×10^8 , meaning eight zeros are added to the end of the number and placed to the right.

Example

Calculate the wavelength of a wave of speed 3×10^8 m/s and a frequency of 2.5×10^4 Hz.

$$\text{Wavelength} = \text{wave speed/frequency} = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{2.5 \times 10^4} = 12,000 \text{ m or } 1.2 \times 10^4 \text{ m}$$

This can be calculated on your calculator by typing:

[3] [Exp] [8] [÷] [2.] [5] [Exp] [4] [=]

INSPECTION COPY

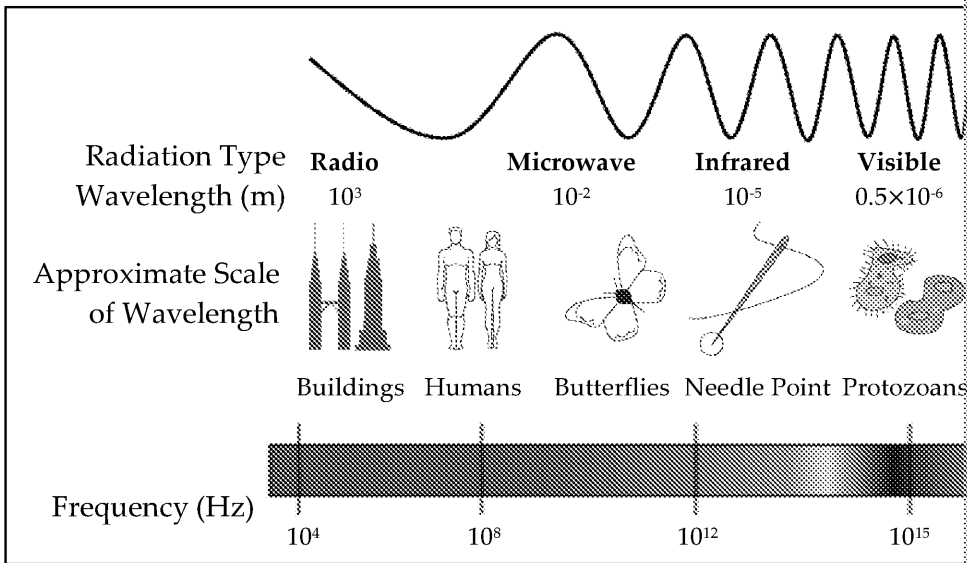
COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



The Electromagnetic (EM) Spect

Electromagnetic waves do not need a substance (such as air) to travel through, as through a vacuum (such as space). Instead of particles, electric fields and magnet transmission of the wave.

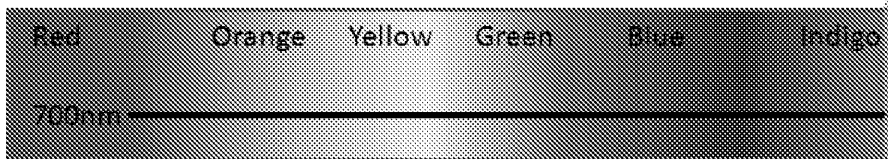
All electromagnetic waves travel at the speed of light in a vacuum. However, the wavelengths which form a continuous electromagnetic spectrum from radio wave order of wavelength (or frequency). Each group has a wide range of wavelengths dangers. Listed below are the waves that make up the spectrum, listed from long frequency) down to shortest wavelength (highest frequency).



The electromagnetic spectrum, in order of increasing frequency and energy

Visible Light

The most familiar of these will be visible light. Visible light, like all other groups of frequencies and wavelengths. Light's colour depends upon the wave's wavelength



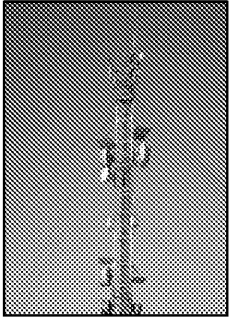
Spectrum of visible light

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Uses of Electromagnetic Radiation in Transferring Energy



A mast transmitting radio waves

Radio waves have the longest wavelengths of electromagnetic waves, from centimetres up to several metres or even kilometres long. They are used to transmit radio and television (broadcasting) signals, with television signals having slightly shorter wavelength (higher frequency), and also are used for mobile phones.

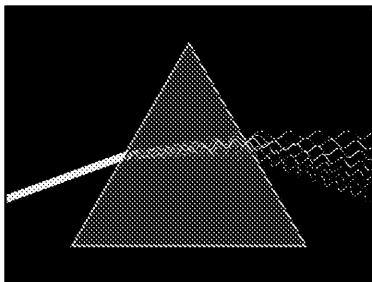
Because of their long wavelengths, radio waves have the ability to diffract around obstacles such as tall buildings and hills (see diffraction). This means they can reach receivers situated behind obstacles.

Microwaves have slightly shorter wavelengths than radio waves, typically from millimetres to a few centimetres long. They are strongly absorbed by water molecules and so are used to cook food in microwave ovens.

Microwaves are also used in communications. Mobile phone masts transmit and receive signals for mobile phones. Some microwaves are also capable of passing through the Earth's atmosphere and are used to communicate with satellites. In addition microwaves can be used by meteorologists to detect weather patterns.

Infrared radiation, as mentioned earlier, transmits heat energy and so is used in many household appliances such as toasters and electric heaters. It is also used in communication, particularly in fibre-optic cables and short-range remote controls. It can also be used in thermal imaging to detect people trapped under snow or rubble, and to see people through walls. A similar technology is used in security systems.

Infrared waves have a wavelength in the micrometre range, slightly longer than visible light.



The splitting of visible light

Visible light ranges from red, at the longer wavelength end, to violet, at the shorter wavelength end. The wavelengths of visible light are in the nanometre range. The visible light spectrum allows us to see the world around us and is also used in photography.

Ultraviolet rays naturally occur in sunlight, and are of slightly shorter wavelength than visible light.

Ultraviolet radiation is used to tan skin in sun beds. It is also used for security – security pens have an ink which absorbs UV rays and emits visible light, so it can only be seen using an ultraviolet light. Fluorescent lights also work by absorbing UV and emitting visible light. UV is also used to detect forged bank notes as real bank notes contain a dye that is only visible under UV. Water and food can also be sterilised by shining UV light on them. It disrupts the DNA within the bacteria and kills them.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



X-rays have a very short wavelength and high frequency. X-rays are electromagnetic waves which lie in between UV and gamma rays in the electromagnetic spectrum, with very short wavelength (between 0.1 and 10 nm) roughly the size of the diameter of an atom.

They are capable of passing through most skin and living tissue, but tend to be absorbed by bones and metals. This property makes them very useful in medicine where they can be used to produce images of bones within the human body. However, precautions have to be taken as too much exposure to X-rays poses a significant risk of turning cells cancerous.

X-rays are also used to check for faults in metal machinery.

X-rays have certain properties which make them very useful for medical applications, ionisation and can be harmful to living cells, so it is important to take safety precautions using X-rays.

The most common medical use of X-rays is to generate a radiograph – a photograph formed from X-rays. This is done by beaming X-rays out of an X-ray tube through the relevant part of the human body on to a background of photographic film.

The X-rays are absorbed by bones, teeth and any metal objects inside the body (such as a plate). This means detailed images can be formed of bone fractures or tooth cavities, or any other related problems.

Images of internal organs can also be formed by filling the organ with a contrast substance which absorbs X-rays, so the organ will show up on a radiograph. For example, of a patient using X-rays, the patient eats food containing a barium compound. In the stomach, X-rays are beamed through the patient and absorbed by the barium compound.

Gamma rays can be used to detect cancer and are usually used to kill off cancerous cells, bacteria in food, and any cells on medical equipment in a similar way to UV radiation.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Harmful Effects of Excessive Exposure to

Microwaves

As mentioned microwaves are strongly absorbed by water molecules, and so are ovens. One danger of this is that microwaves are also strongly absorbed by water; this can be fatal to cell tissue.

Infrared

Infrared radiation, as mentioned earlier, transmits heat energy and so is used in electric heaters. Too much exposure to this can cause skin and tissue burns.

UV

Too much exposure to ultraviolet (UV) light can cause cancer in skin cells; our skin responds to ultraviolet light by darkening. The darker skin then absorbs more UV radiation, protecting the more vulnerable skin underneath. In addition it can damage the cells within our eyes, causing a number of eye conditions such as macular degeneration.

X-rays

X-rays can potentially be dangerous, since they ionise (remove electrons) substances. A high enough dose can kill living tissue, while lower doses are capable of making cells become cancerous. Therefore, it is essential for patients and medical staff to take care whenever X-rays are being used.

Thick lead plates are used to shield people from X-rays, since the X-rays are unable to penetrate more than a few millimetres into lead. When an X-ray machine is used to examine a patient, lead plates are placed between the ray tube and the patient, leaving a small gap over the area of examination but protecting the rest of the body from radiation. The staff operating the machine have a lead screen to stand behind; they too are protected from radiation.

In some places of work, employees who frequently have to work with X-ray equipment wear a radiation badge. The badge reacts when it is exposed to X-rays – if it displays signs of overexposure, the badge must stop operating the X-ray equipment.

Gamma rays

Gamma rays have the shortest wavelength (highest frequency) of the electromagnetic spectrum. They are capable of penetrating most skin and tissue and causing mutations within the cells. They pose a cancer risk when used.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – The Electromagnetic Spectrum

1. Define the terms:
 - a. Wavelength
 - b. Frequency
 - c. Amplitude
2. Give the unit we use to measure:
 - a. Wavelength
 - b. Frequency
 - c. Amplitude
3. Draw at least one complete wave. On it label:
 - a. the wavelength
 - b. the amplitude
4. What equation do we use to calculate wave speed?
5. What unit do we use to measure wave speed?
6. Calculate the wavelength of a wave with a wave speed of 299,792,458 45,000 hertz.
7. Calculate the frequency of a wave with a wave speed of 299,792,458 m 3,000 m.
8. Place the waves of the electromagnetic spectrum in order from smallest to largest.
9. For each of the electromagnetic waves state one use.
10. Give a harmful effect of excessive exposure to:
 - a. Microwaves
 - b. Infrared
 - c. X-rays
 - d. Gamma rays

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-Style Questions – The Electromagnetic Spectrum

1. Define the terms:

a. Wavelength

.....
.....

b. Frequency

.....
.....

c. Amplitude

.....
.....

2. Give the unit we use to measure:

a. Wavelength

.....

b. Frequency

.....

c. Amplitude

.....

3. Draw at least one complete wave. On it label:

a. the wavelength

b. the amplitude

4. What equation do we use to calculate wave speed?

.....

5. What unit do we use to measure wave speed?

.....

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



6. Calculate the wavelength of a wave with a wave speed of 299,792,458 45,000 hertz.

.....
.....

7. Calculate the frequency of a wave with a wave speed of 299,792,458 m 3,000 m.

.....
.....

8. Place the waves of the electromagnetic spectrum in order from smallest to largest.

.....
.....

9. For each of the electromagnetic waves state one use.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

10. Give a harmful effect of excessive exposure to:

a. Microwaves

.....
.....

b. Infrared

.....
.....

c. X-rays

.....
.....

d. Gamma rays

.....

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Answers to Exam-Style Questions

INSPECTION COPY

Lesson Plan 1 – Eukaryotic Cells

- Eukaryotic cells are cells which have a true nucleus, such as animal and plant cells that lack a true nucleus, such as bacterial cells.
-

Animal Cells Only	Plant Cells Only	Both
	Chloroplasts	Nucleus
	Cell walls	Cell Membrane
	Vacuole	Cytoplasm
		Mitochondria

- To transfer of electrical signals from one part of the body to another.
- Electrical.
- Sensory neurone: These pass a signal from a sense organ (such as the skin) to the brain. Motor neurone: These pass messages from the spinal cord to the muscles.
- Neurons – Very long, linked to many other cells to pass electrical signals. Loss or corruption.
 - Red blood cells – No nucleus to carry more haemoglobin to carry oxygen. Small size increases large surface area and decreases the amount of time it takes for oxygen to reach the cells.
 - White blood cells – Can change shape to engulf bacteria and to fight infection.
 - Egg cells – Female reproductive cell. Large size provides nourishment. Contains large amount of genetic material.
 - Sperm cells – Male reproductive cell. Tail to swim to the egg. Enzymes to break through egg membrane. Contains only half the normal amount of genetic material.
 - Root hairs – Large surface area and large vacuole aids in absorption of water. Located near xylem for ease of water transport.
 - Xylem – Dead, narrow, hollow cells with no ends which are connected to form a tube. Impermeable to water to allow the transport of water through a plant.
 - Phloem – Hollow tubes connected to other cells and located near companion cells. Used for active transport to allow the transport of sugar through a plant.
 - Guard cells – One wall thicker than the other causing unequal expansion and contraction to form and allow the passage of carbon dioxide into the leaves and oxygen out.

Lesson Plan 2 – Cells, Tissues, Organs, Organ Systems and Transpiration

- A tissue is a grouping of cells with the same function. In turn different tissues form organs. Organs do not work alone and would be useless without other organs. They work together to form organ systems.
- To pump blood around the cardiovascular system.
- To move blood around the body.
- To transport water around the plant.
- To transport sugar around the plant.
- To provide anchorage and to collect water and nutrients from the soil.
- Large surface area. Contains root hairs.
- To absorb sunlight and carbon dioxide for use in photosynthesis.
- They have a large surface area. They also tend to be very flat so that the sunlight can reach into the leaves. Plants also require carbon dioxide for photosynthesis which enters through stomata on the underside of the leaf. These stomata are regulated by guard cells which close depending on the weather conditions.
- The loss of water through the leaves.

Lesson Plan 3 – DNA, Chromosomes and Genes

- Deoxyribonucleic acid.
- In the nucleus.
- To regulate the cell activity. Provides genetic code / instructions for development.
- Double helix.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



5. Adenine, thymine, guanine and cytosine.
6. $A \rightarrow T, G \rightarrow C$.
7. Complementary base pairing.
8. Chromosomes are tightly spiralled sections of DNA that typically form in a s
9. 23 pairs. 23 from each of our parents.
10. Genes are long sections of base pairs that give instructions for individual char
11. Genes give instructions for individual characteristics whilst alleles are differ
12.
 - a. Genotype is a genetic makeup.
 - b. When both alleles of a gene are the same.
 - c. When both alleles of a gene are different.

Lesson Plan 4 – Inheritance and Genetic Diagrams

1.
 - a. strong
 - b. weak
 - c. observable characteristic.
2. The genotype is both alleles for a characteristic whilst the phenotype is only
3.
 - a.

	O	O
B	BO	BO
A	AO	AO

Phenotypes

50% A
50% B

Blood groups

Top left = B
Top right = B
Bottom left = A
Bottom right = A

b.

	B	O
A	OB	OO
O	AB	AO

Phenotypes

25% AB
25% B
25% A
25% O

Blood groups

Top left = OB
Top right = OO
Bottom left = AB
Bottom right = AO

c.

	B	B
A	AB	AB
A	AB	AB

Phenotypes

100% AB

Blood groups

Top left = AB
Top right = AB
Bottom left = AB
Bottom right = AB

d.

	B	b
b	bB	bb
B	BB	Bb

Phenotypes

75% B
25% b

Eye colour

Top left = Brown
Top right = Blue
Bottom left = Brown
Bottom right = Brown

e.

	b	b
B	Bb	Bb
B	Bb	Bb

Phenotypes

100% Bb

Eye colour

Top left = Brown
Top right = Brown
Bottom left = Brown
Bottom right = Brown

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 5 (1) – Pedigree Analysis

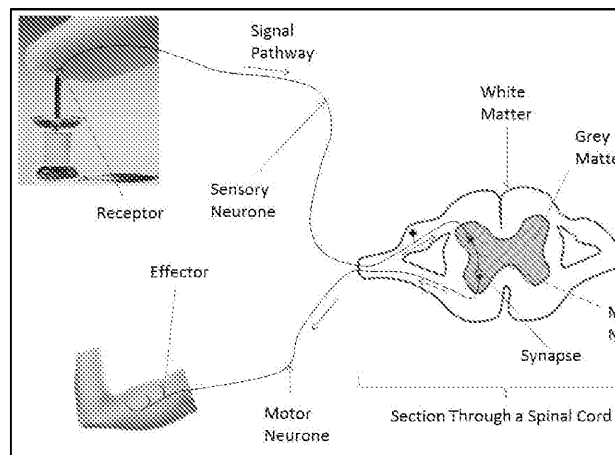
1. Recessive as it is only sporadically demonstrated.
2. 1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 15, 16, 18 = nn
2, 4, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 17 = Nn
3. 2, 7, 10, 11, 14, 17 = bb
1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 15, 16, 18 = Bb
12 and 13 unsure either BB or Bb
4. 1, 3, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 = nn
4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 15 = Nn
2 = NN

Lesson Plan 5 (2) – Genetic Mutations

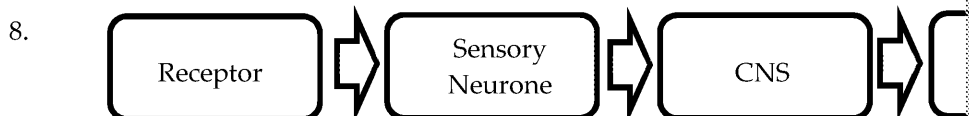
1. Genetic mutations can be caused by a failure to copy DNA correctly by the body, radiation, light and certain chemicals.
2. The individual.
3. The offspring of an individual.
4. A change in function of that gene / change in characteristic.
5. Any sensible answer, e.g. cancer.
6. Any sensible answer, e.g. bacterial resistance.

Lesson Plan 6 – Homeostasis

1. The maintenance of a constant internal environment.
2. Central nervous system. The brain and spinal cord.
3. Peripheral nervous system. The sensory and motor neurones.
4. Sensory neurones transmit signals towards the CNS. Motor neurones transmit signals away from the CNS.
5. Any sensible answer, e.g. Voluntary responses are those that you are aware of and include scratching an itch, or catching a falling object. Involuntary responses are those you are not consciously aware of; these could include blinking when someone goes to sleep or shivering in the dark.
6. The reflex will bypass the conscious part of your mind. This speeds up the response and reduces damage.



7. Similarities: Both are methods of communication from one part of the body to another.
Differences: Speed of Communication – nervous is fast, hormonal is slow
Method of Communication – nervous is electrical, hormonal is chemical
Transport/Transmission – nervous is blood, hormonal is nerve impulses
Duration of Response – nervous is short, hormonal is long
Specificity of Response – nervous is specific, hormonal is non-specific



9. An impulse arrives at the end of a neurone.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Chemicals are made and released into the gap.

Receptors in the end of the next neurone accept the chemicals and set up the

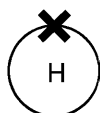
Lesson Plan 7 – Blood Glucose and Body Temperature Regulation

1. Blood glucose level is regulated by the pancreas. When the pancreas senses that it is high it manufactures and secretes a hormone called insulin into the blood. Insulin and it causes the liver to remove any extra dissolved glucose in the blood and store it as glycogen. If sugar levels decrease too much the pancreas secretes the hormone glucagon. The organ is the liver; this time the glucagon converts the glycogen back into glucose. The pancreas is able to keep the average blood glucose level at around 90 mg/dl.
2. Body temperature is controlled by the thermoregulatory centre in the brain. The brain detects temperature differences in the blood running through the brain and also temperature receptors in the skin as well. If it detects the blood is too hot it will cause a number of effects. Sweating reduces body temperature because it uses the heat to evaporate. As it evaporates it takes with it some of the energy from the body. The skin to the skin reducing any insulating air that may be trapped between it and the skin will also dilate; this is vasodilation. This allows a greater amount of blood to reach the skin where it will be the coolest and heat is lost into the air. If the thermoregulatory centre detects the temperature is too low it is also able to react. An impulse is sent to the muscles to cause shivering which produces energy in the form of heat and is used to warm the body. This is known as shivering. The skin will also trap a small amount of insulating air between the skin and the hairs. Finally the skin will constrict; this is vasoconstriction. This prevents blood from entering the skin which reduces heat loss.

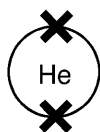
Lesson Plan 8 – Atomic Structure and The Periodic Table

1. Left.
2. Right (except hydrogen).
3. a. nucleus
b. nucleus
c. in orbit in shells
d. in the centre.
4. True.
5. False.
6. All atoms of an element have **the same** number of protons.
Different types of atoms have **a different** number of protons.
Atoms have **the same** number of electrons as protons.
7. a. The mass of an atom compared to an atom of carbon
b. The number of protons in an atom.
8. In order of atomic number.
9. Periods.
10. Groups.
11. Isotopes are atoms of the same element with the same number of protons but different numbers of neutrons.
12. E.g. Chlorine-35 or chlorine-37. Carbon-12 or carbon-14.
13. Because of the relatively large abundance of chlorine 35 in comparison to chlorine 37.
14. The electronic configuration of :

- a. Hydrogen



- b. Helium

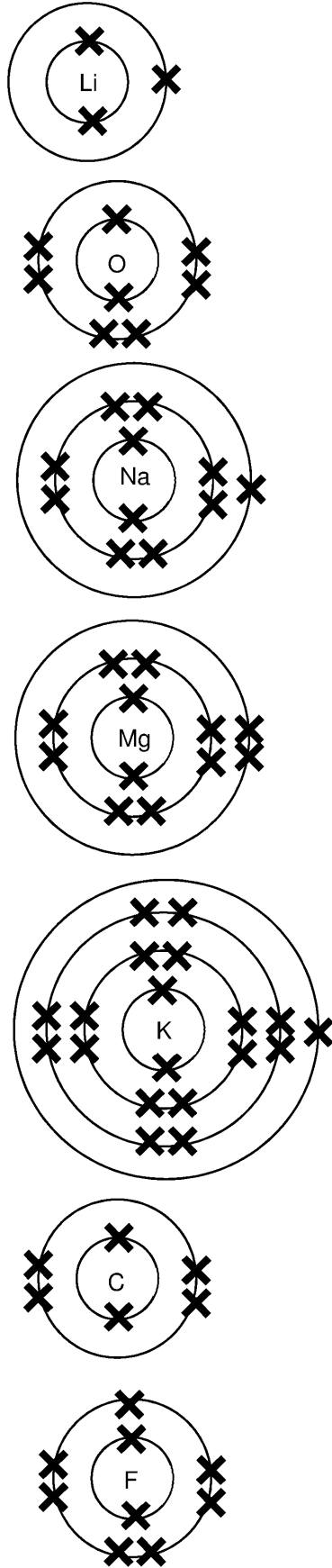


INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

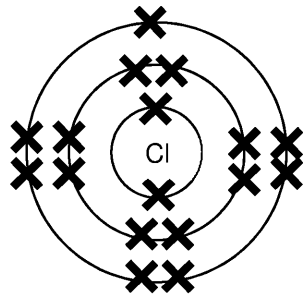


INSPECTION COPY



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





- Helium = 2
- Beryllium = 2.2
- Carbon = 2.4
- Oxygen = 2.6
- Neon = 2.8
- Magnesium = 2.8.2
- Silicon = 2.8.4
- Sulphur = 2.8.6
- Argon = 2.8.8
- Calcium = 2.8.8.2

Particle	Charge	Mass
Proton	0	1
Electron	- 1	Negligible / (1/1836) / 0

1 Substances, Reactions and Equations

Substance	Formula/Symbol	Compound/Element
Water	H ₂ O	Compound
Oxygen	O ₂	Element
Carbon Dioxide	CO ₂	Compound
Hydrogen	H ₂	Element
Carbon Monoxide	CO	Compound
Methane	CH ₄	Compound
Magnesium Oxide	MgO	Compound
Gold	Au	Element
Sodium Chloride	NaCl	Compound
Carbon	C	Element
Silicon	Si	Element
Nitrogen	N ₂	Element
Ammonia	NH ₃	Compound
Iron	Fe	Element

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.

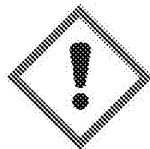
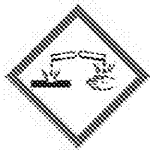
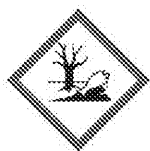
Atom	Atoms are the smallest unit of matter. They are made of protons, neutrons and electrons . The protons and neutrons are packed together in the middle of the atom; we call this the nucleus. Electrons orbit around the outside of the nucleus in shells or energy levels.
Element	All the atoms in a substance are the same, e.g. hydrogen.
Compound	A substance in which two or more atoms have been joined together to form a different substance, e.g. hydrogen and oxygen atoms join together to make water.
Mixture	When two or more substances have been jumbled together, they can easily be separated again, e.g. the air is a mixture of nitrogen, oxygen, water and other gases.

- 3.
- $\text{FeO}_{(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{FeCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{CuO}_{(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CuCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{CaCO}_{3(s)} + 2\text{HNO}_{3(aq)} \rightarrow \text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_{2(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_{3(s)} + 2\text{HNO}_{3(aq)} \rightarrow 2\text{NaNO}_{3(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{CuCO}_{3(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CuCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - $\text{Ca}_{(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CaCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_2(g)$
 - $\text{Mg}_{(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{MgCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_2(g)$
- 4.
- hydrogen
 - oxygen
 - magnesium oxide
 - carbon
 - carbon monoxide
 - cobalt
 - chlorine
 - carbon
 - beryllium
 - gold
 - e.g. chlorine-35 or chlorine-37. Carbon-12 or carbon-14
 - boron
 - argon and calcium
 - hydrogen

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

Lesson Plan 10 – Hazard Symbols and Neutralisation Reactions



Caution – includes harmful and irritant substances that can cause damage if inhaled, swallowed, or absorbed through the skin. These substances are non-corrosive but can be harmful upon contact.

Toxic – these substances can cause death or serious effects on humans or animals.

Flammable – these substances can catch fire easily.

Dangerous to the Aquatic Environment – these substances cause immediate or delayed damage to aquatic life.

Corrosive – these substances can destroy or severely damage living tissue or metal.

2.
 - a. $\text{NaOH}_{(aq)} + \text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{NaCl}_{(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - b. $2\text{NaOH}_{(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_{4(aq)} \rightarrow \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_{4(aq)} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - c. $\text{FeO}_{(s)} + 2\text{HNO}_{3(aq)} \rightarrow \text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - d. $\text{CuO}_{(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CuCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
3.
 - a. Sodium Hydroxide + Nitric Acid \rightarrow Sodium Nitrate + Water
 - b. Lithium Hydroxide + Hydrochloric Acid \rightarrow Lithium Chloride + Water
 - c. Iron (II) Oxide + Hydrochloric Acid \rightarrow Iron(II) Chloride + Water
 - d. Iron (II) Oxide + Sulphuric Acid \rightarrow Iron(II) Sulphate + Water
4. Metal Hydroxide + Acid \rightarrow Salt + Water
5. Metal Oxide + Acid \rightarrow Salt + Water

Lesson Plan 11 – Exploring Chemical Reactions

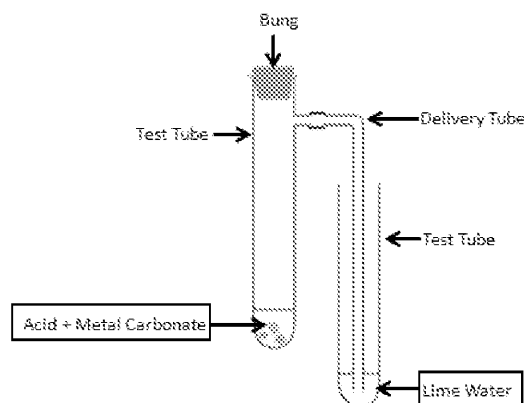
1.
 - a. $\text{CaCO}_{3(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CaCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - b. $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_{3(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_{4(aq)} \rightarrow \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_{4(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - c. $\text{CuCO}_{3(s)} + 2\text{HNO}_{3(aq)} \rightarrow \text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_{2(aq)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)}$
 - d. $\text{Mg}_{(s)} + 2\text{HCl}_{(aq)} \rightarrow \text{MgCl}_{2(aq)} + \text{H}_2(g)$
 - e. $\text{Ca}_{(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_{4(aq)} \rightarrow \text{CaSO}_{4(aq)} + \text{H}_2(g)$
2.
 - a. Calcium Carbonate + Sulphuric Acid \rightarrow Calcium Sulphate + Carbon Dioxide + Water
 - b. Sodium Carbonate + Nitric Acid \rightarrow Sodium Nitrate + Carbon Dioxide + Water
 - c. Copper Carbonate + Hydrochloric Acid \rightarrow Copper Chloride + Carbon Dioxide + Water
 - d. Magnesium + Sulphuric Acid \rightarrow Magnesium Sulphate + Hydrogen
 - e. Calcium + Hydrochloric Acid \rightarrow Calcium Chloride + Hydrogen

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



3.



4. Place a lit splint next to the open end of the tube. You will hear a high pitched squeaky pop test.

Lesson Plan 12 – pH and Universal Indicator

- pH** is a measure of the acidity or alkalinity of a substance. If the substance has a pH of 8–14 it is **alkaline** and if the substance has a pH of 7 it is neutral.
- Acids will turn universal indicator **red**.
Alkalis will turn the universal indicator **blue**.
Neutral substances will turn the universal indicator **green**.

Lesson Plan 13 – Energy Forms and Energy Stores

- Thermal, electrical, light, sound, kinetic, gravitational potential, nuclear, chemical, sensible example.
- Heat.
- Sound.
- Kinetic.
- High shelf.
- Warm bath.
- a. C, b. B, c. C.
- Nuclear fusion is the way energy is released inside stars. The extreme heat at the atoms of their electrons thus turning them into plasma. These nuclei (atoms) are bombarded together with such force that they stick together to form larger nuclei and release amounts of energy. The reactant in this process is hydrogen and the product is helium.
- Nuclear fission works by bombarding atoms with neutrons; this causes the atom to become unstable. The instability is so great that the atom breaks into two separate parts, releasing a huge amount of energy and also releasing other neutrons, which in turn collide with other atoms to propagate the reaction. This is a chain reaction. To stop the reaction becoming uncontrolled, control rods are placed within the reaction chamber which absorb the extra neutrons.
- Any sensible answer, e.g. spring under compression.
- Ultrasound waves are generated which harmlessly penetrate the woman and her abdomen, reflecting off the surface, such as a foetus. A sensor times how long it takes for the signal to reflect back and is turned into a picture.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Lesson Plan 14 – Energy Transformations and Transfers

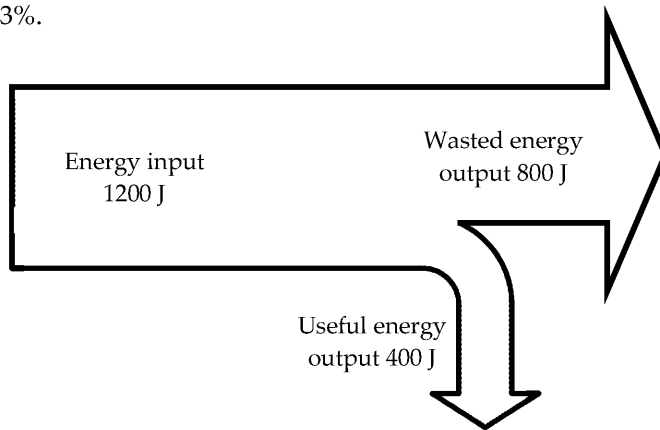
1. 'Energy cannot be created nor destroyed'.
2. Transformed = from one type of energy to another. Transferred = from one place to another.
3. Electrical → thermal + sound
4. Gravitational potential → kinetic
5. Chemical → heat, light, sound
6. Conduction involves the transfer of energy from one particle to the next. This is only possible in solids as the atoms are very close together, although some solids are very poor conductors and some are insulators. Most metals are especially good conductors because their structure allows electrons to move freely through the metal carrying energy with it.
7. As a substance is heated it expands. As they expand they become less dense and the warmer particles will tend to rise towards the top, while the colder, denser particles will tend to sink. The colder parts of the substance are then heated when they reach the bottom, then they expand and rise to the top. At the top they will cool and return to the bottom.
8. Dark, matt surfaces.
9. Dark, matt surfaces.
10. Delocalised electrons or a sea of free electrons.
11. Joules (J).
12. Sankey diagram.
13. 36
14. Work done.
15. $W = Fd$.
16. 180 J.
17. 180 J.
18. 6.75 J.
19. When a sound is made it causes the particles in the air around the object to vibrate. These vibrations cause adjoining particles to move and so on until the vibrations reach the ear.
20. No.

Lesson Plan 15 – Power and Efficiency

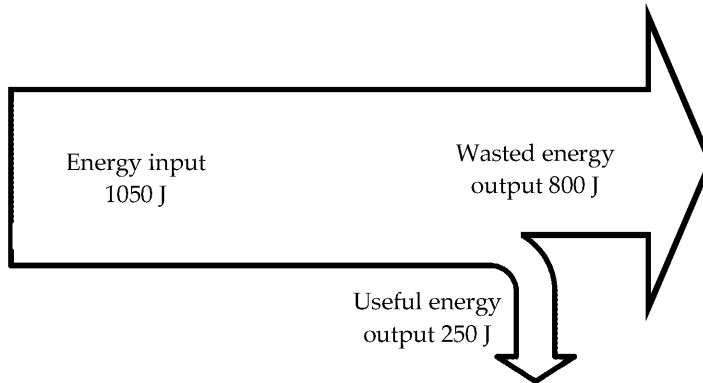
1. Electrical power measures the rate at which an appliance is able to transfer energy.
2. Watts (W).
3. Power (W) = energy (J) / time (S).
4. Energy (J) = power (W) × time (S).
5. 13 W.
6. 3.25 W.
7. 26 W.
8. 11.11 W.
9. 108,000 J.
10. 21,600 J.
11. 2,700 J.
12. 259,200 J.
13. The efficiency of a process is the proportion of the energy input which is converted into useful energy output.
14. Efficiency = (useful energy output/ total energy input) × 100%.
15. 25%.
16. 10%.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

17. 33.3%.



18. 23.8%.



Lesson Plan 16 – Sources and Stores of Energy

1. An energy source is described as a renewable energy source if it is not going to run out in the future. If there is only a finite (fixed) amount of an energy source available, it is non-renewable.
2. Solar, wind, biofuels, hydroelectric, wave, tidal, geothermal.
3. Fossil fuel and nuclear.
4. Any sensible answer or combination, e.g.

a. *The advantages of geothermal energy are:*

- There are no fuel costs.
- There are no waste products or harmful substances released as a by-product.
- Once set up, the energy source is reliable.
- It is a renewable source – it will not run out in the foreseeable future.

The disadvantages of geothermal energy are:

- The start-up time and initial cost are both very high, particularly when drilling deep towards the rocks.
- It is difficult to find suitable locations for this type of power station.

b. *The advantages of solar energy are:*

- Renewable – the Sun will outlast us by many billions of years.
- There are no fuel costs.
- The start-up time of both solar panels and solar cells is fairly quick.
- There are no waste products or harmful by-products.

The disadvantages of solar energy are:

- Solar cells in particular are very expensive, which means the electricity generated is expensive.
- The heat generated by solar panels depends strongly on the climate – different locations.
- At night there is no sunlight, so no solar energy can be collected.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



c. *The advantages of water as an energy source are:*

- Water is a renewable source – it does not get used up by any of the processes.
- There are little or no fuel costs.
- The start-up time is fairly short.
- Hydroelectric dams (particularly pumped storage systems) and tidal barrages are safe.
- No harmful by-products are formed.

The disadvantages of water energy are:

- Hydroelectric dams and tidal barrages both disturb their ecosystems – the loss of habitat of estuary-dwelling species, such as wading birds, while hydroelectric dams can destroy farmland and force people to leave their homes.
- In the flooding caused by hydroelectric dams, plant life under the water produces methane, which is a greenhouse gas and contributes towards global warming.
- Wave machines are inefficient and cannot generate a large amount of electricity.

d. *The advantages of wind energy are:*

- It is renewable – the convection currents are driven by heat from the Sun and will continue in the foreseeable future.
- There are no fuel costs.
- There are no harmful by-products or waste products.
- Wind turbines are fairly cheap and have an almost immediate start-up time.

The disadvantages of wind energy are:

- A single turbine cannot generate much electricity on its own – huge wind farms are needed to generate a significant amount.
- It is unreliable – the amount of electricity generated depends entirely on the wind. If there is no wind, then no electricity can be generated at all.
- Wind farms are considered by some to be an eyesore. They can also be noisy and cause problems for nearby residents. These issues are known as visual and noise pollution.

e. *The advantages of biofuels are:*

- They are renewable – the organisms involved are not endangered and can be replaced.
- Low fuel cost – biofuels are mostly generated from substances that would otherwise be waste.
- Cheap and quick start-up.
- Although burning the gas produces carbon dioxide, it also takes some time to produce. The intake and output roughly balance out – this is referred to as carbon neutrality.

The disadvantages of biofuels are:

- The decomposition process produces a very unpleasant smell.
- The amount of land required for significant biofuel generation is very large.

f. *The main advantages of using fossil fuels are:*

- Their relatively quick start-up time – gas power stations take the shortest time to start up, followed by oil and then coal.
- They are more reliable energy sources – the amount burnt in power stations can be decreased according to demand. Matching supply and demand is very easy.

The disadvantages of using fossil fuels are:

- Because they are non-renewable, fossil fuels will one day run out and there will be nothing left on them.
- Fossil fuels release carbon dioxide (CO₂) when they are burnt. Carbon dioxide is the most common so releasing large amounts of it into the atmosphere can contribute to global warming. The most carbon dioxide, followed by oil and then gas.
- Additionally, fossil fuels can release sulphur dioxide when burnt. Sulphur dioxide is harmful to organisms which breathe it in, and can also react with water to form sulphuric acid rain.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



g. *The advantages of nuclear power are:*

- Like fossil fuels, nuclear fuels are reliable sources of energy, which can be used whenever it is needed to meet demand.
- Unlike fossil fuels, nuclear fuels do not release any harmful gases into the atmosphere.
- Nuclear fuels are relatively cheap.

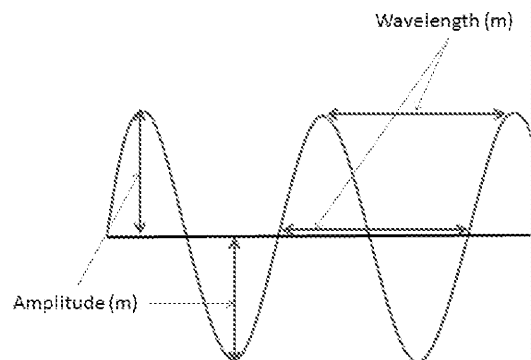
The disadvantages of using nuclear fuels are:

- Nuclear fuels are non-renewable, and so the amount available to us is limited.
- Radioactive material is dangerous to deal with. In the event of an accident, it can expose people to very harmful radioactive substances.
- When the fuel is used up, the remaining waste is still radioactive and can remain dangerous for thousands of years, so it is difficult to dispose of safely.
- Nuclear plants have a longer start-up time than fossil fuel plants, and they are expensive to build and dismantle.

5. Doing this will reduce waste, and reduce price to the consumer and to industry. This could in turn lead to a reduced cost of manufacturing, which could also cost less. In addition effective use of energy resources will lead to less of an environmental impact. This could lead to reduced carbon dioxide emissions into the atmosphere or fewer wind turbines.
6. Any sensible reasoned answer.

Lesson Plan 17 – The Electromagnetic Spectrum

1. a. The wavelength of a wave is the distance between any point on a wave and the next point in phase. For example, the distance between two crests or two troughs in a series of waves.
b. The frequency of a wave is the number of wavelengths that pass a certain point in a given time.
c. The amplitude of a wave is its maximum displacement from its undisturbed position.
2. a. m, b. Hz, c. M.
3.



4. Wave speed (m/s) = wavelength (m) × frequency (Hz).
5. m/s.
6. 6,662 m.
7. 99,930.8 Hz.
8. Gamma, X-ray, UV, visible, infrared, microwaves, radio.
9. Any sensible answers, for example:
 - radio waves (broadcasting and satellite transmissions)
 - microwaves (cooking, satellite transmissions, communications and weather forecasting)
 - infrared (cooking, thermal imaging, optical fibres, television remote controls)
 - visible light (vision, photography and illumination)
 - ultraviolet (fluorescent lamps, detecting forged bank notes and disinfecting)
 - X-rays (observing the internal structure of objects and medical X-rays)
 - gamma rays (sterilising food and medical equipment, and the detection of cancer)
10. Any sensible answer, for example:
 - a. microwaves (internal heating of body cells)
 - b. infrared (skin burns)
 - c. ultraviolet (damage to surface cells and eyes, leading to skin cancer and cataracts)
 - d. X-rays and gamma rays (mutation or damage to cells in the body)

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

