



Year 9

Student Planner and Knowledge Navigators

2023-24 Cycle 3

Full Name:		Advisory:	
Advisor:		Head of Year:	

Wednesday Morning Meeting: Behaviour Curriculum and Cognitive Science

Behaviour Curriculum Brain Dump

Behaviour Curriculum: Retrieval Practice

- | | |
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| 1. _____ | 4. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 5. _____ |
| 3. _____ | 6. _____ |

Cognitive Science Brain Dump

Personal Reflection: How will I apply what I have learnt in today's session?

Revision Space

Wednesday Morning Meeting: Behaviour Curriculum and Cognitive Science

Behaviour Curriculum Brain Dump

Behaviour Curriculum: Retrieval Practice

- | | |
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| 1. _____ | 4. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 5. _____ |
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Cognitive Science Brain Dump

Personal Reflection: How will I apply what I have learnt in today's session?

Revision Space

Quote of the day

"I hated every minute of training, but I said, 'Don't quit. Suffer now and live the rest of your life as a champion.'" — Muhammad Ali

What have you learnt from today's session? Write down at least three facts below.

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

Review of Mastery Next Step:

Did you achieve your mastery next step from Monday? If so, how did you achieve it?

If not, why not?

Monday Morning Meeting - Cycle 3 Week 12

Mastery Next Step

Word of the Week:
Definition

Word of the Week:
Use in a sentence

Characterisation	
25. Motivation	What a character wants or needs in a scene
26. Style	The way in which something is performed e.g. naturalistically
27. Subtext	The unspoken meaning, feelings and thoughts beneath the lines
Physical Skills and Vocal Skills	
28. Movement	Changing positions or moving across the space
29. Posture	The way they stand and hold themselves
30. Gesture	Movements of hands, head, legs usually convey a message/meaning
31. Facial expressions	The feelings (or lack of them) shown on the face
32. Use of stage space	How an actor moves around the space, using levels, direction
33. Interaction/ Proxemics	How a character reacts to other characters. Proxemics mean moving towards or away from another character and the distance between the characters
34. Handling of props	How a prop is handled during a performance
35. Choreography/ stage fights	Setting movements to create meaning/blocking movements to create the impression of violence
36. Stage business	Minor movements or blocking that an actor does to establish a situation (reading a book/ closing a window)
37. Pace and pause of movement	The speed of the movement and use of stillness to convey a meaning, feeling or atmosphere
38. Pitch	The vocal register - high or low
39. Pace	How quickly or slowly something is done
40. Pause	A hesitation or silence
41. Emphasis	Stressing or highlighting something
42. Inflection	Saying a word in a particular way to stress its meaning
43. Accent	A way of pronouncing words associated with a country, region or social class
44. Volume	Degree of loudness
45. Delivery	How dialogue is said to convey meaning
46. Emotional range/ tone	Feelings are expressed by the way the line is said
47. Phrasing	Use of hesitation, metre and/or grouping

Key Terms	
1. Customer	A person who will buy OR use your product.
2. Client	A person or company asking you to work for them.
3. Design Brief	A guide for a project given to you by the client.
4. Ore	The solid material which metal is taken from.
5. Ferrous Metal	A metal which contains iron.
6. Non-Ferrous Metal	A metal which does not contain iron.
7. Alloy	A metal made from 2 or more metals to improve its properties.
8. Pewter	Alloy metal which will melt at low temperatures. Contains many metals including Tin & Copper.
9. Mould	A hollow container designed for casting.
10. Casting	The process of using the mould to pour molten metal inside and create a shape when the metal has cooled.
11. Sprue Hole	The gap where the metal enters the mould.
12. Sprue	The metal which is left over from moulding which takes the shape of the sprue hole.
13. Hearth	The base of the furnace in the workshop used for heating metal.

6 Rs	
R Reduce	Minimise the amount of material and energy used in the production or use of the product.
R Recycle	Take an existing product that has become waste and reprocess the material to use in a new product.
R Reuse	Take an existing product that's become waste and use the material or parts for another purpose, without processing it.
R Repair	When a product breaks down or doesn't function properly, you should be able to fix it.
R Refuse	Don't use or buy a product if you think you don't need it or if it is bad for the environment.
R Rethink	Ask if we can sustain our current way of life and the way we design and make. Come up with new solutions.



Key Terms	
Health and Safety	A set of rules and regulations enforced to keep people safe in the chosen environment.
Hazard	A risk of harm or injury.
Precaution	A measure taken to minimise the chance of harm or injury.
Pillar Drill	A drill mounted on a column or pillar. It is used to drill holes in wood, metal and plastics. You must clamp your work.
Dowel	A hardwood rod made of lamin with a circular profile.
Sand Paper	Made from Aluminium Oxide comes in a variety of grades.
Isometric Drawing	A drawing with vertical lines and lines at 30degrees from the horizontal.
Manufactured Board	Large sheets of processed wood such as plywood and MDF.

Key Terms	
Polymer	Technical term for what we commonly call plastics.
Molecule	A group of atoms bonded together.
Polymer Chain	A chain of molecules found in all polymers.
Thermofarming	A polymer which can be reheated and reformed repeatedly.
Cross links	Connections between polymer chains.
Thermosetting	A polymer which cannot be reheated and reformed.
Raw material	The natural material from which a product is made.
Extracting oil	Drilling into the earth to remove oil.
Fractional distillation	Separating oil into different parts, including what is needed to make polymers.
Moulding	Turning a polymer into a product shape.
Stock Form	How we buy polymers/plastics to use to make products at school e.g. sheet, tubular, square profile.
PVA	Glue used to join timber or paper/board together.
Epoxy Resin	Glue used to join timber/metal/polymers together.
Solvent Cement	Glue used to join polymers together.
Contact Adhesive	Glue used to join timber/metal/polymers together.

Maths Masterclass: Retrieval Practice	
1. _____	4. _____
2. _____	5. _____
3. _____	6. _____

Maths Masterclass: Application Practice	
I Do	You Do

Maths Masterclass: Application Practice	
1. _____	4. _____
2. _____	5. _____
3. _____	6. _____

Maths Masterclass: Diagnostic Question	

Behaviour Curriculum Brain Dump

Behaviour Curriculum: Retrieval Practice

1. _____	4. _____
2. _____	5. _____
3. _____	6. _____

Cognitive Science Brain Dump

Personal Reflection: How will I apply what I have learnt in today's session?

Equipment for Cooking	
	14. Piping Bag Used to apply various liquid-based food to other foods – batter or icing. Part of shaping and moulding
	15. Palette Knife Used to smooth or lift different types of foods or decorative foods, such as smoothing butter cream icing
	16. Baking Tray Used to cook or bake food items. Different types of trays are available

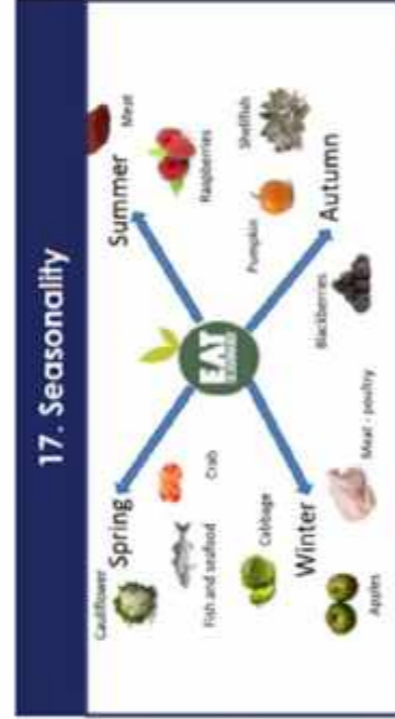
17. The Eatwell Guide	
<p>Fruit and Veg</p> <p>Dairy and Alternatives</p> <p>Carbohydrates</p> <p>Oils and Spreads</p> <p>Protein</p>	<p>the eatwell plate</p> 

18. Heat Transfer	
	Conduction – direct heat - frying
	Convection – heat rising through liquid or air - boiling
	Radiation – heat from light ray transfer – bba/grilling

Key Terms	
1 Health and Safety	Rules you should follow in the kitchen to keep you safe while cooking and preparing food.
2 Cross-contamination	When bacteria from raw meat is spread onto vegetables . Puts people at risk of food poisoning. Avoided by using different equipment to prepare and cook raw meat and vegetables.
3 The Eatwell Guide	The main source of nutritional information in the diet – five food groups: Fruit and vegetables, carbohydrates, protein, dairy and alternatives, oils and spreads. Gives food portion information to people.
4 Nutritional Values	The amount of nutrients – both macro (big) and micro (small) – that a given dish provides you with.
5 Micronutrients	Nutrients such as vitamins and minerals, including calcium, vitamin A, B, C, D, E and K.
6 Sensory Analysis	Using the senses – sound, texture, aesthetics, hearing, smell and umami – to decide how successful a dish is.
7 Heat Transfer	When heat is transferred from the source of heat to the food. Conduction, convection and radiation – frying = conduction, boiling = convection, grilling = radiation.
8 Fermentation	Micro-organisms – such as yeast – breaking down the carbohydrates in food into alcohol substances. We use different amounts of fermentation for different foods.
9 Method	The steps that are written down about how to make the dish.
10 Ingredients	The different food products that are needed to make a dish.
11 Food Evaluation	The process of analysing food products to determine their sensory, nutritional, and safety properties.
12 Balanced Diet	Eating a variety of foods to get all the nutrients in the right proportions and quantities to be healthy.
13 Composite Meal	A food/dish made from different food groups, e.g. pizza, spaghetti bolognese.

Key Terms	
1 Health and Safety	Rules you should follow in the kitchen to keep you safe while cooking and preparing food.
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3 The Eatwell Guide	The main source of nutritional information in the diet - five food groups: fruit and vegetables, carbohydrates, protein, dairy and alternatives, oils and spreads. Gives food portion information to people.
4 Nutritional Values	The amount of nutrients - both macro (big) and micro (small) - that a given dish provides you with.
5 Macronutrients	Nutrients we supposed to consume in large amounts such as carbohydrates, proteins and fats.
6 Micronutrients	Nutrients we supposed to consume in small amounts such as vitamins and minerals, including calcium, vitamin A, B, C, D, E and K.
7 Raising Agents	Three types: Chemical (such as baking powder), biological (yeast) and mechanical (whisk) used to get air into food to change the characteristics. For example, yeast fermenting to release CO ₂ to help create air bubbles in bread and make it rise.
8 Time Plan	A plan for how you will allocate time to each step of a method in a recipe while cooking.
9 Enzymic Browning	When a food reacts with oxygen to make it brown.
10 Food Sources and Origins	Where a food comes from - the original place. Such as pork from a pig.
11 Seasonality and Food Miles	The distance a product has travelled to reach the destination it is cooked and eaten in. For instance, peaches bought from abroad to the UK because they're not seasonal.

Equipment for Cooking	
	Spatula Used to combine, smooth, separate, or collect mixtures or food during cooking or preparation. Different types of spatulas are available.
	Frying Pan Used for different types of frying such as shallow frying, stir fry, deep frying
	Weighing Scale and Measuring Spoons Used to measure the correct amount of solid food and liquid



English Masterclass: Retrieval Practice	
1. _____	4. _____
2. _____	5. _____
3. _____	6. _____

English Masterclass: Application Practice	
I Do	You Do

English Masterclass: Additional Notes	

Friday Morning Meeting: Cultural Studies

Quote of the day
 'It's never too late to be what you might've been.' — George Eliot

What have you learnt from today's session? Write down at least three facts below.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Review of Mastery Next Step:
 Did you achieve your mastery next step from Monday? If so, how did you achieve it?
 If not, why not?

Monday Morning Meeting - Cycle 3 Week 13

Mastery Next Step

Word of the Week: Definition	
Word of the Week: Use in a sentence	

Food Technology Knowledge Navigator

Filled with hot water to wash equipment.	Paring knife – small knife used to generally cut veg and meat.	Used to cut food product on to protect work surface. Red for meat, white for veg.

Hygiene and Safety in the kitchen
 Personal rules:
 • Wash your hands for 20 seconds • Tie your hair back
 • Wear an apron • Remove Jewellery

Used for frying, boiling or other types of cooking using a saucepan, top of the oven.	The top section of the oven (if it's a double oven).	Used for drying equipment.

Protein

Lean beef 21g per 100g	Turkey 28g per 100g	High protein yoghurt 13g per 100g
Chicken 21g per 100g	Milk 4g per 100g	Cheese 18g per 100g
White fish 18g per 100g	Egg 6g per 100g	Eggplant 4g per 100g
Tofu 8g per 100g	Mince 21g per 100g	Legumes 7g per 100g

Simple Carbohydrates

Bread 48g per 100g	Rice 48g per 100g	Pasta 48g per 100g

Complex Carbohydrates

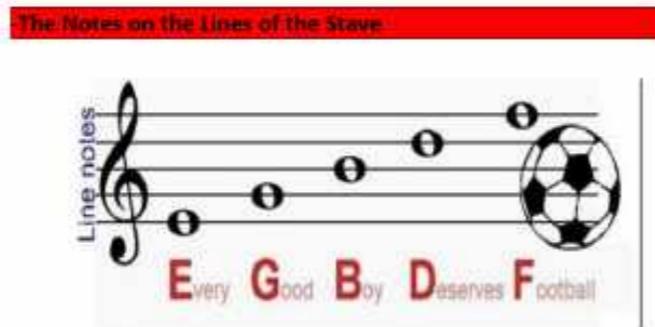
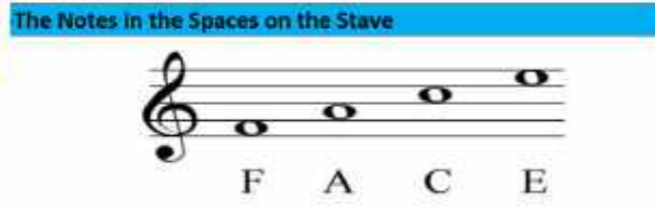
Wheat 48g per 100g	Barley 48g per 100g	Rye 48g per 100g

Fats

Butter 81g per 100g	Margarine 81g per 100g	Olive oil 81g per 100g

Key Terms	
1 Fruits and vegetables	1st and largest food group. All fruits and vegetables – does not include potatoes. This is the one we should have the most of.
2 Carbohydrates	2nd largest food group has two main categories: Starchy are slow-release energy – foods like potato, whole grains. Sugary are fast-release energy – foods such as sweets, juice, white bread.
3 Protein	3rd largest food group. All forms of meat, includes eggs and other animal products – bacon and sausages. Non animal sources: beans, pulses, nuts, lentils.
4 Dairy and alternatives	4th largest food group. Cheese, milk, cream from animals. Alternatives are options that are made from plant products as opposed to animal products, such as soya milk.
5 Fats and spreads	5th and last food group – Olive oil, margarine, for example, are in this group.
6 The Eatwell Guide	Tool created by government to advise on healthy diet and what food should be consumed in each proportion. Can advise on food groups as an overall diet for daily or weekly planning.
7 Macronutrients	The main and biggest (macro = big) nutrients we need each day for our bodies to function.
8 Carbohydrates - macronutrient	Its main function is to give us energy to perform daily activities.
9 Proteins - macronutrient	A macronutrient, its main function is to help the body build muscles and repair body cells.
10 Fats - macronutrient	A macronutrient, its main function is to help protect organs from damage by providing a cushion.
11 Cross contamination	A spread of harmful microorganism from one thing to another. For example, if kitchen environment is not kept clean or unhygienic preparation of food.
12 Hazard	A hazard is any source of potential damage, harm or adverse health effects on something or someone. Basically, a hazard is the potential for harm.
13 Seasonality	Seasonality of food refers to the times of the year when a given type of food is at its peak, either in terms of harvest or its flavour.

Key Definitions		
1.	Notation	A series or system of written symbols used to represent elements in music.
2.	Clef	Any of several symbols placed at the left hand end of a staff, indicating the pitch of the notes written on it.
3.	Treble Clef	A symbol found at the beginning of a staff to indicate how the notes on that staff should be read.
4.	Staff	A set of five parallel lines on which a note is written to indicate its pitch.
5.	Ledger Line	A ledger line is used in musical notation to notate pitches above or below the lines and spaces of the regular musical staff.
6.	Accidental	A sign seen before a note on the staff that raises or lowers the pitch of a note.
7.	Semitone	The smallest interval used in classical Western music, equal to a twelfth of an octave or half a tone.
8.	Whole Tone	The distance of two semitones between two notes.
9.	Enharmonic	Relating to or denoting notes which are the same in pitch (in modern tuning) though bearing different names.



Exploring Chords and Melodies

A-Musical Elements-Key Definitions		
8.	Ukulele	A small four-stringed guitar of Hawaiian origin.
9.	Chord	A group of (typically three or more) notes sounded together, as a basis of harmony.
10.	Sequence	A particular order in which related things follow each other.
11.	Tempo	The speed of a piece of music.
12.	Technique	A skilful or efficient way of doing or achieving something.
13.	Ensemble	To perform music to an audience as part of a group.
14.	Performance	The act of entertaining an audience by singing or playing a piece of music on a music instrument.
15.	Rhythm	Patterns of long and short sounds played within a steady beat.
16.	Pitch	The highness or lowness of sound.

B-The parts of a Ukulele

10. The ukulele has four strings tuned to the notes G C E A (Greedy Cats Eat Ants).

C-Chords on the Ukulele							
Chord Name	Notes in the Chord	Position on the instrument	Diagram	Chord Name	Notes in the Chord	Position on the instrument	Diagram
12.	C Major	A string, 3 rd fret		14.	G Major	C string 2 nd fret, E string 3 rd fret & A string 2 nd fret	
13.	A minor	G string, 2 nd fret		15.	F Major	G string fret 2 & E string fret 1	

Maths Masterclass: Retrieval Practice

1. _____	4. _____
2. _____	5. _____
3. _____	6. _____

Maths Masterclass: Application Practice

I Do	You Do

Maths Masterclass: Application Practice

1. _____	4. _____
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Maths Masterclass: Diagnostic Question

Wednesday Morning Meeting: Behaviour Curriculum and Cognitive Science

Behaviour Curriculum Brain Dump

Behaviour Curriculum: Retrieval Practice

1. _____	4. _____
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


Cognitive Science Brain Dump

Personal Reflection: How will I apply what I have learnt in today's session?

Music Knowledge Navigator


KS3 Music-Knowledge Navigator


Exploring Rhythmic Notation

A-Musical Elements-Key Definitions			B-Note Names, Symbols, Duration & Rests				
1.	Pulse	Pulse is a steady beat like a ticking clock, or your heartbeat and it provides the basis for rhythmic structure in music.	Note	Name	Duration	Rest	
2.	Rhythm	An aspect, characteristic or feature that makes up a piece of music.	11.		Semibreve	4 beats	
3.	Element	The length of a sound – long/short	12.		Minim	2 beats	
4.	Dynamics	The varying levels of volume within a piece of music.	13.		Crotchet	1 beat	
5.	Solo	To perform music to an audience by yourself.	14.		Quaver	1/2 beat	
6.	Ensemble	To perform music to an audience as part of a group.	15.		Semiquaver	1/4 beat	
7.	Performance	The act of entertaining an audience by singing or playing a piece of music on a music instrument					

C-Dynamics Symbols			
	Symbol	Italian	English
16.	<i>pp</i>	<i>pianissimo</i>	Very quiet
17.	<i>p</i>	<i>piano</i>	Quiet
18.	<i>mf</i>	<i>mezzo forte</i>	Moderately loud
19.	<i>f</i>	<i>forte</i>	loud
20.	<i>ff</i>	<i>fortissimo</i>	Very loud
21.		<i>crescenda</i>	Gradually getting louder

Introduction to Keyboard Skills

A-Musical Elements-Key Definitions			B-Numbering Our Fingers	
1.	Keyboard	A musical instrument that consists of a row of keys that increase in pitch across the instrument.	8. 	
2.	Octave	A series or scale of eight notes e.g. C to C.		
3.	Accuracy	The quality or state of being correct or precise.		
4.	Semibreve	A note having the time value of 4 beats represented by a ring with no stem.		
5.	Solo	To perform music to an audience by yourself.	9. C-The Musical Alphabet	
6.	Ensemble	To perform music to an audience as part of a group.	10. The musical alphabet starts on the note C.	
7.	Performance	The act of entertaining an audience by singing or playing a piece of music on a music instrument	10. The notes within the musical alphabet are C D E F G A and B.	

D-The Notes on a Keyboard	
11.	
12.	C is always the white note situated to the left of the set of two black keys.
13.	Middle C is the C note found directly in the middle of the keyboard.

How Do Artists Use the Different Elements of Art?

1. I will learn how artists use the different elements of art.
2. I will research and respond to a wide range of artists.
3. I will explore a range of materials, techniques, and processes.

Artists we will use to explore the Elements of Art: Sonia Delaunay, Wassily Kandinsky, Paul Klee



Sonia Delaunay 1885-1979



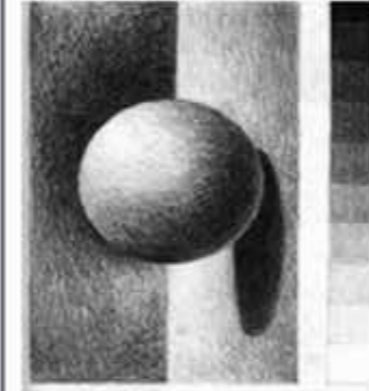
Wassily Kandinsky 1866



Paul Klee 1879-1940

All artists use the colour wheel to make decisions about their work.

You will learn how to paint with accuracy and how to create a colour wheel.



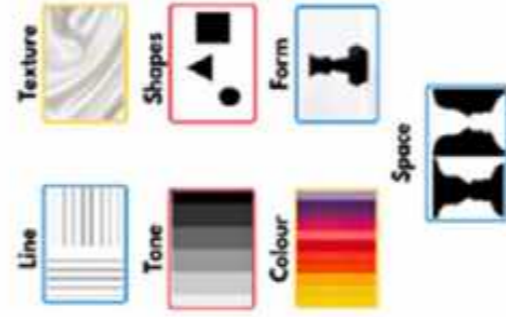
What are the Elements of Art?

The Elements are LINE; COLOUR; VALUE; SPACE; SHAPE; FORM; TEXTURE.

You will be learning how the Elements of Art are the foundation of ALL Art created. Artists use the Elements in all forms.



You will explore mark making, creating tone and texture. Your sketchbook will become a pathway towards GCSE Art and Design as you become even more confident in Art.



English Masterclass: Retrieval Practice

1. _____	4. _____
2. _____	5. _____
3. _____	6. _____

English Masterclass: Application Practice

I Do	You Do

English Masterclass: Additional Notes

Quote of the day

“Twenty years from now you’ll be more disappointed by the things you did not do than the ones you did.” — Mark Twain

What have you learnt from today’s session? Write down at least three facts below.

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

Review of Mastery Next Step:

Did you achieve your mastery next step from Monday? If so, how did you achieve it?

If not, why not?

Revision: Advice and Guidance

One of the best revision techniques is Look, Cover, Write, Check. The process is outlined below.

1. Look at the first bullet point or sentence.
2. Read it through three to five times.
3. Cover the page so that you can no longer see it.
4. Write it out exactly (word for word) as it appears in your knowledge navigator from memory.
5. Check what you wrote. Tick if correct, change if incorrect.
6. Repeat.
7. When you get it 100% correct then move on to the next chunk of information.

Remember

If information retrieved (remembered) often enough then it will gradually form part of our long term memory. Then we will never forget it.

This process is hard. If it isn’t hard then it isn’t working.

BTEC Level 1/2 Tech Award in Enterprise – Component 3



12. Calculations

Profit = Total revenue – Total Costs

Gross profit = Turnover – Cost of sales

Net profit = Gross profit – Expenditure

13. Turnover: the total revenue an enterprise receives in a given financial period.

Capital: Money put in to start up or grow a business.

Cash: The money an enterprise actually has including cash in the till and money in the bank.

Profit: All revenue minus expenses over a period of time.

14. Asset: Something that an enterprise (or the owner of an enterprise) owns.

Fixed asset: Does not change in the short term or the owner of the enterprise will use to make money. E.g. A vehicle.

Current asset: An item that will change with every transaction. E.g. stock.

Liability: Something an enterprise owes.

Current liabilities: Money that must be paid back within a year. E.g. bank overdraft.

Long-term liabilities: Money that can be repaid over a longer period of time. E.g. loans.

15. Profitability: An enterprise’s ability to turn revenue into profit.

Gross profit margin (%) = (Gross profit / Sales revenue) x 100

Net profit margin (%) = (Net profit / Sales revenue) x 100

Liquidity: The ability of an enterprise to pay its debts.

Current ratio = current assets / current liabilities

Liquid capital ratio = (current assets – inventories) / current liabilities

BTEC Level 1/2 Tech Award in Enterprise – Component 3



16. Cash inflows: The amounts of money entering a business’s bank account.

Cash outflows: The amounts of money leaving a business’s bank account.

Cash flow statements: Actual cash inflows and outflows over a period of 12 months.

Cash flow forecasts: Cash flow statements that predict the cash inflows and outflows for an enterprise over a period of time.

Net cash flow: The difference between cash inflows and cash outflows over a particular time period.

Purpose of cash flow forecast:

- Identify the possible inflows
- Identify the possible outflows
- Work out the net cash flow.

17. Break-even: Occurs when an enterprise has made enough money through product sales to cover the cost of making or producing them. There is no profit and no loss.

BE = FC / (SP – VC per unit)

Benefits of break-even

Both the fixed and variable costs can be identified

- The owner knows how many items must be sold to make a profit.

Limitations of break-even

- Assumes for example all wages and rent will stay the same over all levels of output.
- Assumes that revenue and total costs are linear.

18. Internal sources of finance

Finance that comes from within an enterprise.

Retained profit: Profit that is not shared out to shareholders but is reinvested in the business.

Selling assets: Items owned by the business that are sold and the money is reinvested in the business.

External sources of finance

Finance that comes from outside of the enterprise.

Overdraft: Short-term loan facility.

Trade credit: Current assets, such as raw materials are purchased on credit and must be paid within 90 days.

Bank loan: Agreed amount of money that will be paid back over a period of time.

BTEC Level 1/2 Tech Award in Enterprise – Component 3

<p>1. Enterprise: Word used to represent the ideas and initiative involved in starting a new business.</p> <p>Promotion: Enterprises use promotion to communicate with their current and potential customers.</p> <p>Main aims:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Build positive associations with the enterprise Encourage customers to purchase products or services. <p>Features and benefits:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inform customers Remind customers Persuade customers. <p>Medium: refers to the type of advertising that a business chooses to use e.g. TV, radio, magazines, etc.</p>	<p>2. Advertising: This entails an enterprise paying for space in the media to communicate with the public about its goods and services.</p> <p>Purpose of advertising</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> To inform people: an enterprise needs to make potential customers aware of a new product and its benefits. To persuade people to make a purchase: an enterprise might tell people about the benefits its products offer or their value for money. <p>Examples = moving image, print, ambient (e.g. on the sides of buses), digital and audio.</p> <p>Purpose of sales promotion</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> To entice people in To boost sales figures To attract first-time buyers To clear old stock. 	<p>5. Personal selling: Where a representative of an enterprise contacts potential customers directly. E.g. face-to-face, by telephone, via email or through video or web conferencing</p> <p>Public relations: Involves promoting an enterprise, a brand, a product or service by placing information about it in the media without paying for the time or media space directly. E.g. exhibitions, sponsorship or press releases.</p> <p>6. Types of market</p> <p>Business to consumer (B2C): Products or services that you buy for yourself. E.g. Clothes, toys, food, etc.</p> <p>Business to business (B2B): When an enterprise sells goods or services to other enterprises. E.g. Kellogg's selling to Tesco and Sainsbury's.</p> <p>7. Direct marketing: When an enterprise communicates with a customer directly to try and sell them a product or service. E.g. direct mail (junk mail), mail order catalogues, magazines and telemarketing.</p>
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BTEC Level 1/2 Tech Award in Enterprise – Component 3

<p>8. Market segmentation: Markets can be divided into different sections or market segments. Each segment is made up of customers who have similar characteristics and needs.</p> <p>Benefits of segmenting the market</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understand the characteristics and needs of their customers better Develop goods and services for a specific market segment Identify and choose a target market to specialise in Choose promotional strategies that are better suited to their target market. 	<p>9. Different market segments:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Demographic – age, race, religion, gender, family size, ethnicity, income, education level and socio-economic group Geographic – location Psychographic – social class, attitudes, lifestyle and personal characteristics Behavioural – spending, consumption, usage, loyalty status and desired benefits. 	<p>10. Factors influencing the choice of promotional methods:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Size of enterprise – large enterprises can use all promotional strategies, whereas small enterprises can't Budgetary constraints – the amount of money an enterprise has available to spend on promotion Appropriateness for product/service - choosing the best method for the product / service the enterprise is selling Target market – the enterprise must ensure their target market sees their promotion. 	<p>11. Financial documents: Enterprises need to fill in a range of documents when completing financial transactions. The purpose of these documents is to ensure that the business, its customers and its suppliers have an accurate record of all trading that has taken place.</p> <p>Revenue: The income of an enterprise receives through various activities.</p> <p>Revenue = Number of sales x price per unit</p> <p>Fixed costs: The costs that have to be paid no matter how many products the business sells. E.g. rent on a factory.</p> <p>Variable costs: The costs that are directly related to the number of items sold or produced. E.g. materials to manufacture products.</p>
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English Language Paper 1 KS3 Knowledge Organiser

Qs	Time	What should I do for this question?				
READING THE EXTRACT 1. Read and annotate for 10 MINUTES 2. Read the questions 3. Highlight information in the extract that will help you with the questions. 4. Make notes alongside each paragraph of the extract to explain what is happening.						
Q1 COMPREHENSION	5 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write 4 things that are asked for in the question. You can write in bullet points. 				
Q2 LANGUAGE ANALYSIS	10 minutes	<p>You will ANALYSE the language of the extract. Aim to analyse 3 QUOTATIONS from the specific part of the text.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> WHAT is shown about the focus of the question? Make clear points about the presentation of character or theme. Then, embed relevant evidence. HOW does the writer show the focus? Zoom in on key words from selected evidence, analyse the use of language techniques. WHY does the writer present the focus in this way? What is the writer trying to show about the focus? 				
Q3 STRUCTURE ANALYSIS	10 minutes	<p>You will ANALYSE the BEGINNING, MIDDLE AND END of the extract. You will explore how the technique has been set out to INTEREST THE READER.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is happening at this part of the text? What is the reader's focus on? Does the writer use a specific structure technique? Include evidence to support this. Why does this make the reader interested? Do not analyse the language of quotations. 				
Q4 EVALUATION	25 minutes	<p>You will EVALUATE the extract – this means you will give your opinion on the question set and ANALYSE evidence from the text to support this.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> WHAT is your opinion on the question? HOW is this opinion supported by the extract? Provide evidence to support and analyse key words and techniques within this. WHY is the writer presenting the character of idea in this way? Evaluate what impact this has on the reader. 				
Q5 NARRATIVE (STORY) OR DESCRIPTIVE WRITING	45 minutes	<table border="0"> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: top;"> <p>Narrative</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Story progression: opening to introduce the narrator → build up → climax → resolution → ending One narrator and just one other character. DO NOT write an action packed story! Just write a simple story of something that could happen every day. </td> <td style="vertical-align: top;"> <p>Content</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Correct punctuation: , ; : - () * Capital letters for the start of sentences and proper nouns Paragraphing – start a new paragraph for a new focus in your writing Sentence structures – simple, complex, compound Sentence openers – fronted adverbials, list of three Vocabulary – a variety of exciting words </td> </tr> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: top;"> <p>Description</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Details on the whole scene → zoom in 1 → zoom in 2 → zoom in 3 Have a clear narrator who is guiding the reader through the scene. Sensory imagery – sight, smell, sound, taste, touch. </td> <td style="vertical-align: top;"> <p>Technical Accuracy</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Correct punctuation: , ; : - () * Capital letters for the start of sentences and proper nouns Paragraphing – start a new paragraph for a new focus in your writing Sentence structures – simple, complex, compound Sentence openers – fronted adverbials, list of three Vocabulary – a variety of exciting words </td> </tr> </table>	<p>Narrative</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Story progression: opening to introduce the narrator → build up → climax → resolution → ending One narrator and just one other character. DO NOT write an action packed story! Just write a simple story of something that could happen every day. 	<p>Content</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Correct punctuation: , ; : - () * Capital letters for the start of sentences and proper nouns Paragraphing – start a new paragraph for a new focus in your writing Sentence structures – simple, complex, compound Sentence openers – fronted adverbials, list of three Vocabulary – a variety of exciting words 	<p>Description</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Details on the whole scene → zoom in 1 → zoom in 2 → zoom in 3 Have a clear narrator who is guiding the reader through the scene. Sensory imagery – sight, smell, sound, taste, touch. 	<p>Technical Accuracy</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Correct punctuation: , ; : - () * Capital letters for the start of sentences and proper nouns Paragraphing – start a new paragraph for a new focus in your writing Sentence structures – simple, complex, compound Sentence openers – fronted adverbials, list of three Vocabulary – a variety of exciting words
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<p>Language Techniques:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adjective / verb / noun Simile Metaphor Personification Alliteration Hyperbole Repetition Rhetorical question Juxtaposition Pathetic fallacy /Imperative/Exclamative/Declarative sentences. 	<p>Synonyms for SHOWS:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Suggests Conveys Portrays Illustrates Presents Displays Demonstrates Indicates Reveals Highlights Reflects
<p>Structure Techniques:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Beginning Middle End Climax Cliff-hanger Foretelling Rising action Panoramic Narrative perspective Cyclical structure Chronological 	<p>Sentence Starters:</p> <p>Q2 The writer uses language to describe... This is shown in '.....' The use of '.....' suggests..... Connotations of the word '.....' portray..... This makes the reader feel..... because.....</p> <p>Q3 At the beginning, the writer focuses on... This is shown in '.....' The writer uses the technique... to suggest... This makes the reader feel.....</p> <p>Q4 My opinion on the text is... This is supported in the text with '...' The writer uses..... to suggest..... This is effective..... because..... This makes the reader feel..... because.....</p>

Year 9 Unit 2: Algebraic Expressions

SEQUENCES	
sequence	a pattern of terms/numbers which follow a rule
position-to-term rule (n^{th} Term)	a rule which allows you to calculate any term that is in the n^{th} position of the sequence
generate	to produce or create
linear sequences	a sequence where the difference between terms increases or decreases by the same amount each time also known as an arithmetic sequence use DiNO to find the n^{th} term to generate a sequence substitute values of 'n' in, e.g. 2nd term, $n=2$ algebraically: $x_n = an + b$
common difference	the amount we add or subtract each time in a linear sequence
quadratic sequences	a sequence of numbers with an n^2 in the position to term rule (n^{th} term) the second difference between consecutive terms is constant algebraically: $x_n = an^2 + bn + c$
geometric sequences	a sequence of numbers where each term is found by multiplying the previous one by a number called the common ratio 'r' algebraically: $x_n = ar^{n-1}$ increasing: the ratio is an integer, decreasing: the ratio is a fraction
common ratio (r)	the amount we multiply by each time in a geometric sequence, can be a fraction

INSTRUCTIONS: GENERAL	
expand	multiply terms inside a bracket by those outside the bracket, remove the brackets using the grid method
simplify	to reduce to its simplest form

FACTORISING	
factorise	finding the factors of an expression the reverse of expand, it is when we write an expression using brackets, use reverse grid
factor	a quantity which divides equally into a number, e.g. factors of 8 are 1, 2, 4 and 8
factorising a general quadratic	quadratic: $x^2 + bx + c$, factorised form: $(x + ?)(x + ?)$ '?' are two numbers whose product is 'c' and sum is 'b', split the middle term and put into a reverse grid to find the brackets
difference of two squares	quadratic: $a^2 - b^2$ factorised form: $(a - b)(a + b)$ square root each number from the original expression

INSTRUCTIONS: EQUATIONS AND INEQUALITIES	
rearrange	changing the subject of a formula sometimes called transposing use inverse operations and the balancing method , like when we solve an equation
inverse	the opposite
balance an equation	do the same to both sides of the "=" use to solve an equation, or rearrange a formula
subject of an equation	a single unknown or variable that everything else is equal to
solution of an equation	a value we can put in place of a variable that makes the equation true
order of operations	the laws regarding the order in which to calculate, used in algebra too brackets, other, multiply and divide, add and subtract
solving inequalities	using the balancing method to write an inequality in its simplest form
solving quadratic equations	To solve you must factorise the quadratic equation then set each bracket equal to zero to find solutions for x.

LINEAR SEQUENCES links to: LINEAR GRAPHS	
$y = mx + c$	the general equation of a linear graph m is the gradient c is the y-intercept

ALGEBRAIC NOTATION	
coefficient	a number used to multiply a variable the number that comes in front of a letter, e.g. $3b$ means $3 \times b$ the coefficient is 3, the variable is b
simplifying algebraic fractions	factorise the numerator and denominator and cancel common factors, sometimes requires factorisation
identity	an equation that is true for all of its variables, indicated by the \equiv symbol e.g. $b + b \equiv 2b$
prove	even number: $2n$, odd number: $2n+1$ or $2n-1$, consecutive numbers: $n, n+1, n+2$, consecutive even numbers: $2n, 2n+2, 2n+4$, consecutive odd numbers: $2n+1, 2n+3, 2n+5$ or $2n-1, 2n-3, 2n-5$, multiples of a number: it will factorise by that number

Key Vocabulary

Backup	A copy of important files that is kept separately in case your original files are lost or damaged.
Chat room	Accessed on the internet, users can meet to chat in real-time, messages are typed out but voice chat rooms exist too.
Copyright	A set of rights that prevents people copying and distributing a piece of work without the copyright holder's permission.
Data	Values, typically letters or numbers.
File sharing	The act of sharing files over the internet.
Firewall	An application that prevents unauthorised connections to and from the internet.
Hack	Gaining unauthorised access to a computer.
Information	Data that has meaning, not just a number or a letter.
Licence	A legal agreement between the company who published the software and the end user covering areas such as copyright.
Malware	Malicious software created to damage or gain illegal access to computer systems.

Staying safe online

Never disclose your name telephone number address or school

It's wise not to share your location. Especially on websites and apps that are accessible by anyone.

Never accept someone as a 'friend' on social media simply because they claim to know another friend of yours.

Always be cautious about what you say online.

Visit these websites for advice

Knowledge Organiser: Computer Crime & Cyber Security

Summary
Malware is a general term that describes lots of different programs that try to do something unwanted to your computer. Malware is made to stop your device from running properly and sometimes to steal your information.
Anti-malware software is designed to find and stop malware from damaging your computer or a network. To protect your computer you need to install **anti-malware** software and run regular scans.
When you are online you need to watch out for **phishing** and **spam** emails and protect your private information. **Phishing** emails are trying to trick someone into giving out information over email. **Spam** emails can contain **malware**.
Smartphones and mobile devices allow for photos, videos and your location to be shared instantly on the internet. **Be careful what you get up to in public as anyone might have a smartphone pointed at you.** Do not post photos or videos of other people online without their permission.

Malware is software that can harm devices

Typical actions of malware include deleting or modifying files.
Spyware—secretly monitors user actions, e.g. key presses, and sends information to the hacker.
 Some spyware can even use your webcam without your knowledge.
Viruses—spreads through normal programs and might slow down your device or change your applications and documents.
Worms—spread from device to device and copy themselves hundreds of times. A worm might copy itself onto your email account and then send a copy to all of your email contacts!
Trojan horse—pretends it will be a useful and safe program, when actually it will try to attack your device.
Adware—displays adverts while it is running; some can serve as spyware, gathering information about you from your hard drive, the web sites you visit, or your keystrokes.

Phishing emails are trying to trick someone into giving out information over email.

What to look out for in a phishing email

- The greeting is not personalised
- Poor spelling and grammar
- Sense of urgency
- Forged link
- Request for personal information

Spam emails offer all kinds of things like money and prizes and can contain malware too.

Ways to reduce spam:

- Use a **spam filter** - most email clients try to stop spam from reaching you by using a spam filter.
- Do not give your email address out** - if you don't trust the website or if supplying your email address is optional, don't give it to them.
- Keep an eye out for tick boxes** - when you sign up to a website, it might try to sign you up to its newsletter.

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Knowledge Organiser: Understanding computers Discover how computers work

Summary

Computers require input hardware, processing hardware and output hardware. The hardware that defines a computer is the **CPU and memory**. Without these a computer could not function. The CPU and memory work together to run programs.

CPU - executes programs using the **fetch-decode-execute cycle**.

Memory - stores program operations and data while a program is being executed. There are several types of memory, including: **registers, cache, RAM and virtual memory**.

Storage - stores programs and files long term, even when they are not in use. Devices such as hard drives, USB memory sticks or SD cards are used to store files such as photos, music and software applications long term.

An **input device** is any piece of computer hardware used to provide data to a computer system. Examples include: keyboard, mouse, scanner, digital camera and webcam.

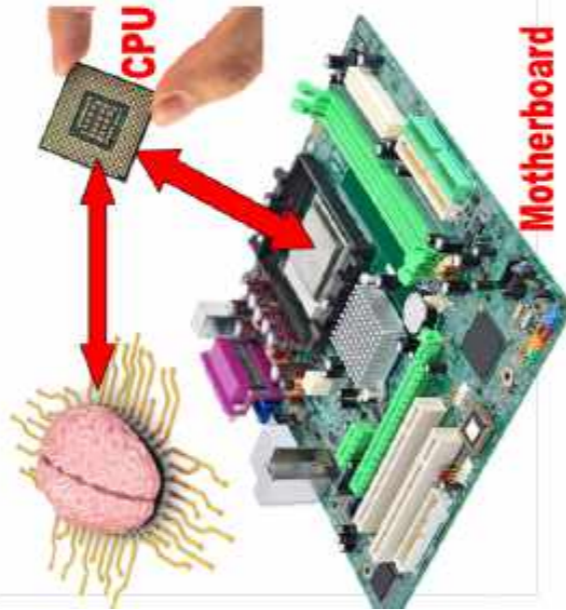
An **output device** is any piece of computer hardware used to communicate the results of data that has been processed.

Central Processing Unit

The **Central Processing Unit** or **CPU** is arguably the most important component of a computer.

You can think of the CPU as being like the brain in a human.

It is responsible for all of a computer's processing.



The Fetch - Decode - Execute cycle

The CPU operates by repeating three operations:

FETCH - causes the next instruction and any data involved to be fetched from main memory

DECODE - decodes the instruction to make sure it can be carried out

EXECUTE - carries out the instruction
Repeat...



Key Vocabulary

Clock speed	The speed of a computer CPU, measured in hertz.
Cache	A piece of temporary memory. It can refer to a part of the RAM, storage disk, CPU, or an area for storing web pages.
CPU	Central Processing Unit - the brains of the computer that processes program instructions. Also called a microprocessor .
Execute	To run a computer program.
GHz	Gigahertz. One billion hertz per second = one gigahertz. This is a measure of frequency and is used to describe bus speeds and CPU clock speeds.
Hardware	The physical parts of a computer system, e.g. a graphics card, hard disk drive and CD drive.
Motherboard	The circuit board inside a computer that houses the CPU, memory and connections to other devices.
RAM	Memory that is constantly being written to and read from. It does not retain its contents without a constant supply of power, i.e. when a computer is turned off, everything stored in its RAM is lost.
Registers	The section of high speed memory within the CPU that stores data to be processed.
Software	Software is the programs that run on a computer.
Virtual memory	A section of a computer storage drive which is temporarily used as RAM.

Binary Units

Remember the units used in the binary system.

1 byte =	8 bits
1 Kilobyte =	1024 bytes
1 Megabyte =	1024 Kilobytes
1 Gigabyte =	1024 Megabytes
1 Terabyte =	1024 Gigabytes

**Unit 11
3D Geometry**

PROPERTIES OF 3D SOLIDS

surface	the outside layer of an object, it has an area and can be flat or curved
face	any of the individual flat surfaces of a solid object
edge	for a 3D shape, the line segment where two faces meet
vertex (vertices)	for a 3D shape, the point where two or more edges meet, a corner

2D REPRESENTATIONS OF 3D SHAPES

plan	a 2D view of a 3D solid as viewed from above , birds-eye view
elevation	the 2D view of a 3D solid from the front or the side
net	a pattern that you can cut and fold to make a model of a 3D shape

VOLUME

volume	the amount of space a 3D shape takes up	
volume units	mm ³ , cm ³ , m ³ ...	
prism	volume = area of cross section x length	
cube	volume = one side cubed (or, area of square x length of prism)	$V = l^3$
cuboid	volume = area of rectangle x length of prism	$V = lbh$
triangular prism	volume = area of triangle x length of prism	$V = \frac{bh}{2}$
cylinder	volume = area of circle x length of prism	$V = \pi r^2 h$
pyramid	volume = $\frac{1}{3}$ x area of cross section x length	
square based pyramid	volume = $\frac{1}{3}$ x area of square base x height of pyramid	$V = \frac{wh}{3}$
cone	volume = $\frac{1}{3}$ x area of circle base x height of cone	$V = \frac{\pi r^2 h}{3}$
sphere	$V = \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3$	

3D SOLIDS

prism	a 3D solid with a consistent cross section		
cube	6 faces 12 edges 8 vertices		
cuboid	6 faces 12 edges 8 vertices		
triangular prism	5 faces 9 edges 6 vertices		
cylinder	3 faces 2 edges no vertices		
pyramid	a solid three-dimensional shape with a polygon base , and triangular faces that meet at the apex (a vertex)		
triangular based pyramid (tetrahedron)	4 faces 6 edges 4 vertices		
square based pyramid	5 faces 8 edges 5 vertices		
cone	2 faces 1 edge 1 vertex		
sphere	1 face no edges no vertices		

SURFACE AREA

surface area	the total area of all the surfaces on a 3D shape	
surface area method	find the area of each face separately, then add them together	
surface area of a sphere	$A = 4\pi r^2$	
surface area of a cone	curved surface area = $\pi r l$ circle base area = πr^2 add these together	

Unit 12 Statistics

TYPES OF DATA	
data	a collection of information
qualitative	data that can only be written in words, not numbers, e.g. eye colour, favourite animal
quantitative	numerical data, e.g. shoe size, height of a plant
continuous	numerical data that can be measured, e.g. height of a plant, it has an infinite number of possible values within a selected range, it is on a scale
discrete	data which can only take certain values, e.g. eye colour, shoe size (categorical in science)
grouped	numerical data that has been ordered and sorted into groups called classes
data representation	a table or chart or graph which gives more meaning to a set of data these include bar charts, line graphs, pictograms, pie charts, stem and leaf diagrams, two-way tables, scatter graphs, frequency polygons and histograms

COMPARING DATA	
comparing data	compare averages to say who is better/faster/taller compare ranges to say who is more consistent / less varied

AVERAGES AND RANGE FROM A FREQUENCY TABLE	
mean	method: multiply the variables by their frequencies (fx column), total the fx column, divide by total frequency
mode / modal class	the most frequent value or class; the one with the highest frequency
median	use half the total frequency to find the middle position, then locate the row this occurs in using the 'subtotal' column
range	difference between the largest and smallest values of the variable (first column)

DISPLAYING GROUPED DATA	
class width	the range of a group (class) i.e. aged 15-20 has a class width of 5
histogram	the area of the bars represents the frequency, there are no gaps between bars
frequency density	the heights of the bars on a histogram $frequency\ density = \frac{frequency}{class\ width}$
frequency polygon	a line graph made by plotting the frequency against the midpoints of each group

DISPLAYING UNGROUPED DISCRETE NUMERICAL DATA										
stem and leaf diagram	a way of displaying a list of numbers the stem goes down and the leaves go out to the right, it has a key	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>stem</th> <th>leaf</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>5</td> <td>5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>6</td> <td>7, 7, 9</td> </tr> <tr> <td>7</td> <td>2, 4, 7, 7, 8</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	stem	leaf	5	5	6	7, 7, 9	7	2, 4, 7, 7, 8
stem	leaf									
5	5									
6	7, 7, 9									
7	2, 4, 7, 7, 8									
vertical line graph	like a bar chart, but the bars have no width, they are just straight lines up the page									

DISPLAYING BIVARIATE DATA																						
bivariate data	data containing two variables																					
variable	something that can change or vary																					
two-way table	shows information about two variables which do not overlap, the numbers represent frequencies	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Passes</th> <th>Misses</th> <th>Total</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>English</td> <td>22</td> <td>18</td> <td>40</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Maths</td> <td>28</td> <td>12</td> <td>40</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Science</td> <td>35</td> <td>5</td> <td>40</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Total</td> <td>85</td> <td>35</td> <td>120</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Passes	Misses	Total	English	22	18	40	Maths	28	12	40	Science	35	5	40	Total	85	35	120
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English	22	18	40																			
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Science	35	5	40																			
Total	85	35	120																			
scatter graph	a graph to show bivariate data																					
correlation	when there is a relationship between two sets of data, but we don't know if one caused the other																					
causation	when the independent variable causes the dependent variable																					
positive correlation	as one variable increases, the other increases																					
negative correlation	as one variable increases, the other decreases																					
no correlation	there is no relationship between the two variables																					
line of best fit	a line that best represents the data on a scatter graph in maths GCSE it is always straight, but in science it can be curved																					
outlier	a value that 'lies outside' most of the other values in a set of data, it is much smaller or much larger than the other values in a set of data																					

MISLEADING REPRESENTATIONS	
misleading representations	Look for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> frequency scales: too large, or too small; has missing numbers; doesn't start at zero; the axes are incorrectly labelled; data is missing; bar charts with varying width bars or varying space between them; proportions for pie charts not adding up to 100%

Section 8	
Caliph:	Leader; Muslims disagreed on who was the rightful caliph of Islam after Muhammad had died.
Shi'a:	Denomination of Islam stemming from the traditions of those who followed Ali as the rightful caliph to succeed Muhammad.
Sunni:	Denomination of Islam stemming from the traditions of those who followed Abu Bakr as the rightful caliph to succeed Muhammad.

Section 9	
Six Articles:	Six key beliefs in Sunni Islam, sharing some similarity with the Five Roots of Shi'a Islam.
Malaikah:	Belief in angels; part of the Sunni six articles yet is not part of the Shi'a five roots.
Five Roots:	Five key beliefs in Shi'a Islam, sharing some similarity with the Sunni six articles of faith.
Adalat:	Belief that Allah's universe, decisions and justice are fair; part of five roots of Shi'a Islam.

Section 10	
Risalah:	Belief in the 'messages' of Allah which prophets have brought to mankind over time.
Ibrahim	Prophet of Islam known as 'Abraham' in English; symbol of loyalty, built the Kaaba in Mecca.
Ka'ba:	Islam's holiest building in Mecca; prophet Adam is believed to have first built it and prophet Ibrahim and his son Ishmael later rebuilt it and destroyed idols from inside of it.
Miracle:	An unexplained event deemed an act of God; for example, prophet Ibrahim was burned alive for destroying idols yet Allah ensured the fire did not harm him.

Section 11	
Adam:	The first prophet of Islam; created by Allah from soil and Allah breathes life into him.
Prostrate:	To bow in respect to someone or something; angels of Allah prostrated to Adam after his creation, showing the love Allah has for humanity and how special Allah perceives mankind.

Section 12	
"The Messenger has believed in what was revealed to him... All of them have believed in Allah... We make no distinctions between any of His messengers." (Qur'an extract)	
"There is for you an excellent example (to follow) in Ibrahim." (Qur'an extract)	
"He created Him from dust; then He said to him, 'Be,' and he was." (Qur'an extract)	

Section 13	
Imam:	Leader of worship in Sunni Islam, but also means 'leader' (similar to 'caliph') in Shi'a Islam, of which some believe there were 12 that followed prophet Muhammad
Imamate:	Shi'a belief in the imams that succeeded Muhammad being Islam's rightful leaders.
Ali:	Cousin-in-law to prophet Muhammad that some believed was the rightful Imam after Muhammad's death; his sons were believed to be the 2 nd and 3 rd Imams.
Mahdi:	Meaning 'guided one'; a Messiah-like figure believed to one day restore peace to all on earth which some Shi'a Muslims believe is the 12 th Imam who became lost and never died.

Section 1	
Omnipotent: Belief that Allah is all-powerful.	Omniscient: Belief that Allah is all-knowing.
Tawhid: The oneness of Allah.	Immanent: Belief that Allah exists everywhere.
Shahadah: One of the five pillars of Islam – it is a statement of belief: "There is no God but Allah and Muhammad is His messenger."	

Section 2	
Beneficent: Belief that Allah is all-loving and most merciful (one of Allah's names: 'Ar-Rahmaan').	
Adalat: Important Shi'a belief that Allah's universe, decisions and justice are totally fair.	
Transcendent: Belief that Allah exists beyond space and time.	

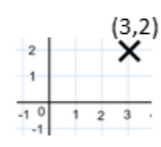
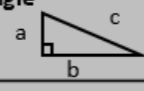

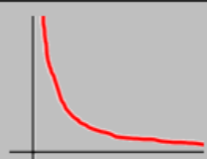
Section 3	
"He is Allah, the One and only: Allah, the Eternal, Absolute... there is none like Him." (Qur'an extract)	
"We (Allah) are nearer to man than his jugular vein." (Qur'an extract)	

Section 4	
Qur'an: The holiest book of Islam, revealed to prophet Muhammad in the 7 th century CE.	
Revelation: The communication of God/Allah to people, such as the Qur'an being revealed to Muhammad	
Hadith: Early Muslim writings on what are believed to be the actions/teachings of prophet Muhammad; Muhammad was illiterate, so these are written by early followers.	

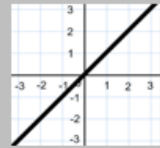

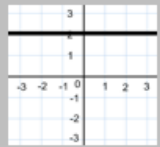

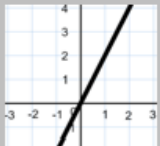
Section 5	
Taqwa: God-consciousness; the mentality that Muslims aim for when worshipping or praying.	
Shari'ah law: Social, religious and ethical guidelines created by Islamic scholars based off teachings in the Qur'an and Hadith; these help Muslims to live a good life.	
Halal: Things/actions Allah permits (e.g. beef). Haram: Things/actions Allah forbids (e.g. alcohol).	

Section 6	
Prophet: Messenger of God. Prophecy: Messages about the plans of God revealed to prophets.	
Sunnah: The way and path of the prophet Muhammad; hadith help guide Muslims on this.	
Mecca: City of Saudi Arabia; holiest Muslim city on earth where Qur'an was revealed; all Muslims pray facing towards Mecca and this is where Hajj (one of the five pillars; a pilgrimage) takes place.	
Medina: City of Saudi Arabia; Muhammad and his followers fled here as his teachings gained unwanted attention from the polytheistic leaders of Mecca during the early years of his revelations.	

Section 7	
"Muhammad is... God's Messenger and the seal of the prophets." (Qur'an extract)	
"The messenger of Allah is an excellent model for those of you who put your hope in Allah and the Last Day - remember him often." (Qur'an extract)	

COORDINATES	
axis (plural: axes)	the x axis is horizontal the y axis is vertical
quadrant	the four regions separated by the axes
coordinate e.g. 	give a position of a point on a grid the first number (x) moves left (-) or right (+) the second number (y) moves up (+) or down (-) (x, y) e.g. (3,2) means the point that is 3 to the right and 2 up from the origin
origin	the coordinate (0, 0)
line segment	a line joining two points
length of line segment	distance between two points calculated using Pythagoras' theorem .
Pythagoras' theorem	a relationship between the 3 sides on a right angled triangle  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$
midpoint	the middle of a line segment
DIRECT PROPORTION	
direct proportion	as one increases , the other increases at the same rate if y is directly proportional to x , this can be written as $y \propto x$
y = kx	an equation of the form y=kx represents direct proportion, where k is the constant of proportionality
direct proportion graphically	
INVERSE PROPORTION	
inverse proportion	if two quantities are in inverse proportion, as one increases , the other decreases in proportion their product is always the same if y is inversely proportional to x , this can be written as $y \propto \frac{1}{x}$
y = k/x	an equation of the form y = k/x represents inverse proportion, where k is the constant
inverse proportion graphically	





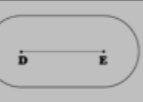
Unit 13: Graphs and Proportion




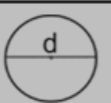


LINEAR GRAPHS		
y = x	every point on this line, the y coordinate is equal to the x coordinate e.g. (3,3), (-2,-2), (0,0)	
y = -x	every point on this line, the y coordinate is equal to the negative of the x coordinate e.g. (3, -3), (-2,2)	
y = a	these lines are always horizontal for <u>example</u> $y = 2$, every point on this graph, the y coordinate equals 2 , e.g. (0,2), (5,2)	
x = a	these lines are always vertical for <u>example</u> $x = 2$, every point on this graph, the x coordinate equals 2 , e.g. (2,0), (2,5)	
y = kx	these lines always go through the origin for <u>example</u> $y = 2x$, every point on this graph, the y coordinate is double the x coordinate , e.g. (2, 4), (1, 2)	
y = mx + c	the general equation of a linear graph m is the gradient c is the y-intercept when plotting: use a table of values , substitute in values of ' x ' to generate ' y ', plot the coordinates , join with line	
gradient	How steep a line is. Can be positive or negative. (Change in y) (Change in x) It gives the rate of change .	
y- intercept	where the line crosses the y-axis (0, a)	

SCALE	
scale	the ratio of the lengths in a model/map/diagram to the lengths in real life
scale factor	the ratio of corresponding sides of two similar shapes
units in scales	scales with units: use the box method to find the new value giving it in the correct units scales without units: both sides of the scale have the same unit stated in the question , use the box method to find the new value and then convert the answer to sensible units

Unit 15: Geometry Angles

LOCI VOCABULARY	
loci	a locus is a path of points that follow a rule
equidistant	equal distance
regions	'more/further than' indicates shading outside the loci 'within/less than' indicates shading inside the loci

LOCI	
locus of points equidistant from A	a circle with A at the centre radius is the distance given 
locus of points equidistant from two points	perpendicular bisector: open compass to over halfway, draw an arc from each end, join where they cross 
locus of points closer to B than A	perpendicular bisector of AB, shade the side closest to B 
locus of points equidistant from two lines	an angle bisector: place compass on corner, draw two arcs cross both lines, one further away, draw lines joining top left cross to bottom right and vice versa, join where these lines meet to corner 
locus of points a set distance from a line	create two semi-circles at either end joined by two parallel lines 

CIRCLE CALCULATIONS	
circle area	$A = \pi r^2$ area = pi x radius ² 
sector	the region of a circle enclosed by two radii and an arc 
sector area	$A = \frac{\theta}{360} \pi r^2$ area = the fraction of the full circle x pi x radius ² 
circumference of a circle	$C = \pi d$ circumference = pi x diameter 
arc	a part of the circumference of a circle 
arc length	$L = \frac{\theta}{360} \pi d$ arc length = the fraction of the full circle x pi x diameter 

CONGRUENCE	
congruent	objects with exactly the same shape and size all angles and all sides are the same
similarity	two shapes are similar when one is an enlargement of the other all angles are the same, but the lengths of sides are different
scale factor	the ratio of corresponding sides of two similar shapes

CONGRUENT TRIANGLES	
there are four ways to prove triangle congruency	
side, angle, side (SAS)	show two sides and the angle between them are congruent
angle, side, angle (ASA)	show two angles and the side between them are congruent
side, side, side (SSS)	show all corresponding sides are congruent
right-angle, hypotenuse, side (RHS)	show both triangles have a right angle, congruent hypotenuses and one other congruent side

SIMILARITY	
two or more shapes with congruent angles but corresponding sides all linked by the same scale factor if the scale factor of enlargement is x	
length	scale factor: x
area	scale factor: x ²
volume	scale factor: x ³

ANGLES IN POLYGONS: FACTS	
polygon	a 2D shape with 3 or more straight sides
regular polygon	a polygon with sides that are all equal and angles that are all equal
interior angle	an angle inside a polygon
sum of interior angles	$(n - 2) \times 180^\circ$ where n is the number of sides
interior angle of regular polygon	$\frac{(n - 2) \times 180}{n}$ where 'n' is number of sides
exterior angle	the angle formed outside a polygon when one side is extended interior angle + exterior angle = 180° because they made a straight line all exterior sum to 360°
some polygon interior angle sums	triangle = 180° quadrilateral = 360° pentagon = 540° hexagon = 720° heptagon = 900° octagon = 1080° nonagon = 1260° decagon = 1440°

Section 8	
Purgatory:	Roman Catholic belief that after death most souls go to this place for purification before that soul is able to enter heaven.
Particular judgement:	The belief that our soul is judged immediately after death.
General judgement:	The belief that our soul is judged at the end of time on Judgement Day.

Section 9	
Salvation:	The idea of being saved from punishment; Christians aim for this in the afterlife.
Grace:	The unconditional love of God.
Atonement:	Acts aimed to put right what has been wrong; the life, death and resurrection of Jesus is seen as an act of atonement for mankind's sins, so faith in this is crucial.

Section 10	
"The wages of sin is death, but the gift of God is eternal life in Christ":	Extract from Romans (in the New Testament)
"I am the way, the truth and the life. No-one comes to the Father except through me.":	Extract from John's gospel.

Section 11	
"Faith not accompanied by action is dead":	Extract from James (book of the New Testament).
"Go and sin no more":	Extract from John's gospel; Jesus says this to an adulterous woman he saves from the death penalty.

Islamic Beliefs

Section 12	
Allah:	Arabic for 'God'.
Tawhid:	The belief that God is One – the Oneness of God is a key Muslim belief.
Beneficent:	The belief that God is all-loving.
Omnipotent:	The belief that God is all-powerful.

Section 13	
Qur'an:	The holiest book of the Islamic faith; it is believed to be unchanged for 1,400 years.
Muhammad:	Allah's most loved prophet; Muslims live in the way they believe Muhammad did.
pbuh:	Meaning 'peace be upon him'; this acronym often follows Prophet Muhammad's name as a sign of respect.
Hadith:	The teachings of Prophet Muhammad as written by Muslim scholars in the decades/century after his death.

† Christian Beliefs

Section 1

Crucifixion: Roman method of punishment where criminal is tied or nailed to a cross.
Capital punishment: Punishment where criminals are put to death due to their crime's severity.
"Father, why have you forsaken me?": Jesus' words during the crucifixion – this shows the humanity of Jesus where he suffered and felt anguish, despite knowing he had to die.

Section 2

Forgiveness: The act of letting go of hatred or resentment towards a wrongdoer.
Repentant: Being truly sorry for wrongdoing/sin.
"Today, you will be with me in paradise": Jesus' words to a sorry thief that is beside him during the crucifixion; this shows Christians the importance of compassion and forgiveness.

Section 3

Resurrection: The rising from death; Jesus is believed to have returned physically from death 3 days after his crucifixion – he appeared to disciples for 40 days after.
Ascension: The rising into heaven; Jesus is believed to have physically risen into heaven 40 days after his crucifixion.
Great Commission: Resurrected Jesus' command to his disciples to "be my witnesses... to the ends of the earth" – this led to the spread of Christianity worldwide.

Section 4

"This is what is written: 'The Messiah will suffer and rise from the dead'": Jesus repeats this Old Testament prophecy when resurrected to his disciples, reminding them that his death/resurrection were needed.
"He has risen!": Angels say this to the female followers of Jesus who find his body has gone from the tomb.

Section 5

Judgement day: A future time where Jesus is believed to return, resurrect all souls and cast final judgement on where they spend eternity.
Parable: A story with deeper meaning; Jesus often told parables in the gospels.

Section 6

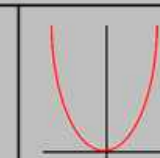
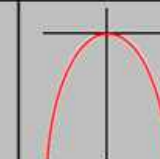

"What you did for the least of my brothers and sisters, you did for me.": Jesus' words from the parable of the sheep and the goats, outlining how his judgement day will be for all.

Section 7

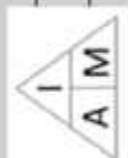
Just: Belief that God's decisions and justice is completely fair.
Omnibenevolent: Belief that God is all-loving.
Merciful: Belief that God, in His unconditional love, will show love to repentant sinners.

Unit 16: Algebraic Graphs

INEQUALITIES	
inequality	where two expressions are not equal in value
inequality symbols	< less than > greater than
	≤ less than or equal to ≥ greater then or equal to
plotting inequalities	create a table of values and substitute in values of 'x' (like with linear graphs) < or > means a dashed line ≤ or ≥ means a solid line
inequality regions	for greater than symbols, shade above the line
	for less than symbols, shade below the line
simultaneous inequalities (graphically)	regions can be shaded that satisfy inequalities: strict (< or >) are a dashed line ----- non-strict (≤ or ≥) are a solid line _____
SIMULTANEOUS EQUATIONS	
simultaneous	occurring at the same time
simultaneous equations	equations with the same variables whose solutions hold the same value must be solved at the same time to find the values of 'x' and 'y'
solving	add or subtract the equations to eliminate one variable, then solve as a linear equation variables must have the same coefficient to be eliminated when one variable is known, substitute into one of the equations and solve to find the value of the other variable
	for the variable being eliminated with... the same sign, subtract the equations different signs, add the equations
same coefficients of variables	when simultaneous equations have variables with the same coefficients, decide whether to add or subtract straight away
different coefficients of variables	when simultaneous equations have variables with different coefficients, find the LCM and scale up (multiply) the equations until they have the same coefficient, then add or subtract
solve by substitution	make one variable the subject of one of the equations and substitute into the other to eliminate it, then solve as with linear
simultaneous equations (graphically)	can be solved graphically by plotting the two lines and finding the coordinate where they cross

QUADRATIC GRAPHS	
quadratic graph	a graph where the highest power of x is x ² general format ax ² + bx + c it is always a parabola (a U-shape) in the general format, 'c' is where the graph crosses the y-axis
$y = x^2$	
$y = -(x^2)$	
roots (of graphs)	the 'solutions' of a graph, where a function equals zero can be found in a graph where the curve meets the x axis
turning point	the point where a graph turns, from negative to positive gradient or positive to negative gradient
OTHER NON-LINEAR GRAPHS	
cubic graph	a graph where the highest power of x is x ³ general format ax ³ + bx ² + cx + d 'd' is where the graph crosses the y-axis
$y = x^3$	
reciprocal graph	$y = \frac{k}{x}$ the graph has asymptotes on the x-axis and y-axis (as it is impossible to divide by zero)
asymptote	a straight line a graph approaches but never touches
exponential graph	$y = k^x$ the graph has an asymptote on the x-axis

1 – Cell Structure and Specialised Cells		3 – Cell Cycle and Stem Cells	
Eukaryotic Cell	Complex cell with a nucleus.	Chromosomes	Molecules of DNA, 23 pairs found in nucleus, carry genes.
Prokaryotic Cell	Small simple cell with <u>no</u> nucleus.	Cell Cycle	Three stages -> growth & DNA replication, mitosis and cell division.
Prokaryotic DNA	Stored as single DNA loop or small rings (plasmids).	Growth & DNA Replication	Cell grows -> number of subcellular structures increases -> DNA replicates -> forms X shaped chromosomes.
Ribosomes	Where proteins are synthesised.	Mitosis	Cell division. Chromosomes line up in centre -> pulled apart by fibres -> two nuclei formed -> cytoplasm and cell membrane divides. Creates two identical daughter cells.
Cell Wall	Made of cellulose -> strengthens plant and algal cells.	Differentiation	Process by which cells become specialised.
Sperm cells	Fertilise egg cells. Carry male DNA. Tail for swimming. Many mitochondria. Enzymes in head. Half a set of DNA.	Stem Cells	Undifferentiated cells -> can become different types of cell.
Nerve cells	Carry electrical signals. Long and branched at the ends.	Embryonic Stem Cells	Grown in lab -> made to specialise -> used to replace faulty cells -> treats disease e.g. diabetes and spinal damage.
Muscle cells	Specialised for contraction. Cells are long and contain many mitochondria.	Adult Stem Cells	Cells transferred from bone marrow -> replaces faulty blood cells in patient.
Root hair cells	Absorb water and minerals from the soil. Root hair projections provide a large surface area. No chloroplasts.	Plant Stem Cells	Found in meristems (tissues in the tips of roots and shoots) -> used to produce clones of rare species and crops with desired features (e.g. disease resistance).
Xylem Cells	Form tubes that transport water and minerals around plant -> dead cells -> no end walls.	4 – Cell Transport	
Phloem Cells	Form tubes that transport dissolved food around plants -> living cells -> small pores in end walls.	Diffusion	Net movement of particles -> from a higher to lower concentration -> down a concentration gradient.
2 - Microscopy		Osmosis	Net movement of water molecules -> across a partially permeable membrane -> from a higher to lower water concentration -> down a concentration gradient.
Magnification	Higher magnification = larger image.	Active Transport	Movement of particles -> from a lower to higher concentration -> against a concentration gradient -> requires energy.
Resolution	Higher resolution = clearer image.	Factors that Increase Rate of Cell Transport	Steeper concentration gradient, larger surface area, shorter diffusion pathway.
Equation	Magnification = Image size / Actual size		
Units	From mm to μm x 1000. From μm to mm \div 1000.		
Preparing an Onion Slide	Peel thin layer with tweezers -> place on slide -> add iodine stain -> lower cover slip gently to avoid bubbles.		
Using a Light Microscope	Place on stage -> use lowest power objective lens -> adjust with coarse focus then fine focus -> repeat with higher magnification if needed.		
Electron Microscope	Higher magnification and resolution than a light microscope.		



Section 7

“In the beginning, God created the heavens and the earth”: First line of the book of Genesis.

“Let there be Light”: Extract from Genesis; God creates light by His command alone.

“In His image He made them... both male and female.”: Extract from Genesis; God creates mankind uniquely.

Section 8

Traditionalist: Someone who aims to maintain old values and beliefs and stay fairly true to what scripture instructs (e.g. traditionalist Christians hold patriarchal views because Adam is made first, then Eve is made as his companion, implying superiority).

Patriarchal: Describes something male-led, for example an organisation purposely ran by men (e.g. the Roman Catholic Church forbids women from being ordained).

Section 9

“We believe in One God, the Father, the Almighty, maker of heaven and earth”: First line of the Nicene Creed

Nicene Creed: A declaration of faith made in the 4th century by Christian leaders wanting to clarify key Christian beliefs.

Section 10

“The Word was with God and the Word was God... the Word became flesh and made His home among us”: Extract from John’s gospel implying Jesus is the incarnation of God.

“For God so loved the world, He gave His only Son”: Extract from John’s gospel.

Section 11

Incarnation: Belief that Jesus was the human form of God on Earth.

Messiah: Belief that Jesus was the saviour of mankind who Jewish prophets had written about centuries before Jesus’ lifetime.

Section 12

Prophet: Messenger of God.

Prophecy: Messages about the future plans of God given to humanity by a prophet.

Isaiah: Key Jewish prophet who made prophecies about the Messiah’s coming.

Section 13

“The Lord shall give you a sign: a virgin shall conceive”: One of the key prophecies about the Messiah in the Old Testament by prophets (in this case, by Isaiah).

“On the third day He will raise us up, that we may live in His presence”: Extract from Hosea (one of the prophets whose writings feature in the Old Testament)

Political Messiah: Jews expected a revolutionary Messiah to come, not a heavenly one like Christians believe Jesus is.

Section 1

Omnipotent: Belief that God is all-powerful.
Omniscient: Belief that God is all-knowing.
Omnibenevolent: Belief that God is all-loving.
Just: Belief that God's decisions and justice is completely fair.

Section 2

Denomination: An established subgroup of a religion (e.g. Roman Catholicism)
Roman Catholic: Largest, oldest denomination of Christianity; the Pope is the leader.
Orthodox Church: Denomination of Christianity; old as Roman Catholicism; popular in the East.
Protestant: Term for various global denominations of Christianity (e.g. Church of England) that were born out of the Reformation in the 16th century.

Section 3

Atheist: A person who believes there is no God/gods
Problem of evil: An atheist argument that evil exists because there is no omnipotent, omniscient and omnibenevolent God, for His power, knowledge and love would prevent it.
The Fall: The story of Adam and Eve's betrayal of God in Genesis (first book of the Bible); some believe God gave mankind free will which we used to create evil, not God.

Section 4

Trinity: Christian belief in one God who manifests simultaneously as three Persons.
The Father: First Person of the Trinity; the Creator of all things.
The Son: Second Person of the Trinity; the incarnation of God.
The Holy Spirit: Third Person of the Trinity; is unseen and is present throughout the universe.

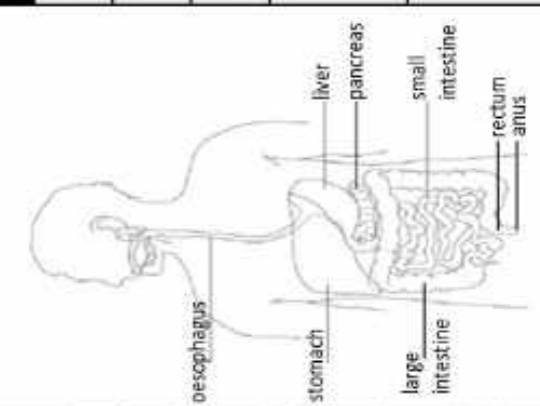

Section 5

Fundamentalist: A believer who takes their holy scripture literally as it is believed to be the genuine word of God (e.g. Genesis' 6 days of creation)
Liberalist: A believer who is more open to interpretations of the Bible or who may view parts of the Bible as being either unsuitable to the modern era or unreliable.

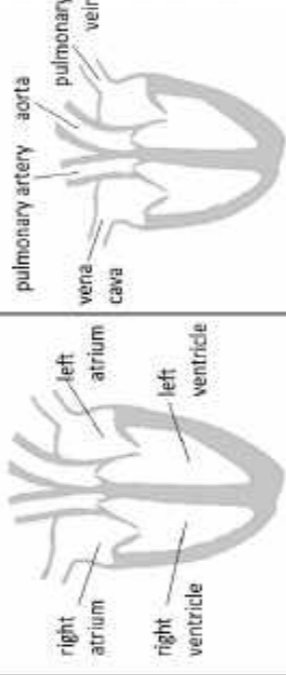
Section 6

Yom: Hebrew for 'day' or 'era'; Genesis may describe the world's creation over 6 days or 6 eras of time – the latter view makes it more compatible with science.
Big Bang theory: The leading scientific theory that the universe was made; there is no known cause to the 'Big Bang' which liberalist Christians believe must have been God.
13.8 billion years: The age of the universe according to the Big Bang theory.
6,000 years: The universe's age according to some fundamentalists, based on the Bible.

BIOLOGY PAPER 1: Organisation Part 1

Facts: Principles of organisation		Facts: Enzymes	
1. Cell	Basic building blocks of all living organisms.	19. Proteins	Molecules made up of long chains of amino acids.
2. Tissue	A group of cells with a similar structure and function.	20. Uses	Proteins make hormones, antibodies and enzymes.
3. Organ	Groups of tissues working together, to perform a certain function.	21. Enzyme	A biological catalyst which speeds up the rate of a chemical reaction without being used up or changed.
4. Organ system	Groups of organs working together to perform body functions.	22. Substrate	The molecule that the enzyme breaks down.
5. Organism	An individual animal or plant.	23. Active site	Where the substrate binds to the enzyme.
6. Types of tissue	Muscular tissue for movement. Glandular tissue produces hormones and enzymes. Epithelial tissue provides a covering for organs.	24. Lock and key model	The active size has a complementary (opposite) shape to the substrate.
Facts: Digestion		Facts: Digestive enzymes	
7. Digestion	The breakdown of large food molecules into small food molecules so that they can be absorbed into the blood.	25. Carbohydrase	Breaks down carbohydrates into simple sugars. Produced in the small intestine, pancreas and salivary glands.
8. Mechanical digestion	Breakdown of large food molecules into smaller molecules using chewing and churning.	26. Amylase	Breaks down starch into glucose. Produced in the small intestine, pancreas and salivary glands.
9. Chemical digestion	Breakdown of large food molecules into smaller molecules using enzymes.	27. Protease	Breaks down proteins into amino acids. Produced in the small intestine, pancreas and stomach.
10. Bile	An alkali produced by the liver and stored in the gall bladder. Bile has two main functions: 1. To neutralise the hydrochloric acid from the stomach. 2. To emulsify lipids (break down fats into small droplets).	28. Lipase	Breaks down lipids into fatty acids and glycerol. Produced in the small intestine and pancreas.
Facts: Digestive system			
11. Digestive system	Several organs working together to digest and absorb food.		
12. Mouth	Teeth chew food to start mechanical digestion. The salivary glands produce enzymes to start chemical digestion.		
13. Oesophagus	A muscular tube which moves food to the stomach by peristalsis.		
14. Stomach	1. Muscular tissue carries out mechanical digestion by churning. 2. Glandular tissues produce enzymes for chemical digestion.		
15. Small intestine	1. Enzymes breakdown large food molecules into small molecules. 2. Small molecules are then absorbed into the blood.		
16. Pancreas	Produces digestive enzymes.		
17. Rectum	Stores faeces.		
18. Anus	Where faeces leaves the body.		
		Facts: Enzyme activity 29. Optimum conditions The best working conditions for the enzyme; were enzyme activity is at its fastest rate. 30. Enzyme activity The activity of an enzyme is affected by two conditions; temperature and pH. 31. Optimum temperature Enzymes in the human body have an optimum temperature of 37°C (body temperature). 32. Optimum pH Protease, pH 2 as it found in the stomach (hydrochloric acid is present in the stomach). Amylase pH 7. Bile neutralises hydrochloric acid to provide this optimum pH. 33. Denature The active site changes shape and the substrate no longer fits. 	

BIOLOGY PAPER 1: Organisation Part 2

Facts: Respiratory system	
1. Structure	Organ system made up of the: trachea, bronchi, lungs and alveoli.
2. Breathing	The mechanical action of taking air in and out of the lungs (inhaling and exhaling).
3. Respiration	A chemical reaction that takes place in our cells, to provide energy.
4. Gaseous exchange	Happens through the process of diffusion, gases move from an area of high concentration to an area of low concentration.
5. Alveoli	Where gas exchange occurs in the lungs. Oxygen diffuses from the alveoli into the blood and carbon dioxide diffuses from the blood into the alveoli.
6. Alveoli adaptations:	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lots of alveoli to provide a large surface area. 2. Good blood supply to maintain a steep concentration gradient. 3. Thin wall so particles only have to diffuse a short distance.
Facts: Circulatory system	
7. Structure	Organ system made up of the: heart, blood vessels and blood.
8. Double system	Blood passes through the heart twice on each journey around the body.
9. The Heart	The right side of the heart pumps blood to the lungs and the left side of the heart pumps blood around the body.
10. Atria	The top two chambers of the heart. The right atrium and the left atrium.
11. Ventricles	The bottom two chambers of the heart. The right ventricle and the left ventricle.
12. Resting heart rate	Controlled by a group of cells in the right atrium.
13. Blood vessels	Transport blood around the body. There are 3 main types: arteries, veins and capillaries
14. Double circulatory system	15. Chambers of the Heart
The lungs	
The rest of the body	16. Blood vessels of the Heart

YEAR 9 GEOGRAPHY – CYCLE 3 – RIVER LANDSCAPES

BOX 1: UK PHYSICAL LANDSCAPES	<p>fluvial landscape → extensive area of land → has been shaped by a flowing river</p> <p>fluvial landform → a specific feature found in river landscapes e.g. a waterfall landform</p> <p>UK upland areas → more than 200m above sea level → mostly north/west UK e.g. Pennines</p> <p>UK lowland areas → less than 200m above sea level → mostly south/east UK e.g. The Fens</p> <p>UK river systems → many river systems in the UK e.g. the River Severn → longest river in UK</p>												
BOX 2: FLUVIAL PROCESSES	<p>erosion → to erode → the wearing away and removal of sediment (e.g. rocks)</p> <p>transportation → eroded sediment is moved to a new location by water</p> <p>deposition → eroded sediment is dropped when the water loses energy</p>												
BOX 3: TYPES OF EROSION	<p>1. hydraulic action → moving water forces air into cracks in rocks → pressure weakens rocks</p> <p>2. abrasion → rocks carried by river wear down the river bed and banks</p> <p>3. attrition → rocks carried by river smash together → get smaller smoother rounder</p> <p>4. solution → soluble particles of sediment are dissolved into the river</p> <p>5. vertical erosion → downward erosion of bed (bottom of river)</p> <p>6. lateral erosion → sideways erosion of banks (sides of river)</p>												
BOX 4: TYPES OF TRANSPORTATION	<p>1. traction → the rolling of boulders and large pebbles along the river bed</p> <p>2. saltation → particles of sediment bouncing along the river bed</p> <p>3. suspension → small pieces of sediment floating in the moving river water</p> <p>4. solution → soluble particles of sediment are moved whilst dissolved in flowing river</p>												
BOX 5: WHY DO RIVERS DEPOSIT SEDIMENT?	<p>river loses energy</p> <p>1) at inside bend of a meander</p> <p>2) in shallow water</p> <p>3) at mouth of river</p>												
BOX 6: RIVER KEYWORDS	<p>source → where a river begins/starts → upland areas (upper course)</p> <p>mouth → where a river ends/flows into sea → lowland areas (lower course)</p> <p>channel → the area in the river where the water flows e.g. the river bed and banks</p> <p>valley → the V shaped area of land around a river</p>												
BOX 7: HOW DOES THE PROFILE OF A RIVER CHANGE FROM SOURCE TO MOUTH?	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>cross profile</th> <th>long profile</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>upper course/source</td> <td>channel narrow/shallow → valley steep V shaped</td> <td>steepest gradient</td> </tr> <tr> <td>middle course</td> <td>channel wider/deeper → valley flatter shape</td> <td>medium gradient</td> </tr> <tr> <td>lower course/mouth</td> <td>channel widest/deepest → valley wide/flat shape</td> <td>flattest gradient</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		cross profile	long profile	upper course/source	channel narrow/shallow → valley steep V shaped	steepest gradient	middle course	channel wider/deeper → valley flatter shape	medium gradient	lower course/mouth	channel widest/deepest → valley wide/flat shape	flattest gradient
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BOX 8: FLUVIAL LANDFORMS FORMED BY EROSION → UPPER COURSE	<p>1. interlocking spurs → river erodes softer rock → leaves 'sp' shaped pattern of harder rocks</p> <p>2. waterfalls → hard rock on top of soft rock → soft rock erodes → hard rock overhangs</p> <p>3. gorges → overhanging rock at waterfall collapses → waterfall retreats → gorge</p>												
BOX 9: FLUVIAL LANDFORMS FORMED BY EROSION + DEPOSITION	<p>1. meanders → faster flow on outside bank = lateral erosion → slower flow on inside bank = deposition → creates bend shape in river called a meander</p> <p>2. oxbow lakes → flood breaks through meander neck → creates new channel and lake</p>												
BOX 10: FLUVIAL LANDFORMS FORMED BY DEPOSITION → LOWER COURSE	<p>1. levees → flood → heaviest sediment deposited river edge → creates higher banks</p> <p>2. flood plains → lateral erosion of meanders makes lower course of valley wider/flatter</p> <p>3. estuaries → mouth of some rivers flooded by rising sea levels after last ice age ended</p>												
BOX 11: HOW DO PHYSICAL FACTORS AFFECT FLOOD RISK?	<p>predicted frequency of floods in an area → how likely an area is to flood</p> <p>1. precipitation → prolonged, intense rainfall can saturate soil → increases surface run-off</p> <p>2. geology - rock type → water cannot infiltrate impermeable rock → increases surface run-off</p> <p>3. relief → water cannot infiltrate into steep slopes → increases surface run-off</p>												
BOX 12: HOW DO HUMAN FACTORS AFFECT FLOOD RISK?	<p>1. land use → impermeable surfaces (e.g. tarmac) and deforestation increase flood risk</p>												
BOX 13: HYDROGRAPHS	<p>hydrograph → shows link between discharge and precipitation over period of time</p> <p>discharge → volume of water flowing past a point on a river (e.g. per second)</p> <p>lag time → length of time between peak (highest) precipitation and peak discharge</p>												
BOX 14: MANAGEMENT STRATEGY 1 → HARD ENGINEERING → ARTIFICIAL	<p>benefits → positives</p> <p>costs → negatives</p> <p>dams and reservoirs → used to store water</p> <p>river straightening → water flows away more quickly</p> <p>embankments → higher banks hold more water</p> <p>flood relief channels → river has extra capacity for water</p> <p>people displaced by construction</p> <p>flood risk increases downstream</p> <p>can be unattractive</p> <p>expensive</p>												
BOX 15: MANAGEMENT STRATEGY 2 → SOFT ENGINEERING → NATURAL	<p>benefits → positives</p> <p>costs → negatives</p> <p>flood warnings → warning people → can evacuate</p> <p>flood plain zoning → important buildings not near river</p> <p>planting trees → trees infiltrate and absorb water</p> <p>river restoration → reduces flooding downstream</p> <p>floods still likely near restoration</p>												
BOX 16: CASE STUDY → FLOOD MANAGEMENT SCHEME IN THE UK → LEEDS	<p>scheme/strategy → Leeds Flood Alleviation Scheme → glass embankments, deflatable weirs</p> <p>required because → reduce flooding from River Aire → e.g. large flood in Leeds 26th Dec 2015</p> <p>social issues → paths near river may still flood and moves water to homes downstream</p> <p>economic issues → expensive → predicted to cost £160 million to finish the entire project</p> <p>environmental issues → some habitats disturbed during the construction of the scheme</p>												

BOX 1: KEYWORDS

industrial structure	percentage of people working in each of the four employment sectors getting raw materials from the land and sea e.g. farming → lower pay
1. primary sector employment	making products in factories from raw materials e.g. car manufacturing
2. secondary sector employment	service industries → employment that provides a service to other people e.g. doctors and teachers → higher pay
3. tertiary sector employment	highly skilled employment in IT and research e.g. computer designers and scientists → requires high level of education
4. quaternary sector employment	

BOX 2: THE CLARK FISHER MODEL

Clark Fisher Model	graph → shows how industrial structure changes as a country develops
1. pre-industrial employment	→ mostly primary e.g. farming, mining, fishing (LICs)
2. industrial employment	→ mostly secondary e.g. manufacturing (NEEs)
3. post-industrial employment	→ mostly tertiary (service industries) e.g. teachers (the UK)

BOX 3: CAUSES OF ECONOMIC CHANGE IN THE UK → A POST-INDUSTRIAL ECONOMY

globalisation

more connected world, more movement of goods/people → UK imports manufactured goods from NEEs (cheaper) → less UK factories

1960s → rapid decline in traditional manufacturing industry in UK → due to mechanisation, globalisation and more tertiary sector employment

1980s → government policy 'privatisation' → encouraged primary and secondary industries to close. 2010 → government tried to rebalance economy → infrastructure investment and new high-tech industries

BOX 4: A POST-INDUSTRIAL ECONOMY IN THE UK → MORE TERTIARY/QUATERNARY JOBS

tertiary sector → now largest sector in UK → over 75% of economy → e.g. health care, education, retail, entertainment and hospitality jobs

more information technology companies → due to more internet access e.g. banking → over 1 million people employed in finance jobs (2019)

research important for economic growth e.g. UK Energy Research Centre located near universities → provides educated workforce → 1500 high-tech scientific industries grouped together at Cambridge Science Park so can work together → e.g. AstraZeneca (created a COVID-19 vaccine)

specialty built areas → offices and warehouses → at edge of city with access to main road e.g. Thorpe Park (Leeds) has over 100 businesses

BOX 5: IMPACTS OF INDUSTRY ON THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT IN THE UK

negative impacts

greenhouse gases, air pollution, toxic chemicals, landscape damage

modern industrial development can be environmentally sustainable →

- making electric cars → e.g. 'Nissan Leaf' car manufactured in UK
- 'The Unicorn Group' manufacture medical bins → factory uses 100% renewable energy e.g. solar and recycles waste (steel/plastic)

BOX 6: POPULATION GROWTH → IN RURAL AREAS IN THE UK

example (rural area)

South Cambridgeshire (popular → quick commute to city of Cambridge)

social changes

too many people for doctors and schools → long waiting lists

economic changes

popular area → so house prices high → local people cannot afford homes

BOX 7: POPULATION DECLINE → IN RURAL AREAS IN THE UK

example (rural area)

Outer Hebrides, Scotland (people leaving area to find jobs elsewhere)

social changes

schools closing due to not enough children, public transport decreasing

economic changes

shops closing → not enough customers → creating unemployment

BOX 8: IMPROVEMENTS TO TRANSPORT IN THE UK

road infrastructure

'Smart Motorways' → electronic signs → vary speed limits and provide information to drivers → reduce traffic → but can cause accidents

High Speed 2 (HS2) → plan for new train line between northern cities and London → reduce travel time → aims to boost employment in the north → but estimated to cost £80 billion to build

new port → 'London Gateway' → can accommodate larger container ships (400 m long) → boost trade worldwide → will employ 2000 people

plans for 3rd runway at Heathrow Airport (would cost £18.6 billion) → would increase flights and business → but lots of environmental impacts

BOX 9: THE NORTH-SOUTH DIVIDE → REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN THE UK

regional differences

de-industrialisation → closed secondary industries (mostly in north) → created economic and social gap between Southern and Northern England → Northern England has worse health (5 year difference in life expectancy), lower house prices, lower income and worse education

BOX 10: STRATEGIES TO RESOLVE THE REGIONAL DIFFERENCES OF NORTH-SOUTH DIVIDE

assisted areas

identifies areas of UK that need help → provides money for businesses

more power to individual areas → can decide how to best spend money

devolution

24 enterprise zones

government encourages investment, new businesses, faster internet

transport links

improvements to rail (e.g. HS2) and motorways → boost employment

BOX 11: THE PLACE OF THE UK IN THE WIDER WORLD

trade links

trade is the buying and selling of goods and services between countries → the UK imports and exports goods from/to countries around world

UK events watched around world e.g. Glastonbury and Premier League

Channel Tunnel links UK to France by rail, also airports e.g. Heathrow

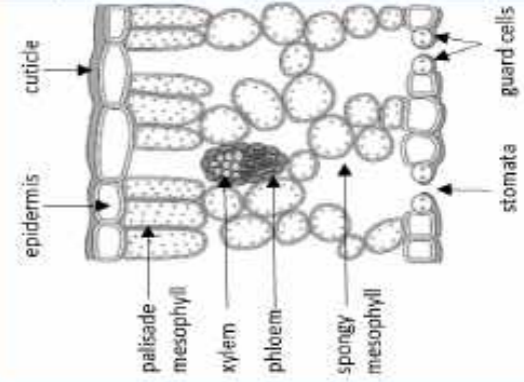
UK linked to wider world by internet, mobile phones and satellites (90% of people in UK now use internet compared to just 27% in 2000)

- 'The Commonwealth' → group of 53 countries → territories of former British Empire → united by language, history, culture, and shared values of democracy, human rights, and the rule of law
- 'The European Union (EU)' → UK no longer part of the EU (BREXIT)

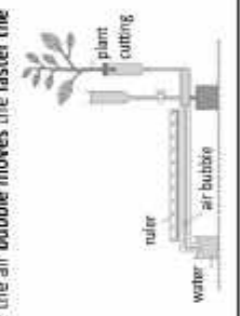
BIOLOGY PAPER 1: Organisation Part 3

Facts: Plant organisation	
1. Cells	The main cells in a plant are the palisade cells, guard cells and root hair cells.
2. Tissue	The main tissues in a plant are the xylem, phloem and meristem.
3. Meristem	Tissue in the shoots and roots of plants containing cells that can differentiate into any type of plant cell throughout the life of the plant.
4. Organ	The main organs of a plant are the roots, stem, leaves and flowers.
5. Organ system	The roots, stem and leaves make up the transport system of a plant. Moving substances such as glucose and water up and down the plant.
Facts: Root hair cells	
6. Root hair cells	Absorb water and mineral ions from the soil.
7. Water	Absorbed by osmosis (high water concentration to a low water concentration).
8. Absorbing water adaptations	Root hair cells have a large surface area and a thin cell wall making osmosis faster.
9. Mineral ions	Absorbed by active transport (low concentration to a high concentration).
10. Absorbing mineral ions adaptations	Root hair cells have many mitochondria that produce energy by respiration. This energy is needed because active transport moves ions against the concentration gradient from a low to high concentration.

Facts: The leaf	
11. Leaf	Where photosynthesis occurs; glucose + carbon dioxide → glucose + oxygen
12. Epidermis and cuticle	Covers the outer surfaces of the plant. Coated in a waxy cuticle to prevent water loss. The upper epidermis is transparent to allow light to pass through it.
13. Palisade mesophyll	Made up of palisade cells. Most photosynthesis occurs here. Cells are tightly packed and contain many chloroplasts to absorb light.
14. Spongy mesophyll	Cells are loosely packed and contain air spaces, which increases the rate of diffusion of gases to and from the cells.
15. Xylem tissue	Transports water and minerals up the plant.
16. Phloem tissue	Transports sugar (glucose, sucrose) up and down the plant.
17. Stomata	Tiny holes in the underside of the leaf, which allows carbon dioxide to diffuse into the leaf for photosynthesis and oxygen to diffuse out.
18. Guard cells	Control the opening and closing of the stomata.



Facts: Xylem tissue	
19. Xylem	Transports water and minerals up the plant.
20. Structure	Hollow, dead tubes strengthened with lignin.
21. Transpiration stream	The movement of water from the roots, through the xylem and out of the leaves.
22. Transpiration	The loss of water from the leaves.
23. Rate of transpiration	How fast water is lost into the atmosphere through the stomata.
24. A Potometer	Measures the rate of transpiration.
25. Equipment diagram	As water is lost from the leaves, the plant absorbs the water from the beaker causing the air bubble to move toward the plant. The further the air bubble moves the faster the rate.
26. Factors affecting transpiration	Increasing transpiration → windy, high light intensity (sunny), high temperature. Decreasing transpiration → humid (lots of water in the atmosphere).
Facts: Phloem tissue	
27. Phloem	Transports sugar (glucose, sucrose) up and down the plant.
28. Structure	Columns of elongated living cells with small pores in the end walls to allow cell sap to flow through.
29. Translocation	The movement of sugar (glucose, sucrose) up and down the plant.
30. Importance	Sugar needs to be able to reach all the cells of a plant so that respiration can take place.



Facts: Communicable disease	
1. Communicable disease	A disease passed on from person to person caused by a pathogen .
2. Pathogen	A microorganism that causes infectious disease .
3. The four pathogens	1. Bacteria 2. Virus 3. Fungus 4. Protist
4. Bacteria	Prokaryotic cells (no nucleus) that reproduce rapidly in the body and produce poisons (toxins) that damage tissues and make us feel ill .
5. Virus	Smaller than bacteria. They live and reproduce in cells . The cell then bursts and this cell damage makes us ill .
6. Fungus	Eukaryotic cells (have a nucleus). Yeast is a fungus
7. Protist	Usually a single-celled eukaryotic organism.
8. Vector	An organism that can spread a disease (usually insects or rats).
9. Salmonella (bacteria)	Causes fever, vomiting, diarrhoea. Spread by eating contaminated food . Prevented by cooking food properly and vaccinating poultry (chickens).
10. Gonorrhoea (bacteria)	Causes pain when urinating and thick yellow/green discharge. Spread by sexual contact . Prevented by using condoms . Treated by antibiotics .
11. Measles (virus)	Causes fever and red skin rash. Spread through sneeze or cough droplets. Prevented by vaccination , MMR (measles, mumps and rubella).
12. HIV (virus)	Causes a flu-like illness and long term damage to the immune system . Spread by sexual contact and sharing needles. Prevented by using condoms .
13. Tobacco Mosaic Virus	Causes leaves to become discoloured . Spread by contact between plants or farmers. Treated by removing infected plants and washing hands and tools.
14. Rose black spot (fungus)	Causes black/purple spots on leaves . Spread by air, water and direct contact by gardeners. Treated by removing infected leaves and fungicides.
15. Malaria (protist)	Causes episodes of fever. Spread by mosquitos (vector) . Prevented by removing breeding sites , sleep under nets and use insect repellent .
Facts: Human defence system	
16. Non-specific system	The first line of the body's defence. Stops the pathogens entering the body .
17. Eyes and mouth	Enzymes in tears and saliva kill the pathogen or make it inactive .
18. Skin	Acts as a physical barrier . Platelets clot the skin if cut.

19. Nose and trachea	Mucus traps the pathogens. Then the tiny hairs on the cilia cells move mucus and trapped pathogens out of the airways.
20. Stomach	Chemical barrier, hydrochloric acid kills bacteria.
21. Immune system	When a pathogen enters the body white blood cells (WBCs) will destroy the pathogens in 3 ways: 1. Phagocytosis 2. Antibody production 3. Antitoxin production.
22. Phagocytosis	White blood cells surround and engulf pathogens , releasing chemicals to digest them .
23. Antibodies	White blood cells produce antibodies which attach to the antigens on the surface of a pathogen. So other white blood cells can easily find and destroy the pathogen.
24. Antitoxins	White blood cells can produce antitoxins, which neutralise the toxins produced by bacteria.
Facts: Vaccination	
25. Vaccine (vaccination)	A small amount of dead/inactive pathogen injected into the body.
26. Immunisation	Making someone immune to a disease (don't get it), the result of a having a vaccine .
27. Vaccines advantages	Less chance of getting an infectious disease , they can eradicate (get rid of) a disease and money is saved on treating the disease.
28. Vaccine disadvantages	Vaccines are expensive, they do not always work and they can cause side effects.
Facts: Discovery and development of drugs	
29. Traditional drugs	Extracted from plants and microorganisms. E.g. Aspirin extracted from willow (tree) .
30. Antibiotics	ONLY kill bacteria . Do not kill viruses as they live inside cells .
31. Painkillers	Treat symptoms of disease e.g. fever . Do not kill pathogens.
32. Antibiotic resistance	When a bacterium cannot be killed by an antibiotic. E.g. MRSA bacteria.
33. Drug trial	A thorough testing procedure to check that new drugs are safe and effective. Made up of two parts, preclinical and clinical testing .
34. Preclinical testing	Drug testing carried out on cells, tissues, and animals before it is tested on human volunteers. To test for efficacy (does the drug work) and toxicity (is the drug safe).
35. Clinical testing	Drug testing carried out on humans, healthy volunteers first then on volunteers who suffer from the illness. To test for side effects and to work out the optimal (best) dosage .
36. Placebo (fake drug)	A substance that is like the drug being tested but it does not actually do anything .
37. Double blind trial	One group of patients is given the new drug and the other is given a placebo. Neither the patient nor the doctor knows who has taken the new drug or placebo. Removes bias .

What did Nazi rule mean for the people of Europe, 1939-1945?

The Contrasting Nature of Nazi Rule: East and West and The Holocaust

Nazi Rule in Poland

- Nazi leaders believed that Germany needed **Lebensraum**. So when the Nazis invaded Poland in September 1939, they aimed to **remove any element of Polish control or culture**. Their plan was to **totally Germanise** the country.
- From 1940, thousands of native Polish citizens were expelled, and **500,000 'ethnic Germans'** were settled in their houses

Treatment of the Poles

- The Nazis considered Slavic Poles to be **racially inferior** and, from the outset, large numbers were murdered by the Wehrmacht and the SS.
- It is estimated that **1.9 million non-Jewish citizens were killed**. Other Poles were sent to work in Germany through forced labour schemes.
- Between 1939 and 1945, **over 1.5 million were deported and forced to work in labour camps**. In May 1940, the Polish Decrees established rules for Poles working in Germany.

Nazi Rule in the Netherlands (Holland)

- By **May 1940** the German Luftwaffe had bombed the city of **Rotterdam** and forced the Dutch to surrender.
- The Dutch shared the same **ethnic background as Germans** and were therefore **treated very differently** from the Slavs of the east.
- Civil servants were **allowed to continue working** if they chose to, although 30 per cent of town mayors stepped down.
- The Dutch education system was **not changed** as the Nazi rulers realised there would be a backlash if they tried to interfere

Responses to Nazi Rule

- Collaboration**: working with the Nazis and helping them to rule
- Accommodation**: doing as you were told by the Nazis
- Resistance**: Opposing the Nazis.
- Collaboration Example**: In Latvia, the SS created the Latvian Auxiliary Security Police. The group took up the job of killing Jews and Communists. The group alone murdered **26,000 Jews**, half the Jewish population of Latvia.
- Accommodation Example**: Many if not most people in France, Holland and Belgium simply got on with their lives.
- Resistance Example**: The 'French Resistance' undertook **guerrilla warfare** against the Nazis, publishing underground newspapers and providing intelligence to the Allies.



The First Solution: Persecution and Emigration (1938-39)

- In the countries the Nazis occupied before the start of the Second World War, the first solution was to **force Jews to leave** the country.
- This policy was adopted in **Austria** following the Nazi invasion in March 1938.
- During the Nazi occupation of Austria, Jews were **beaten and humiliated** by being forced to scrub the pavements to get rid of pro-Austrian graffiti.
- The persecution led many Jews to **consider emigration**. This was actively encouraged by the Nazis, who created a **Central Office for Jewish Emigration**.
- According to official reports, **110,000 Jews emigrated in two years**.

The Second Solution: Concentration in Ghettos (1939-41)

- When the Nazis invaded Poland in 1939 they controlled **over 3.5 million Polish Jews** – too many for emigration.
- Polish Jews were now forced into **ghettos** – enclosed districts that isolated Jews from the rest of the population.
- The largest ghetto in Nazi-occupied Poland was in **Warsaw**.
- Completed in November 1940, the ghetto had three-metre-high walls topped with barbed wire.
- By March 1941, the Warsaw Ghetto held **445,000 Jewish inhabitants**.
- This was a **third of the city's population**, in just **2.4 per cent** of its area.
- On average, **fifteen people** shared a small apartment. Unsurprisingly, these conditions led to disease and death, particularly among the vulnerable, like the young and old.

The Final Solution: Murder (1941-5)

Phase One: The Einsatzgruppen

- The mass murder of Jews began with the Nazi invasion of the Soviet Union in **June 1941**. For the Nazis, this was a life-and-death struggle against **communists and Jews** in the east. The men who carried out the mass murders in the east belonged to the **Einsatzgruppen**. These were **mobile killing units**, which consisted of SS men.
- Four Einsatzgruppen** (A, B, C and D), each consisting of **500–1000 men**, followed the German fighting troops as they advanced into Russian-held territory.
- As they reached different villages and towns, the Einsatzgruppen rounded up Jews and communists. Men, women and children were taken to secluded areas, often in woodland.
- There, the victims were forced to dig a large pit. They were then lined up at the edge of the pit and shot.
- Approximately **90 per cent** of those murdered in the autumn and winter of 1941 were Jews, **around 1 million people**.

The Final Solution: Murder (1941-5)

Phase Two: Use of Poison Gas

- In the autumn of 1941, **Operation Reinhard**, the extermination of all the Jews in the General Government, was agreed. New extermination or death camps were created, the sole purpose of which was to murder. By 1942, **Belzec** (March), **Sobibor** (May) and **Treblinka** (July) were all operational, murdering Jews in newly constructed gas chambers.

What was the impact of Second World War on the German People?

War Economy, Shortages, Women, Bombing, Evacuation and Total War

War Economy

- In December 1939, Hitler announced that Germany would become a war economy.
- All industries would focus on supporting the war effort and there would be ambitious targets for every aspect of war production.
- In 1939, 23 per cent of the goods produced in German factories were related to the military; by 1941 this had risen to 47 per cent.
- By 1941, 55 per cent of the German workforce was employed in war-related work.



Albert Speer

- By the end of 1941 Germany was not producing many tanks, guns and aircraft.
- Things changed in February 1942 with the appointment of Albert Speer as Minister of Armaments and War Production.
- He decided to focus factories on producing a single product; employ more women in factories and use concentration camp prisoners as workers; his had a massive impact on production.
- In 1940 Germany produced 1,600 tanks. In 1944 they produced 19,000.
- In 1940 Germany produced 10,200 aircraft. In 1944 they produced 39,600.



Shortages

- The war economy led to serious shortages of food and other product throughout the war years.
- Rationing had been introduced from the outset.



Women

- The Nazi leadership was divided over the role of women in the war effort.
- Speer wanted them to work in the factories to boost production, but Hitler and others still believed they should remain at home to continue their role as wives and mothers.
- In 1939, 760,000 women worked in war industries and this had risen to 1.5 million by 1941.
- However, the total number of German women aged 15 to 65 was nearly 30 million. With men away at war it seemed that most women preferred to stay at home.



Bombing

- On 28 August 1940, British planes made a first devastating attack on Berlin. Hamburg, Berlin and Dresden were repeatedly bombed by the British and Americans.
- During the autumn of 1940, people in many cities were faced with air raids three or four nights each week.
- The German government introduced a massive programme to build air raid shelters and to improve air defences in the cities.
- Night after night, people sought protection in the air raid shelters, but they were not always safe.



Evacuation

- In September 1940, the Nazis became increasingly concerned about the safety of German children in the cities.
- They therefore introduced a programme of evacuation known as KLV.
- This system of voluntary evacuation to the countryside was first applied to the cities of Hamburg and Berlin, which were considered to be most at risk from attack.
- All children below the age of fourteen could live in the countryside.



The move towards 'Total War'

- At the beginning of 1943 Germany had suffered two defeats, one against the Russians at Stalingrad and another against the British in North Africa.
- Faced with these losses, the Nazis needed a new plan. The war could only be won if the German people made huge sacrifices. 'Total war' was now required.
- On 18 February 1943 Joseph Goebbels made a speech to a huge crowd of Nazi supporters. He explained the need for 'total war' – that every part of German society needed to be involved in the war effort.



Impact of the 'Total War' speech

- The Nazis finally tried to mobilise women into the war effort.
- A total of 3 million eligible women between the ages of 17 and 45 were called to work. Only 1 million actually took up the call.
- Anything that did not contribute to the war effort was eliminated - Professional sport stopped.
- The shortages became even worse. In August 1943, Germany stopped producing clothes.
- There was an increase in propaganda encouraging people to embrace the idea of total war. Goebbels' speech was shown in cinemas around the country and posters.

3.1 – Modern Periodic Table

Periodic Table	118 elements in order of atomic number.
Groups	Vertical columns. Contain elements with similar chemical properties.
Group number	Tells you the number of electrons in the outer shell.
Periods	Horizontal rows.
Period Number	Tells you the number of shells.
Metals	Found on left side. Conductors of heat and electricity, strong, malleable and high melting and boiling points.
Non-metals	Found on right side. Insulators of heat and electricity, dull, brittle, lower melting and boiling points.

3.2 – Development of Periodic Table

Early tables	Fewer elements (e.g. no noble gases). Arranged in order of atomic mass (no knowledge of atomic number yet).
Newland's table	Not well accepted. Elements in same group often had different properties, some boxes had 2 elements.
Mendeleev's table	Well accepted. Left gaps for undiscovered elements and switched places of some to ensure elements with similar properties in same group.
Mendeleev's predictions	Used table to predict properties of undiscovered elements. Turned out to be correct.

3.3 – Group 1 Alkali Metals (lithium, sodium, potassium)

Properties	Soft, low density, shiny when cut but quickly go dull when they react with oxygen in air.
Reactions with water	Vigorous reactions - produce an alkaline solution. metal (s) + water (l) -> metal hydroxide (aq) + hydrogen (g)
Reactions with chlorine	Produce a white metal chloride salt. metal (s) + chlorine (g) -> metal chloride (s)
Reactions with oxygen	Forms dull metal oxide layer. metal (s) + oxygen (g) -> metal oxide (s)
Trends down the group	Increasing reactivity and decreasing melting and boiling points.

3.4 – Group 7 Halogens (fluorine, chlorine, bromine, iodine)

Properties	Fluorine = pale yellow gas, chlorine = yellow-green gas, bromine = red-brown liquid, iodine = grey solid with purple vapour.
Diatomic Molecules	Made of pairs of atoms -> F ₂ , Cl ₂ , Br ₂ , I ₂ .
Trends down the group	Decreasing reactivity and increasing melting and boiling points.
Reactions with metals	React with metals to form metal halide salts.
Displacement Reactions	A more reactive halogen can displace a less reactive halogen from its salt.

3.5 – Group 0 Noble Gases (helium, neon, argon, krypton)

Properties	Inert (very unreactive), colourless gases, non-flammable.
Electrons	Full outer shell of electrons -> very stable -> do not react.
Trends down the group	Increasing boiling point.

Y9 Science

Chemistry 1b – Periodic Table

3.1 – States of Matter		Particle Theory	Models particles as small, solid, inelastic spheres.
Solid	Particles	Regular arrangement, touching each other, strong forces, vibrating in fixed positions.	
	Properties	Fixed shaped and volume. Cannot flow or be compressed.	
	Particles	Random arrangement, touching each other, weak forces, moving around each other.	
Liquid	Properties	No fixed shape but fixed volume. Can flow but cannot be compressed.	
	Particles	Random arrangement, not touching each other, no forces, moving randomly in straight lines at a range of speeds.	
Gas	Properties	No fixed shape or volume. Can flow and can be compressed.	
	Properties	Particles gain energy and move faster -> forces weaken -> particles break free from positions.	
3.2 – Changes of State			
Melting (S -> L)		Particles have enough energy to break the forces between them.	
Boiling (L -> G)		Particles no longer have enough energy to overcome forces. Forces re-form.	
Condensing (G -> L)		Particles lose energy and move slower -> forces strengthen -> particles held in positions.	
Freezing (L -> S)		Temperature at which a solid melts or a liquid freezes.	
Melting Point		Temperature at which a liquid boils or a gas condenses.	
Boiling Point		Stronger forces -> more energy required -> higher melting and boiling points.	
Energy Required			

3.3 – Formation of Ions		Charged particles.
Ions		Positive ions formed when electrons are lost.
Cations		Negative ions formed when electrons are gained.
Anions		Lose 1 electron -> form ions with 1+ charge.
Group 1 metals		Lose 2 electrons -> form ions with 2+ charge.
Group 2 metals		Gain 2 electrons -> form ions with 2- charge.
Group 6 non-metals		Gain 1 electron -> form ions with 1- charge.
Group 7 non-metals		
3.4 – Ionic Bonding		
Electron Transfer		Electrons transferred from metal to non-metal atoms. Both gain full outer shells.
Ionic Bond		Electrostatic attraction between a positive metal ion and a negative non-metal ion.
Structure of Compound		Lattice of oppositely charged ions held together by strong electrostatic forces in all directions.
Melting & Boiling Points		High -> many strong electrostatic forces -> require a lot of energy to break.
Electrical Conductivity		Solid = does not conduct -> ions not free to move Molten or aqueous = does conduct -> ions free to move.
3.5 – Explaining Reactivity Trends in Group 1 and 7		
Group 1 Trend		More reactive as you go down the group.
Group 1 Explanation		Down the group: number of shells increases -> outer shell electron further from nucleus -> less attraction -> electron lost more easily.
Group 7 Trend		Less reactive as you go down the group.
Group 7 Explanation		Down the group: number of shells increases -> outer shell electrons further from nucleus -> less attraction -> electron gained less easily.

Y9 Science

Chemistry 2a – States of Matter & Ionic Bonding

How did the lives of German people change, 1933-1939?

Workers, Women, Youth and Jews



Workers

- On the surface, the Nazis greatly improved life for workers. During the election of 1932, when there were nearly 6 million unemployed
- By 1933, unemployment had officially been reduced to 35,000 out of a total of 25 million men.



Nazi Policies towards Workers

- The Nazis set up the **Deutsche Arbeitsfront (DAF)**, literally meaning German Labour Front.
- One aspect of the DAF was the **Strength Through Joy Programme (KdF)**. This improved workers' leisure time. This included subsidised holidays, cheap theatre tickets, touring orchestras and gym evenings.



Nazi Policies towards Workers

- The **Beauty Through Labour** aimed to improve work places.
- Through this branch, new toilets, changing rooms and showers were built at factories across Germany.



Nazi Policies towards Workers

- The **Reich Labour Service** was set up to tackle unemployment by providing cheap labour for big state projects like new motorways. From 1935, all men aged between 18 and 25 had to serve for six months.
- In 1938, the DAF created the **Volkswagen scheme**, which meant that workers could pay 5 marks per week and eventually earn a car.
- Many paid in to the scheme but no one ever received a car as the Second World War stopped production

Nazi views on how women should live

- Women should not smoke, should appear natural and not wear makeup.
- Women should dress in traditional German clothes
- Women should not be thin but 'physically robust'. Strong women were best for bearing children

Impact of Nazi policies towards women

- Marrriages did increase from 516,000 in 1932 to 772,000 in 1939.
- Births rose in the early 1930s but by 1939 the rate had declined again.
- The average number of children per couple in 1932 had been 3.6 and by 1939 it had dropped to 3.3.
- The number of women in employment increased between 1933 and 1939.

Nazi policies on education

- After the Nazis took power in 1933 unreliable teachers had to resign whilst Jewish teachers were banned.
- A National Socialist Teachers League was established, 97 per cent of teachers had joined it by 1936.

Nazi control of the school curriculum

- Old textbooks were thrown out and a Nazi curriculum was imposed. History was taught with a focus on how Germany was betrayed by Communists and Jews in World War 1.
- PE took up an extensive part of the curriculum while Biology focussed on race study.

Youth Organisations

- The Hitler Youth led by **Baldur von Schirach** and became compulsory to join in 1936. No other youth organisations were allowed.
- Meetings for both boys and girls focused on indoctrination and physical activities. Commonly they sang political songs, read Nazi books and paraded through towns. Boys' activities were often more focused on preparation for the military.
- Girls' groups concentrated on domestic duties and even military nursing. For both boys and girls there was the possibility of going on holiday camps. This was particularly attractive to the working classes.

Nazi Policies Against Jews

- March 1933: Jewish lawyers are banned from conducting legal affairs in Berlin.
- September 1935: Marrriages between Germans and German Jews are punishable by imprisonment. Jews are no longer 'citizens'; they are just 'subjects' with no rights.
- October 1938: Jewish passports have to be stamped with a 'J' and passports belonging to Jews whose emigration is undesirable are to be confiscated.
- November 1938: All Jewish children are expelled from non-Jewish state schools.
- Jews are no longer allowed to buy newspapers and magazines.
- Jews are banned from cinemas, theatres, operas and concerts.

Kristallnacht (Night of Broken Glass) – 9-10 November 1938

- 267 synagogues were destroyed and 7500 Jewish businesses had their windows smashed.
- At least 91 Jews were murdered while up to 30,000 Jewish men were arrested.

How much opposition was there to Nazi Rule?

Opposition: 1933-1945

Opposition from the Social Democrats

- After the Nazi takeover in 1933, the leaders of the **Social Democratic Party** fled the country.
- They produced anti-Nazi leaflets and posters, but were hunted down by the Gestapo, who **arrested 1200** of them in the Rhine Ruhr region alone.

Opposition from the Communists

- The Communists were more active than the Social Democrats. They aimed to provide visible resistance with meetings, propaganda and newsletters.
- One of these newsletters, **The Red Flag**, produced **10,000 copies at least once a month**.
- However, this visibility meant Communists were easily identified and soon **arrested** by the Gestapo.

Opposition from the Church

- With about **22 million Catholics**, **40 million Protestants**, religious groups were by far the largest non-Nazi organisations in Germany.
- Hitler saw the Church as a potential threat and so he made an agreement called the **'Concordat'** with the leader of the Pope. The Pope promised that German Catholics would stay out of politics if, in return, the Nazis would leave them alone.

Resistance from Individuals (Niemöller and Cardinal Galen)

- Martin Niemöller** was a Protestant pastor (priest - see right above) refused to join the Reich Church and instead founded an alternative, the non-Nazi **Confessional Church**.
- By 1934, **6,000 pastors had joined**. The Confessional Church preached against violence and Nazi racial policy.
- 800** pastors were arrested and sent to concentration camps.
- Niemöller was sent to **Sachsenhausen** then Dachau but survived.
- In 1934 the Catholic Bishop of **Münster**, **Cardinal Galen** began sermons criticising the Nazi regime over its racial policy.
- The Gestapo were sent to question Galen, but he **was too high profile** to remove from power, so he continued to provide resistance.



Ernst Thälmann (pictured above) Leader of the German Communist Party. He was arrested in 1933.



Swing Kids

- These young people came together to listen to **jazz**, dance and talk openly. The **Swing Kids** wanted to develop their own individual personalities.
- Himmler saw the group as so dangerous he personally wrote to **Heydrich**, asking the Gestapo to deal with them. Many were arrested and some were sent to concentration camps.



Edelweiss Pirates

- Members of this group wore an **Edelweiss flower** on their clothing.
- Some listened to **foreign radio** and spread news. They produced flyers and **painted slogans** on walls. Some actively picked fights with the Nazis, with reported **beatings of the Hitler Youth members**.



Public Criticism: The White Rose Group

- The **White Rose** was a group at **Munich University** centred around **Hans and Sophie Scholl**.
- The students decided to produce a series of **anti-Nazi leaflets**.
- Between **6000 and 9000 leaflets** were distributed to **nine large cities** around Germany
- On **18 February 1943** the Scholls distributed their leaflets outside lecture theatres at Munich University.
- They were then identified, **arrested and executed**.



Wartime Opposition

- As the war progressed, German army officers such as **Colonel Stauffenberg** became disillusioned with the Nazi leadership and particularly disagreed with the **policy towards Jews**.
- He (Stauffenberg) joined a resistance group led by **Ludwig Beck** and **Henning von Tresckow**, and took charge of planning and leading an assassination attempt. The plan was to kill Hitler and initiate **Operation Valkyrie**, an emergency order which would allow the plotters to use the reserve army to remove the SS and the Gestapo.
- On **20 July 1944** Stauffenberg planted a bomb at the **Wolf's Lair**, Hitler's headquarters in **Rastenburg**, East Prussia. The bomb exploded yet Hitler survived.
- Back in Berlin, the plotters were tried in a hastily arranged **court martial** and **executed** by firing squad.



States of Matter

Solids	<p>Particles have a regular arrangement</p> <p>Particles vibrate around a fixed point</p> <p>Strong intermolecular forces hold the particles in place</p> <p>High density</p> <p>Particles are close together and randomly arranged.</p> <p>Particles can move over each other</p> <p>Moderate intermolecular forces keep the particles in contact</p> <p>Medium density.</p> <p>Particles are far apart and randomly arranged.</p> <p>Particles move quickly in all directions.</p> <p>Weak intermolecular forces between the particles</p> <p>Low density.</p>
Liquid	<p>Particles are close together and randomly arranged.</p> <p>Particles can move over each other</p> <p>Moderate intermolecular forces keep the particles in contact</p> <p>Medium density.</p>
Gas	<p>Particles are far apart and randomly arranged.</p> <p>Particles move quickly in all directions.</p> <p>Weak intermolecular forces between the particles</p> <p>Low density.</p>

Changes of State

Melting	Solid to liquid - Internal energy decreases - Physical change.
Freezing	Liquid to solid - Internal energy increases - Physical change.
Boiling	Liquid to gas - Internal energy increases - Physical change.
Condensing	Gas to liquid - Internal energy decreases - Physical change.
Sublimation	Solid to gas - Internal energy increases - Physical change.
Physical change	No new substance is made, process can be reversed.
Melting Point	Temperature at which a substance melts when heated or when it freezes when cooled. (ice/ water = 0°C)
Boiling Point	Temperature at which a substance boils when heated or when it condenses when cooled. (water/ water vapour = 100°C)

Density of Materials

Density	Mass of a substance in a given volume
Volume of a cube/cuboid	Length x width x height
Density equation	Density = mass ÷ volume (kg/m ³) (kg) (m ³) (g/cm ³) (g) (cm ³)

How to Measure the Density of a Regular Object, e.g. cuboid or cube.

Mass	1. Check top pan balance reads zero
Volume	2. Place the object on the scale and record mass
Density	1. Use a ruler to measure the length, width and height 2. Multiply the 3 numbers together (length x width x height) Once you have mass and volume, density = mass ÷ volume

How to Measure the Density of an Irregular Object (method 1)

Mass	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Check top pan balance reads zero. Place the object on the scale and record mass.
Volume	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Fill displacement can with water to the spout. Place the can at the end of a table holding a measuring cylinder under the spout. Carefully submerge the object into can and wait for the water to pour out into the spout. Measure the water collected in the measuring cylinder - this is the volume of the object.

How to Measure the Density of an Irregular Object (method 2)

Mass	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Check top pan balance reads zero. Place the object on the scale and record mass.
Volume	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Half fill a measuring cylinder with water. Measure initial volume of water. Place object into measuring cylinder. Measure the rise in water. Minus the rise in water from the initial volume. The difference is the volume of the object.

Internal Energy

Internal energy	Total kinetic energy and potential energy of all the particles
Kinetic energy	Is the speed of the particles - increases with higher temperature
Potential energy	Is how far apart the particles are - to do with the bonds or attractions between particles
Specific Latent Heat	
Specific heat capacity	Amount of energy needed to raise 1kg of a material by 1°C
Specific latent heat of fusion	Energy needed to change 1kg of a solid into 1kg of a liquid at the same temperature
Specific latent heat of vaporisation	Energy needed to change 1kg of a liquid into 1kg of a gas at the same temperature
Gas Pressure	
Temperature of gas	Is related to the average kinetic energy of the particles
Increasing temperature	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Increases the pressure (if the volume is kept the same) Increases the volume (if the pressure is kept the same)

Parle-moi de ta maison (Tell me about your house)			
Habiter - tenses	Types of houses	tense	Rooms
J'habite (<i>I live</i>)	Dans une maison (<i>in a house</i>)	Dans ma mai-son (<i>in my house</i>)	Un bureau (<i>an office</i>)
Nous habitons (<i>we live</i>)	Dans une maison individuelle (<i>in a detached house</i>)	Il y a (<i>there is</i>)	Une cave (<i>a cellar</i>)
J'habitais (<i>I used to live</i>)	Dans une maison jumelé (<i>in a semi-detached house</i>)	Il y avait (<i>there was</i>)	Une salle à manger (<i>a dining room</i>)
Nous habitions (<i>we used to live</i>)	Dans une maison mitoyenne (<i>in a terraced house</i>)	Il y aurait (<i>there would be</i>)	Une salle de séjour (<i>a living room</i>)
J'habiterais (<i>I would live</i>)	Dans un immeuble (<i>in an apartment building</i>)		Un salon (<i>a living room</i>)
Nous habiterions	Dans un appartement (<i>in an apartment/flat</i>)		Un sous-sol (<i>a basement</i>)
			Une pièce (<i>a room</i>)
			Une chambre (<i>a bedroom</i>)
			Une salle de bains (<i>a bathroom</i>)
			Une cuisine (<i>a kitchen</i>)
			Un jardin (<i>a garden</i>)

Parle-moi de ta maison (Tell me about your house)			
Starter	Rooms	tense	Furniture
Dans (<i>in</i>)	Mon salon (<i>my living room</i>)	Il y a (<i>there is</i>)	Une armoire (<i>a wardrobe</i>)
	Ma chambre (<i>my bedroom</i>)	J'ai (<i>I have</i>)	Une bibliothèque (<i>a library</i>)
	Mon bureau (<i>my office</i>)	Il y avait (<i>there was</i>)	Un canapé (<i>a sofa</i>)
	Ma cave (<i>my cellar</i>)	J'avais (<i>I used to have</i>)	Une chaise (<i>a chair</i>)
	Ma salle à manger (<i>my dining room</i>)	Il y aurait (<i>there would be</i>)	Une étagère (<i>a shelf</i>)
	Ma salle de séjour (<i>my living room</i>)		Une fenêtre (<i>a window</i>)
	Mon sous-sol (<i>my basement</i>)		Un lit (<i>a bed</i>)
	Ma pièce (<i>my room</i>)		Les meubles (<i>furniture</i>)
	Ma salle de bains (<i>my bathroom</i>)		Les murs (<i>walls</i>)
	Ma cuisine (<i>my kitchen</i>)		Une table (<i>a table</i>)
Mon jardin (<i>my garden</i>)		Un bureau (<i>a desk</i>)	

Why was it so hard to oppose Nazi rule?

Terror and Propaganda



Heinrich Himmler and the SS

- The SS was made up of men of pure German blood and had the ideal Aryan features.
- In 1934 the SS truly rose to power after removing the leadership of the SA. Hitler now looked to the obedience and ruthlessness of the SS to carry out purges and remove political enemies.
- The SS was made an independent organisation led by Heinrich Himmler – see right.



Reinhard Heydrich and the SD

- The SD (Secret Service) was the main official intelligence gathering agency.
- The role of the SD was to identify enemies of the Nazi leadership.
- The SD focused on any opposition to the party itself. It spied on all aspects of education, the arts, government and administration, as well as churches and the Jewish community.
- From their findings, agents wrote extensive reports on the morale and attitude of the German people.
- These enabled the Nazi leadership to monitor the impact of the changes they made and to tailor propaganda as and when it was necessary.
- The SD did not take action against individuals but passed information on to those who did – the Gestapo.
- The SD was led by Reinhard Heydrich – see right.



The Gestapo

- The Gestapo (Secret Police) spied on the public to remove any opposition.
- At its height, the Gestapo had 15,000 active officers to police a population of 66 million. This works out as only one officer per 4,400 people. Yet even with such low numbers, the Gestapo was deeply feared.
- It had the power to arrest and imprison any person suspected of opposing the Nazi state.
- They could tap telephones and open mail, but mostly they relied on informers who might pass on remarks they had overheard or just general suspicions.



Joseph Goebbels

- Joseph Goebbels was the Minister for Propaganda and Public Enlightenment – see right.
- His ministry controlled radio messages, all newspapers, films and organised posters and displays of propaganda through rallies – see below.
- These messages persuaded many Germans to support the Nazis.



Newspapers

- The Nazis took control over existing papers and closed any opposition papers down.
- By 1939 they owned two-thirds of all German newspapers and magazines.
- Any articles that did not show the Nazis in a positive way would be censored (banned).

Radio

- The Ministry for Propaganda controlled the output of every radio station so that they always included Nazi messages, Hitler's speeches.
- The Nazis produced cheap radio sets, the People's Receivers. These were sold at a week's wage for the average manual worker and could be paid for in instalments.
- In 1933, 1.5 million of these sets were produced, and by 1939, 70 per cent of Germans had a radio in their home.

Posters

- The Nazis were mastered at the visual message, using bold colours and eye-catching phrases which made messages clear and obvious. Thousands were put up all over Germany.

Rallies

- Giant rallies were held to emphasise and celebrate the strength of the Nazi movement. They involved speeches, choruses, marches, torch-lit parades and even mock battles.
- The annual party rally at Nuremberg was the largest of these and the 1934 event lasted a whole week.
- For the 1934 Nuremberg Rally, 30,000 swastika flags were placed around the field, each with its own spotlight.

Consolidation of Power



27 February 1933 – Reichstag Fire

- The Reichstag (German Parliament) was destroyed by a fire created by a Dutch Communist **Marinus van der Lubbe**.
- The Nazis claimed that this was the start of a Communist plot to take over Germany. The next day Hitler persuaded Hindenburg to grant him **emergency powers** – people could be arrested people **without trial**.
- 4,000** people were arrested, mainly Communists and Socialists

5 March 1933 – New Elections

- The Nazis used the police and the SA (brownshirts) to march through the streets and **intimidate** other parties, breaking up meetings of the Socialists.
- The Nazis used the radio to broadcast their anti-Communist message.
- This helped the Nazis achieve their best ever election result, with **44 per cent** of the vote, but it was not the 2/3rds majority Hitler needed.

24 March 1933 – The Enabling Act

- Hitler wanted an Enabling Act.
- This would give Hitler the power to pass laws without going through the Reichstag or the President. In order to achieve it, he needed to get **two-thirds (66%)** of the Reichstag to support it.
- The Communists were banned from voting.
- The Centre Party was persuaded to vote in favour of the law and only the Social Democrats voted against it.
- The Enabling Act was passed by **444 votes to 94**. Germany was now a dictatorship because all important decisions would now only be made by Hitler and his closest advisors.

May-July 1933 – the Enabling Act in Action

- The Civil Service Act**: Political opponents or anyone who was non-Aryan were fired from government positions. This meant that Jews could no longer be teachers, judges or university lecturers.
- 1 April 1933**: Boycott of Jewish shops and businesses. SA guards were posted outside shops to prevent people from entering.
- Trade Unions taken over**: Trade Unions are an organisation set up to protect workers rights. On 2 May 1933 Trade union offices were taken over and union leaders were arrested.
- All political parties banned (July)**: A law was introduced that banned people from forming new political parties. There was now only one party in Germany.
- Controlling local government**: In January 1934 the power of the Länder (Local Governments) was removed completely. The states [counties] were now split into 42 **Gaug**, each run by a **Gauleiter** (Governor) chosen by the Nazi Party.

Nazi Ideology and Demands	
Scrap the Treaty of Versailles	The Treaty of Versailles was a treaty that Germany had to sign at the end of World War 1. The Nazis wanted to scrap the treaty by building up the army and taking back land lost.
Bread and Work (Brot und Arbeit)	Bread and work was promised to the millions of unemployed in 1933.
Hatred towards Jews (Antisemitism)	The Nazis believed that Jews were controlled governments, particularly in Britain and the USA. This enemy had to be destroyed of the Aryan race was to survive.
Aryan Supremacy	The Nazis believed that the Aryan race was superior (better) to any other. Eastern Europeans and Jews were untermenschen (sub-human) and a threat to the Germanic race.
Living Space (Lebensraum)	The Nazis believed that Germany should invade Poland and Russia in order to gain more living space for Germans.
Winterhilfswerk	Winter Relief of the German People A Nazi charity to help the poor, providing them with food, warmth and clothing.

29-30 June 1934 – Night of the Long Knives

- By 1934, Hitler had become concerned by the increasing power of the SA which had over 3 million members and wanted to take control of the army. **Ernst Röhm**, the leader of the SA, was a personal rival of Hitler's.
- During the Night of the Long Knives, SA leaders were dragged from their beds and shot. Röhm too was arrested and shot.

2 August – Death of Hindenburg and Army Oath

- When Hindenburg died, Hitler combined the offices of President and Chancellor. He was now the undisputed head of government and took the title **Führer (Supreme Leader)**.
- The army now took an **oath of personal loyalty** to Hitler as he was now Supreme Commander of the armed forces. All German soldiers swore to obey Hitler and to risk their life for him at any time.
- Hitler now had almost **absolute power** meaning the any important decision in Germany could not happen without his permission.

Parle-moi de ta ville (Tell me about your town)			
Starter	verb	Places	Activity
Dans ma ville (in my town)	Il y a (there is)	Une bibliothèque (a library)	Où on peut (where you can)
En ville (in town)	Il n'y a pas de* (there isn't)	Un centre commercial (a shopping centre)	Prendre un bus ou un car (take a bus or coach)
À Liverpool (in Liverpool)	On peut trouver (you can find)	Un centre sportif (a sports centre)	Regarder les sports (watch sports)
	On a (we have)	Une gare (a train station)	Faire du patinage (do ice skating)
	Nous avons (we have)	Une gare routière (a bus station)	Faire de l'exercice (do exercise)
		Un musée (a museum)	Voir des châteaux ou sites intéressants (see castles or interesting sites)
		Un parc d'attractions (a theme park)	Trouver de bonnes affaires (find good deals)
		Une patinoire (an ice-rink)	Apprendre des choses intéressantes (learn interesting things)
		Une piscine (a swimming pool)	Trouver et lire des romans (find and read novels)
		Un stade (a stadium)	Nager/faire de la natation (swim)
		Les monuments historiques (historical monuments)	Acheter beaucoup de choses (buy lots of things)
		Un marché (a market)	S'amuser avec les amis (have fun with friends)
		Une mosquée (a mosque)	Prier (pray)
		Une église (a church)	

French Knowledge Navigator

Parle-moi de ta ville (Tell me about your town)			
Opinion	verb	Connectives	Activity
J'adore (I love)	Où j'habite (where I live) Ma ville (My town) Habiter à Liverpool (living in Liverpool)	Car (because) Parce que (because) Mais (but) Cependant (however) Puisque (since)	La ville a du caractère (the town has character)
J'aime (I like)			La ville a du charme (the town has charm)
Je n'aime pas (I don't like)			La vieille ville est très belle (the old town is very beautiful)
Je déteste (I hate)			Les transports en commun sont fantastiques (the public transport is fantastic)
Je ne supporte pas (I can't stand)			Il y a toujours quelque chose à faire (there is always something to do)
			Il n'ya rien à voir (there is nothing to see)
			Il y a pleine de touristes en été (there are plenty of tourists in summer)
			Il y a du bruit jour et nuit (there is noise day and night)
			Il y a trop de circulation dans les rues (there is too much traffic on the roads)
			Il n'ya pas beaucoup de magasins intéressants (there aren't a lot of interesting shops)

Quels sont les problèmes sociaux principaux?			
Starter	Social problems	Connectives	Activity
Je m'inquiète de (I am worried about)	Les victimes de catastrophes naturelles et de guerre (victims of natural disasters and war)	On peut (you can) On devrait (you should)	Aider les enfants défavorisés (help disadvantaged children)
Le plus grand problème est (the biggest problem is)	Les personnes qui ont besoin de l'aide médicale (people who need medical aid)		Organiser les activités pour récolter des fonds (organise activities to raise funds)
	Les personnes qui ont faim (people who are hungry)		Donner des vêtements (donate clothes)
	Les victimes du cancer (victims of cancer)		Donner de la nourriture (donate food)
	Les victimes du racisme (victims of racism)		Travailler dans un magasin pour une association caritative (work in a charity shop)
	La pauvreté (poverty)		Communiquer avec les seniors (communicate with seniors)
			Devenir bénévole (become a volunteer)

¿Qué hay en la foto? (What is there in the photo?)		
En la foto hay mi familia, In the photo there is my family, En la foto hay mi mejor amiga, In the photo there is my best friend (f), En la foto hay 1 persona, In the photo there is 1 person,	está he/she is	en el centro de la foto in the middle of the photo adentro inside sonriendo smiling pensando thinking contento/a happy triste sad
En la foto hay ___ personas, In the photo there are ___ people, En la foto hay mis mejores amigos, In the photo there are my best friends,	están they are	afuera outside jugando playing comiendo eating hablando speaking contentos/as happy (m/f) tristes sad
¿Cómo es? (What is he/she like?) [How he/she is?] ¿Cómo son? (What are they like?) [How they are?]		
Mi mejor amiga My best friend (f) Mi amiga Julia My friend Julia Mi madre My mum	es he/she is	alta tall delgada slim rubia blonde honesta honest graciosa funny
Mis hermanos My brothers / siblings Mis mejores amigos My best friends Mis primos My cousins (m)	son they are	bajos short gordos fat pelirrojos ginger-haired trabajadores hardworking
¿Qué estás haciendo? (What are you doing?) [What you are doing?]		
Ahora mismo Right now Actualmente Currently Ahora Now Hoy Today En este momento At the moment	estoy I am estás you (singular) are está he / she / it is estamos we are estáis you (plural) are están they are	repasando para mis exámenes revising for my exams escuchando música listening to music tomando el sol en el balcón sunbathing on the balcony esperando a mi amigo / a waiting for my friend viendo una peli en casa watching a film at home escribiendo en Instagram writing on Instagram pensando en salir thinking about going out descansando en mi habitación relaxing in my room
¿Quieres salir conmigo? (Do you want to go out with me?) [You want to go out with me?]		
(No) puedo porque I can (not) because	tengo que I have to quiero I want to	cuidar a mis hermanos look after my siblings visitar a mis abuelos visit my grandparents quedarme en casa stay at home subir mis fotos a Instagram upload my photos on Instagram

¿Te llevas bien con tu familia y tus amigos? (Do you get on well with your family and friends?)			
<p>*Diría que I would say that</p> <p>A mi modo de ver To my way of thinking</p>	<p>me llevo (muy) bien I get on (very) well</p> <p>no me llevo (muy) bien I don't get on (very) well</p> <p>nos llevamos (muy) bien we get on (very) well</p> <p>me peleo I argue</p> <p>nos peleamos we argue</p> <p>me divierto I have fun</p> <p>nos divertimos we have fun</p>	<p>con with</p>	<p>mi familia my family</p> <p>mi hermano menor my younger brother</p> <p>mi madre my mum</p> <p>mi padre de acogida my foster dad</p> <p>mi mejor amigo/a my best friend (m/f)</p> <p>mi hermana mayor my older sister</p> <p>mi tío my uncle</p> <p>mi marido my husband</p> <p>mi mujer my wife</p>
<p>porque be-cause</p> <p>dado que because</p> <p>ya que be-cause</p>	<p>siempre always</p> <p>a veces sometimes</p> <p>de vez en cuando from time to time</p> <p>nunca never</p>	<p>es he/ she is</p>	<p>optimista optimistic</p> <p>paciente patient</p> <p>gracioso/a funny</p> <p>impaciente impatient</p> <p>trabajador/a hardworking</p> <p>perezoso/a lazy</p> <p>fiel loyal</p>
<p>*me hace reír he/she makes me laugh</p> <p>*me hace llorar he/she makes me cry</p> <p>*me ayuda he/she helps me</p> <p>*me dice la verdad he/she tells me the truth</p> <p>*me apoya he/she supports me</p>			

¿Cuáles son tus aplicaciones favoritas? (What are your favourite apps?) [Which are your apps favourites?]					
<p>(no) uso I (don't) use</p>	<p>Instagram</p> <p>Snapchat</p> <p>Whatsapp</p> <p>Youtube</p> <p>Spotify</p> <p>Facebook</p>	<p>para in order</p>	<p>subir y ver vídeos to upload and watch videos</p> <p>compartir fotos to share photos</p> <p>pasar el tiempo to pass the time</p> <p>organizar las salidas con mis amigos to organise going out with my friends</p> <p>contactar con mi familia to contact my family</p> <p>descargar música to download music</p> <p>conocer a nueva gente to meet new people</p> <p>chatear y mandar mensajes to chat and send messages</p>	<p>ya que *diría que (no) es</p> <p>because I would say that it is(n't)</p>	<p>práctico / a practical</p> <p>fácil de usar easy to use</p> <p>popular popular</p> <p>útil useful</p> <p>gratis free</p> <p>rápido / a fast</p> <p>peligroso / a dangerous</p> <p>cómodo / a comfortable</p> <p>necesario / a necessary</p> <p>amplio / a broad</p>

¿Con quién vives? (Who do you live with?) [With who you live?]		¿Cómo es? (What is he/she like?) [How he/she is?]	
<p>Vivo con I live with</p>	<p>mi madre my mum</p> <p>mi madrastra my stepmum</p> <p>mis madres my mums</p> <p>mi tía my auntie</p> <p>mi tío my uncle</p> <p>mi abuelo my granddad</p> <p>mi padre de acogida my foster dad</p> <p>mi hermanastro/a my stepbrother/sister</p>	<p>su hermana her/his/their sister</p> <p>mi padrastro my stepdad</p> <p>sus hijos his/her/their children</p> <p>mi primo/a my cousin (m/f)</p> <p>su sobrino his/her/their nephew</p> <p>sus sobrinas his/her/their nieces</p> <p>su nieto his/her/their grandson/</p> <p>sus nietas his/her/their granddaughters</p>	<p>lleva wears</p> <p>es he/she is</p>
<p>rubio blonde</p> <p>negro black</p> <p>castaño brown</p> <p>rojo red</p> <p>largo long</p> <p>corto short</p> <p>liso straight</p> <p>rizado curly</p> <p>ondulado wavy</p>	<p>el pelo the hair</p> <p>los ojos the eyes</p> <p>pecas freckles</p>	<p>y and</p>	<p>gafas glasses</p> <p>trenzas braids</p> <p>velo a headscarf</p> <p>bigote a moustache</p> <p>barba a beard</p> <p>alto/a tall</p> <p>bajo/a short</p> <p>gordo/a fat</p> <p>delgado/a slim</p> <p>calvo/a bald</p> <p>pelirrojo/a ginger-haired</p>