



Year 9 Knowledge Organiser

Summer Term
2023-2024

Knowledge
is power 

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1	Tone	Creating areas of light to dark on a piece of art
2	Line	The path left by a moving point. For example, a pencil or a brush
3	Shape	A shape is an area enclosed by a line
4	Form	A three dimensional shape or making a piece of artwork appear 3D
5	Pattern	A design that is created by repeating lines, shapes, tones or colours
6	Texture	How the artwork feels
7	Colour	Used to show what something looks like or to create a certain mood
8	Primary Colour	Blue, Red and Yellow. Cannot be made by mixing other colours together
9	Secondary Colour	Green, Orange and Purple. Made by mixing equal amount of 2 primary colours.
10	Harmonious Colours	Colours that sit next to each other on the colour wheel
11	Complementary Colours	Colours that sit opposite each other on the colour wheel and create contrast
12	Warm Colour	Red, Orange and Yellow
13	Cool Colour	Blue, Green and Purple

14	Monochrome	Using different tones of only one colour in a piece of art
15	Composition	How the elements in the work are arranged
16	Proportion	The size of something compared to something else
17	Scale	The overall size of a piece of artwork or the size of objects within the artwork
18	Focal Point	What you look at first is in a piece of art
19	Contrast	Using opposite elements within a piece of art. For example black and white
20	Foreground	The objects closest to you in a piece of art
21	Midground	The objects in between the foreground and background of a piece of art
22	Background	The objects furthest from you in a piece of art
23	Abstract	Art that does not represent an accurate image of reality
24	Realistic	Art that shows a realistic representation of reality
25	Shadows	The darkest tone to represent the darkest areas of a piece of art
26	Highlights	The lightest tone to represent the lightest areas of a piece of art
27	Mid tones	The tones in between the light and dark areas of a piece of art

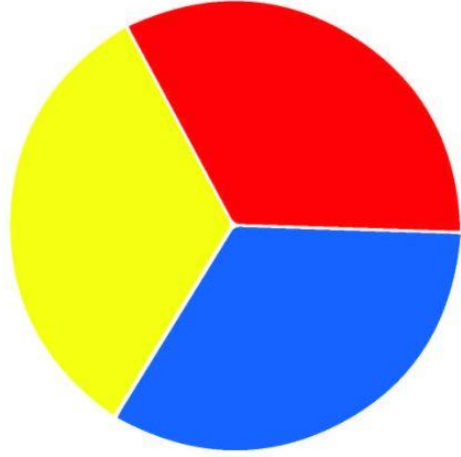
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28	Landscape	Artwork of a natural scenery such as mountains, fields etc
29	Portrait	A piece of art that shows a persons face
30	Conceptual	Artwork that focuses an idea behind the work rather that the outcome
31	Mood	The atmosphere / emotion of feeling expressed in a piece of art
32	Expressive	Using shape, line, patterns and colour in an abstract way to create a thought / feeling
33	Pastiche	Art that copies the style of another piece of artwork
34	Minimalism	Artwork that consists of a simple design usually made up of shapes and or lines
35	Negative Space	The space around the artwork that has nothing there
36	Mural	Artwork that has been created on to a wall usually large scale
37	Typography	What text / words are referred to in your artwork
38	Media / Medium	The materials used to create art. For example pen, paint, pencil
39	Mixed Media	More than one media / medium used to create a piece of art

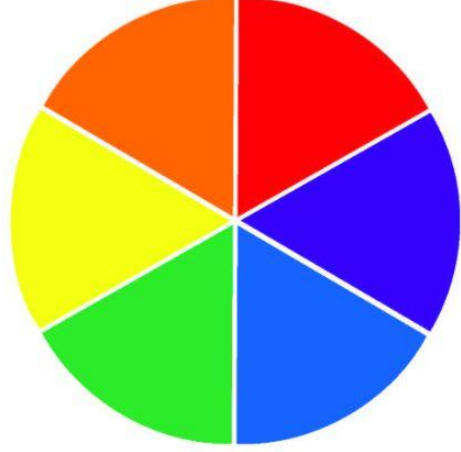
Techniques and Mediums		
40	Directional Shading	Shading following the direction of the object to build texture and tone
41	Stippling	Dots used to build texture and or tone
42	Cross-hatching	Lines that go in multiple directions used to build texture and or tone
43	Hatching	Line that go in the same direction used to build texture and tone
44	Scumbling	Overlapping lots of little circles used to build texture and tone
45	Bleeding	Running one colour into another
46	Blending	Mixing colours to create a gradual transition from one colour to another
47	Tonal Drawing	Drawing that consists of shading using tones of dark to light
48	Continuous Line Drawing	A drawing where the line is continuous and does not break
49	Line Drawing	A drawing that concentrates on the outline and main lines within a drawing but not tone
50	Applique	Joining one piece of fabric on top of another in a decorative way
51	Embellishment	Decorating fabric using buttons, beads and sequins etc
52	Embroidery	Decorating fabric through stitching

THE COLOUR WHEEL



Primary Colours

Cannot be made from any other colours. All other colours are made from these



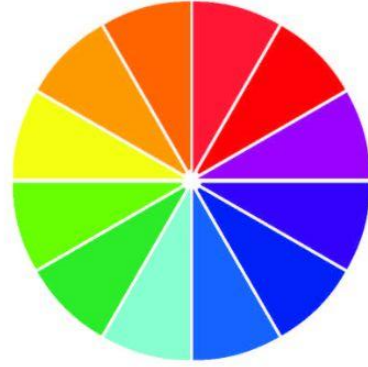
Primary and Secondary Colours

Made by mixing equal amounts of two primary colours



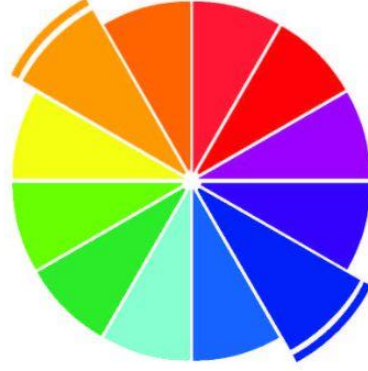
Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Colours

Made by mixing equal amounts of primary and secondary colours next to each other.



Harmonious Colours

Colours that are next to each other on the colour wheel are called harmonious.



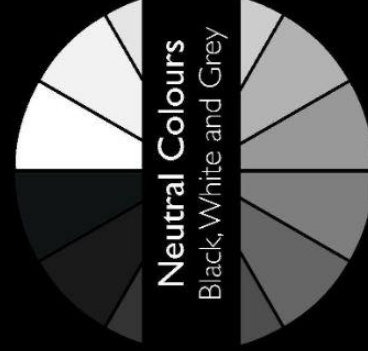
Complementary Colours

Colours that are opposite each other on the colour wheel. When complementary colours are used they create contrast.



Warm and Cool Colours

Warm colours are on the red side of the wheel.
Cool colours are on the blue side of the wheel.



Neutral Colours

Black, White and Grey

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KS4 Sustained Project Knowledge Organiser

53	Art, Craft and Design	The GCSE pupils will get at the end of this course. To complete this course you must show evidence of working within 2 or more of the following areas: fine art, graphic design, textiles, photography and 3D
54	Assessment Objectives	This is what you are assessed by. There are 4 assessment objectives and you must show evidence of working in all 4 areas. The objectives are evenly weighted out of 24 marks.
55	Assessment Objective 1	To hit this objective you must show evidence of developing ideas through investigations, demonstrating critical understanding of sources. This means you must analysis the work of other artists / research from articles, poems, songs, books etc to support the development of your own ideas
56	Assessment Objective 2	To hit this objective you must show evidence of refining work by exploring ideas, selecting and experimenting with appropriate media, materials, techniques and processes. This means you must show how you can develop work using previous ideas working within a variety of mediums and making informed and relevant choices
57	Assessment Objective 3	To hit this objective you must show evidence of recording ideas, observations and insights relevant to intentions as work progresses. This means you must record the ideas behind your work and how your work is progressing through annotation or visual means if this is obvious.

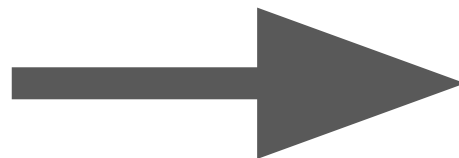
58	Assessment Objective 4	To hit this objective you must show evidence of producing a personal response that realises intentions and demonstrates understanding of visual language. This means you must show evidence of a creative journey that shows links to the work of others as well bringing together their own intentions through trails, tests and experiments.
59	Sustained Project	A body of work that can be created within a sketchbook or on separate piece of paper. The work starts with a starting point and pupils will evidence all assessment objectives through a journey of initial engagement to realisation of intentions
60	Annotation	Written explanations added to work to explain and record ideas and thoughts. This is really important as it lets the person looking at your work understanding the ideas
61	Component	The term 'Unit of Work' has been replaced by the term 'Component'. There are two sections to the GCSE: Component 1: which is a portfolio of work; Component 2: is an externally set assignment by AQA
62	Preparatory Work	This is the work created in response to the starting point of a sustained project and should support you in creating a final personal response.
63	Personal Response	Creating an outcome that is informed by your preparatory work. This can happen throughout the project as mini personal responses or at the end of the project and a final personal response

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KS4 Sustained Project Knowledge Organiser

64	Non-examined assessment (NEA)	This is component 1 and worth 60% of the GCSE. Pupils will responded to a sustained project with a set starting point set by the teacher.
65	Portfolio	Needed for component 1, pupils must submit a body of work that must include a sustained project and a selection of further work produced during the course of study.
66	Externally Set Assignment (ESA)	This is component 2 and worth 40% of your GCSE. This is set out in the same way as component 1 above. The differences are; pupils must select one of the seven starting points from the externally set paper. The final response will be created during a 10 hours of supervised time. Once this time starts you cannot add to any more of your preparatory work. After the supervised time pupils are not allowed to continue with component 2.
67	Supervised Time	At the end of component 2 pupils will produce their final response during 10 hours of supervised time. This is unaided which means pupils cannot have any help. Therefore, pupils must go into this supervised time knowing exactly what they are going to do and how they are going to do it

Check out the example sustained project that has the starting point of Identity



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Year 9 Knowledge Organiser Practical tasks Term 3

1	What is the starting point of the sustained project you have started?	
2	List any ideas / keywords / artists you that link to the starting point?	
16	Write your initial intentions that link to your starting point. Your initial intentions should say how you have interpreted the starting point and what you aim to do next. Do not talk about any final response	
17	Create a list of things to photograph that links to your initial intentions that you could then complete observational drawings of	

18	List different mediums and or techniques you want to experiment with. For example monoprinting, watercolour, lino printing, heat press, pencil drawings	
19	Write down what you are currently doing in your project and what you want to do next to develop your work further. You might want to ask your learning coach to photograph what you have written to email to you so you can write this in your work.	
20	Write down / sketch how you visualise your current personal response. You might want to scan / ask your learning coach to photograph what you have done to email to you so you can put this in your work.	

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Year 9 Knowledge Organiser Practical tasks Term 3

21	Write down / sketch how you visualise your current personal response. You might want to scan / ask your learning coach to photograph what you have done to email to you so you can put this in your work.	
22	Write down what you are currently doing in your project and what you want to do next to develop your work further. You might want to ask your learning coach to photograph what you have written to email to you so you can write this in your work.	

23	Write down / sketch how you visualise your final personal response. You might want to scan / ask your learning coach to photograph what you have done to email to you so you can put this in your work.	
24	Write down the idea behind your final personal response and how it links back to your intentions	
25	Write down how you are going to complete your final response and what mediums and materials you are going to need. For example canvas, watercolours, pencils	

Topic 1.3 Putting a business idea into practice

Key words 1.3.4 Sources of business finance

Trade credit

When a supplier provides goods but is willing to wait to be paid – for perhaps up to three months. This helps with cash flow.

Venture capital

A combination of share capital and loan capital, provided by an investor willing to take a chance on the success of a small to medium-sized business.

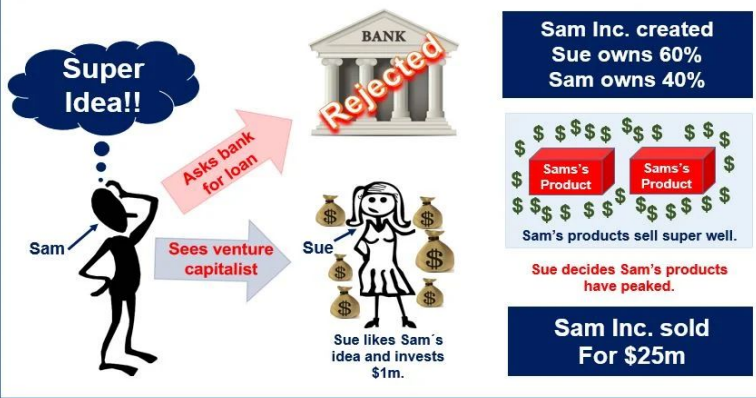
1.3.4 Sources of business finance

Personal savings

Most new businesses are financed mainly from the personal savings of the owners. This is usually necessary because outside shareholders and **venture capital** houses will only invest if they see that the owners are willing to put their own money at risk.



What is venture capital?



Bank overdraft

This is the most common form of finance. It must be understood in two parts. First, the bank grants the business (or individual) an overdraft facility, for example of £5,000. This provides the right to keep spending until the bank account is £5,000 in the red.

ACCOUNT NO. 0000000000	
Checking Account	\$100.00
Morning Latte	-\$5.00
Groceries	-\$70.00
Gas	-\$25.00
Gym Membership Monthly Payment	-\$50.00
OVERDRAFT FEE	\$35.00

Topic 1.3 Putting a business idea into practice

1.3.4 Sources of business finance

Key words 1.3.4 Sources of business finance

Crowdfunding	Raising capital online from many small investors (but not through the stock market).
Share capital	Raising finance by selling part ownership in the business. Shareholders have the right to question the directors and to receive part of the yearly profits.
Dividends	Payments made to shareholders from the company's yearly profits. The directors of the company decide how large a dividend payment to make; in a bad year they can decide on zero.
Retained profit	Profit kept within the business (not paid out in dividends); this is the best source of finance for expansion.



Retained profits



- After a year or more of trading a business may have some profits that they are able to re-invest into the business to help it grow.
- A well run business should continually re-invest in new staff/ equipment / stock/ premises / vehicles etc

Internal source of finance

- If a business is in its first year of trading it will NOT have any retained profits – as it will not have made any to retain.
- The advantage is there is no interest to pay.
- The disadvantage is once it is used it has gone. This is an internal source of finance.

Crowdfunding



Crowdfunding refers to the method through which the capital can be raised by the business through a large number of individuals beyond friends, family, relatives, and customers by posting the project details that the company is planning to start on the website of crowdfunding and other social media platforms.

Topic 1.4 Making the business effective

Key words 1.4.1 The options for start-up and small businesses

Sole trader

A business run by one person; that person has unlimited liability for any business debts.

Unlimited liability

Treating the business and the individual owner as inseparable, therefore making the individual responsible for all the debts of a failed business.

Private limited company

A small family business in which shareholders enjoy limited liability.

Limited liability

Restricting the losses suffered by owners/shareholders to the sum they invested in the business.

Bankrupt

When an individual is unable to pay their debts, even after all personal assets have been sold for cash.

1.4.1 The options for start-up and small businesses

Sole Trader

- * A sole trader is the most common type of business. It is **owned**, **controlled** and **financed** by one person.
- * Examples of sole traders are:
 - * Plumber
 - * Electrician
 - * Mechanic
 - * Hairdresser



However, anyone can start up their own business doing whatever they want.

Unlimited Liability

Definition: Means that the owners of a business are responsible for all of the debts of a business. Personal belongings may need to be given up to pay the debts of the business.



Topic 1.4 Making the business effective

1.4.1 The options for start-up and small businesses

Key words 1.4.1 The options for start-up and small businesses

Franchising	Paying a franchise owner for the right to use an established business name, branding and business methods.
Royalties	Percentage of the sales revenue to be paid to the overall franchise owner.
Entrepreneur	A person who sets up a business and takes on financial risks in the hope of profit.



Advantages:

- **Faster Expansion**
- **Lower Capital Cost**
- **Access to Training and Support**
- **Better Performance**
- **Fewer Risks**

Disadvantages:

- **Lack of Independence**
- **Inflexibility**
- **Limited Success**
- **Hidden Costs**
- **Difficult of Sell**



When you have set up a business successfully in one location, the race is on to do the same elsewhere. If you do not 'copy' your idea, others will. Yet how can a small business quickly clone its own idea, many times over? It is hard to start up one business outlet, let alone lots of them.

One answer to this problem is **franchising**. This means selling the rights to use a business idea and methods in a specific location or area. The person or business buying the rights therefore has to do all the work to make it a success. The franchise owner must ensure they select someone who will do a good job – and therefore not damage the image of their business.



Franchise Examples
www.learnmanagement2.com



A Franchise business lets you profit from its successful brand and run it as your business



Topic 1.4 Making the business effective

1.4.2 Business location

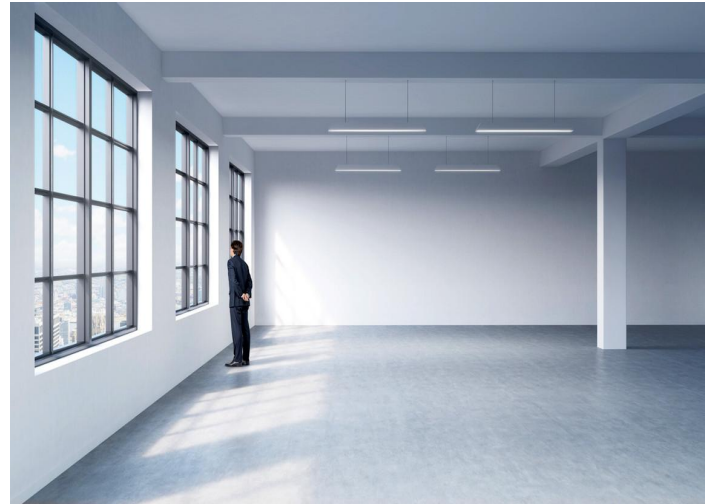
Key words 1.4.2 Business location

Fixed premises

Buildings that have to be where they are (for example, the high street); e-commerce buildings can be located anywhere.

Proximity

Nearness; whether or not a business wants to be close to a factor such as 'materials'.



Once an entrepreneur has decided a profitable opportunity exists, it is time to think about the ideal location. This is much tougher than it seems. If you buy a house, the seller only cares whether you can pay once – that is, pay the asking price. When it is business premises (a shop, say) the owner wants to know whether you'll be able to pay every month for the lifetime of the lease. That might be five to ten years.



Topic 1.4 Making the business effective



Table 21.1 Shop rental prices in London

London shop locations	Shop size (sq ft)	Annual rent (2016)	Cost per sq ft	Notes
Bermondsey	492	£12,000	£24	Residential area
Shoreditch	1,060	£50,000	£47	Close to trendy Hoxton Square
Knightsbridge	650	£128,000	£197	Nearly half the space is basement
The Strand	290	£78,000	£269	Continuous footfall from Covent Garden
Oxford Street	530	£535,000	£1,010	Basement space not included; location is opposite Selfridges

1.4.2 Business location

● Making a location decision

To make a businesslike location decision, likely revenues have to be balanced against likely costs. It may seem wrong to be paying five times the rent to be at one end of the street rather than the other, but if the expensive end has the station and other busy shops, the high rent is probably money well spent.



IMAGE AND SOUND DEFINITIONS		
1	What are pixels?	Pixels are the dots or points of light that make up a digital image
2	What does the resolution of an image mean?	The number and size of pixels in a given area of the image
3	Why is a high-resolution better than a low-resolution image?	High resolution uses a lot of small pixels to represent the image, so it can show greater detail and variable
4	What is meant by the colour depth of an image?	Colour depth tells you how many codes are used to represent the different colours in an image
5	Why do high quality images require greater colour depth?	With more colour depth, a greater range of colours can be recorded; this gives a more natural and colourful appearance
6	What is sample rate?	Sample rate tells you how many times per second the digital microphone samples the sound waves in the air
7	How is sample rate linked to sound quality?	The more often the sound is sampled, the better the quality of the sound
8	What is bit depth?	The number of codes available to record the different sounds
9	How is bit depth related to the quality of a sound recording?	When more number codes are available to record the different sounds

CHARACTER REPRESENTATION DEFINITIONS		
10	How do you calculate the number of pixels in an image?	Number of pixels in an image = height of image in pixels x width of image in pixels
11	How do you calculate the file size in bits?	Multiply the number of pixels by the colour depth (the number of bits per pixel)
12	What three factors must you multiply together to find the size of a sound file?	The number of seconds, the sample rate per second, and the bit depth
13	What is metadata?	Data about data; examples include; type of file, file size, date created

DATA REPRESENTATION DEFINITIONS		
14	What is binary?	A number system that contains two symbols, 0 and 1. Also known as base 2
15	What is denary?	The number system most commonly used by people. It contains 10 unique digits 0 to 9. Also known as decimal or base 10.
16	What is hexadecimal?	A number system that contains sixteen symbols, 0 to 9 and A to F. Also known as base 16.
17	What is a character set?	A mapping of keyboard characters to numbers used to represent those keyboard characters in a computer system
18	What is ASCII?	American Standard Code for Information Interchange – A 7-bit character set for representing English keyboard characters

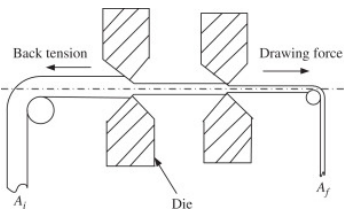
UNITS OF DATA REPRESENTATION		
19	What is a bit pattern?	Any sequence of more than one bit
20	What is a bit?	A single symbol in a binary number. Either 1 or 0
21	What is a nibble?	A bit pattern which is four bits long
22	What is a byte?	A bit pattern which is eight bits long
23	What is a Kilobyte?	1000 bytes
24	What is a Megabyte?	1000 Kilobytes
25	What is a Gigabyte?	1000 Megabytes
26	What is a Terabyte?	1000 Gigabytes
27	What is a Petabyte?	1000 Terabytes

BINARY ADDITION		
28	What is 1 + 0?	1 + 0 = 1
29	What is 1 + 1?	1 + 1 = 0 carry 1

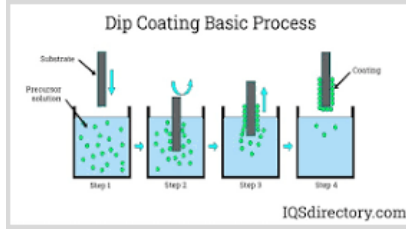
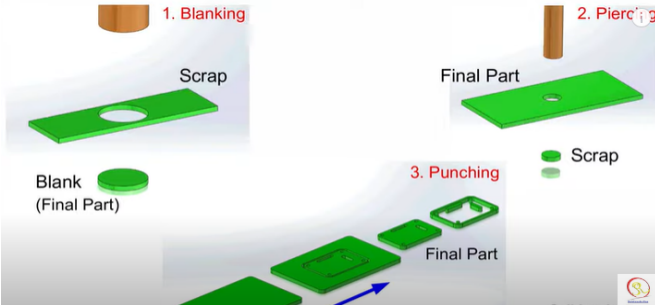
1. Street Voices (6)	A fluid device to push the story along, describe spaces and atmospheres, as well as being able to play smaller roles within the play
2. Present Martin	Plays Martin after the crash
3. Past Martin	Plays Martin before the crash
4. Narrative Martin: Is above and beyond the action of the play. He is what we all want to be, with the ability to voice inner feelings and opinions, freeze the action and comment on scenes– he talks directly to the audience	
5. Matthew and Mark	Martin's friends from school .
6. Natalie	Martin's girlfriend, she is extremely confident and outgoing. However, she also worries what people think of her
7. Anthony	A new friend of Martin's from hospital who has also experienced facial disfigurement
8. Fractured	Split or broken
9. Surreal	Bizarre or unreal
10. Trauma	A deeply distressing or disturbing experience
11. Performer	The actor performing within the play
12. Director	The person responsible for everything within the play (the creative vision)
13. Designer	The person responsible for creating the costumes, set, props/ stage furniture, sound or lighting
14. Production note	The nature of this play is largely fractured and some conventions and devices may seem surreal . This reflects and articulates the nature of what trauma does to people. Something of us is somehow stuck' in any recent shocking episode and it takes us time to process and make sense of the events that have led up to it.
15. Prejudice	A preconceived opinion that is not based on reason or actual experience for example the racism Martin displays at the beginning of the play and the unkindness Martin faces after his accident.
16. Drugs	Some of the characters take drugs resulting in a tragic accident
17. Disfigurement	The action of spoiling the appearance of something or someone; defacement

Metal work Knowledge Organising Year 9			
	Keyword	Explanation	Example/ Use
1	Ferrous metal	Iron	
2	Non ferrous metal	Metal without iron	Copper, aluminium, zinc, titanium, tin
3	Alloy	Chemical combined materials where at least one is a metal.	Stainless steel, brass
4	Ferrous Alloy	An alloy with iron in it.	High carbon (tool steel), mild steel (low carbon), high speed steel, , stainless steel (with Chromium and Nickle)
5	Non ferrous alloy	An alloy without iron in it	Brass, bronze,
6	Ore	How metal is found initially. Usually combined with sand, soil or gravel.	ALuminium ore is called Bauxite
7	Smelt	Heating up of an ore in order to extract the metal	Iron
8	Extraction	Removal of something from something else.	Removal of ore from the ground
9	Refining	Purifying the metal	Electrolysis of bauxite into Alumina
10	Detonation	Using explosives to blow up rocks	
11	Surface mining	Removing ores from the surface without digging tunnels	Bauxite, gold, Peru, Australia
12	Underground mining	Creating tunnels to remove ores	
13	Magnetic	Moves towards North or other magnetic metals	Iron
14	Hardening Steel	Metal heated to a high temperature and quenched	
15	Quenching	Cooling metal down with water or oil	
16	Tempering steel	Metal heated to a lower temperature and quenching	
17	Annealing	Heating metal to a high temperature, cooling slowly	
18	Metal casting	Heating metal to a high temperature,putting in a mold	
19	Smelting	Heating iron upto a high temerpature with coke and pouring off the purified pig iron	
20	Pig iron	The first iron removed after Smelting	
21	Stock sizes of metal	The shapes and sizes that metal cna be bought in	rods, tubes, squares, rolls, blocks
22	Nuts	the m refers to the mm width. can be varied in size and head shape	wing nut, hexagonal nut
23	Bolts	the m refers to the mm width. can be varied in width, length, and head shape	
24	Screws	Have a thread and a head. Used to attach mostly wood together. Holes need to be pre drilled and screws screwed in.	Wood screw, cross head, flat head,
25	Nails	Used to attach mostly wood together. No thread. A hammer is used to apply them	
26	pop rivets	used to attach metals together.	
27	Hacksaw	Used to cut metal	
28	File	Used to remove small amounts of wood or metal	Half round, round, triangle, flat, square, rasp
29	Angle grinder	Tool with a rotating disc.	
30	Metal scriber	A metal hand tool for marking on metal	It scratches the surface
31	Wet and dry paper	A sand paper used wet or dry on metal or acrylic to smooth the edges.	
32	Metal Lathe	A machine where the block of metal is held in place by a chuck and rotated. A cutting tool is applied to the metal block to shpe it.	
33	Knurling	Engraving patterns on a piece of metl	On a handle to make it grip better.
34	Milling	A machine that cuts or shapes a sheet or block of metal.	Called subtractive manufacturing.
35	Punching and blanking	A machine that 'punches' piece of metal out of a sheet, or reform the metal into shapes	VEntilation on a sheet of metal
36	Embossing	Raising the surface of a material	
37	Drawing wire	Pulling wire through a system of die to make the wire	
38	Brazing	Joining 2 or more bits of metal together with heat and a brazing rod.	
39	Plastic dip coating	Dipping metal in liquid plastic to form a coating.	dish/clothe dryers, handle of tools
40	Powder coating	Powder is electronically charged and sprayed onto the metal surface	It is a thinner coating than dipping
41	Zinc galvanising	Ferrous alloy or iron is coated in Zinc. The zinc oxidises before the Iron or ferrous alloy	Lamp posts, watering cans. There is a pattern on the surface
42	Electroplating metal	Using annodes and cathodes to deposit metal on another metal	Gold plating on jewelry.
43	Sand blasting	BLasting sand at high speeds to remove oxidisation or paint off a metal object.	Old bridges

Drawing wire



Blanking, piercing, punching



Powder coating



Brazing

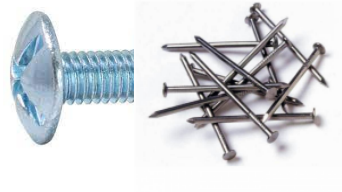


Fixings

- From left to right
- Wood screw
- crosshead screw
- flat head screw
- bolt
- hexagonal bolt
- crosshead bolt nail.



and square nut Nails



Hinges

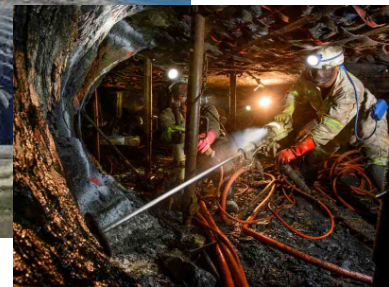
- Flat tip
- mortise
- flat hinges
- inset hinges
- top hinges



Surface mining



Underground mining



<https://www.rockler.com/hardware/cabinet-hardware/hinges/european-hinges>

Types of production and general terms			Unit 1 Industry and nterprise
	Keyword	Explanation	Example
1	One off production	A product that is made for just one client. The sizes will be specific to that person only.	A wedding suit, jewellery
2	Batch production	Products made in small number, 20-1000. Small changes can be made for example colour and then another batch is produced.	The same school chairs are made in red for Saracens, the colour is changed and another school has the same chair in a different colour. https://www.bbc.co.uk/bitesize/guides/zrstng8/revision/7
3	Mass production	When large amounts of a product are made	Lego etc. Most likely injection molding
4	Continuous production	24 hours a day -7 days a week, 365 days a year production	Blister packs for medicines. Water bottles.
5	Prototype	An early model or sample of a product used to test a concept.	
6	Iterative Design	Design, make, evaluate, redesign	Dyson vacuum cleaners.
7	User centered design	Iterative design that consults the user at all stages of design and focuses on their needs.	Websites targeting specific TMG
8	Lean Production	Focus on the reduction of waste and efficiency in the factory.	
9	Just in time production	Resources are ordered to the factory when they are needed and not before.	Resulting in reduced stock storage. There may be a problem with late delivery of stock and then late
10	Flexible manufacturing	Groups or cells of machines or robots than can be easily reprogrammed/tools changed.	Car manufacturing.
11	Renewable	An energy source or material that will not run out if it is managed correctly.	Timber, if we keep planting it. Tidal as long as we have seas.
12	Finite	An energy source or material that will eventually run out.	Crude Oil
13	Composite	Made up of several parts (combined).	Plywood, Glass reinforced Plastic (FibreGlass), or concrete.
14	Texture	How something feels to the touch.	Rough or smooth
15	Aesthetics	How something looks	
16	Extraction	Removing a part from something.	Mining ores is a form of extraction
17	Anthropometric data	Measurements of the human body. Focus is usually on the 90 percentile	Height of people, width of the hand, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=h7G1r-qU-ll
18	Ergonomics	Using anthropometric data to design human centered products	USing measurements of children to design chairs for primary schools.
19	Resource	Something that can be used to make another product	Trees- timber-door frame. Crude oil-naphtha-plastic trays.
20	Processing	The action of separating, removing, or transforming components into another form.	Crude oil into naphtha via fractional distillation
21	End of life Cycle	The final stage of a product's existence.	
22	Extrusion	The process of forming something by forcing or pushing it out, especially through a small opening	PVC window frames
22	Blow molding	The process used to form bottles with a parison tube and a hollow mold and air pump.	Hollow objects
23	Injection molding	The process used to form solid polymer shapes. Plastic pellets are melted and injected into a 2 piece mold. Cooled and ejetced.	Seats of the stools and boxes in DT. Look for the small circle on the bottom.
24	3D Printing	The process for producing 3D shapes. Additive manufacturing	Used mostly for prototyping and modle making.
25	Vacuum forming	Forming products over a mold with a vacuum former	Blister packs, chocolates https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=S-N3MrO3Htl

Key Vocabulary

1	Metaphor	When the writer compares one thing to another using the words 'is' or 'was.'	12	Sibilance	A type of alliteration where the 's' sound is repeated.
2	Simile	When the writer compares one thing to another using the words 'like' or 'as.'	13	Assonance	The repetition of vowel sounds.
3	Alliteration	When a group of words all begin with the same consonant sound or letter.	14	Volta	Turning point in a poem.
4	Superlative	An exaggerated label or trait given to a character or thing.	15	Ballad	A dramatic story poem with four line stanzas.
5	Rhetorical Question	A question asked for effect and which does not need an answer	16	Dramatic Monologue	A character speaks to the reader.
6	Emotive Language	Words used to create particular feelings or emotions in readers.	17	Elegy	Written to mourn the death of a person.
7	Semantic Field	When the writer gives an inanimate object human qualities.	18	Epic Poem	Tragic/heroic story poem.
8	Zoomorphism	When you give a human or inanimate object animal-like qualities.	19	Free Verse	No regular rhyme or rhythm.
9	Oxymoron	A figure of speech that combines contradictory words with opposing meanings, e.g. 'old news', 'deafening silence', or 'organised chaos'	20	Blank Verse	Verse with no rhyme – usually with 10 syllables in a line.
10	Pathetic Fallacy	When human characteristics are applied to things (often found in nature)	21	Ode	A lyrical poem addressed to one person and focused on one thing.
11	Personification	The act of giving a human quality or characteristic to something which is not human.	22	Sonnet	A 14 line poem, with variable rhyme scheme, usually on the topic of love for a person, object or situation.

Sonnets		
23	Shakespearean	14 lines. ABAB CDCD EFEF GG rhyme scheme. Typically a love poem.
24	Petrarchan	2 sections – octave (8 lines) and sestet (6 lines) Octave rhyme scheme: ABBAABBA Sestet rhyme scheme: CDCDCD

Approaching the questions		
25	Question 1	Analysis of a single poem. This question is worth 24 marks. You are required to analyse a central theme within a poem using quotations, poetic devices and your personal opinion.
26	Question 2	Comparison of two poems. This question is worth 8 marks. You are required to compare the poem from question 1 with an additional poem on the same theme.

Analysing the poems							
27	C	Content	What is the poem about?	30	F	Form	What type/style of poem is it?
28	A	Attitude	How does the poet feel about what they are writing about?	31	L	Language	What figurative language is used? What is the effect on the reader?
29	T	Title	What inferences can I make from	32	I	Imagery	How does the poet create imagery? Why is this important?
				33	R	Rhythm/Rhyme	Is there a conventional/unconventional rhyme scheme?
				34	T	Themes	What are the major themes within the poem?

Weekly Spelling Test Words – You will need to know how to spell all the words listed below.

1. Abstract: an idea rather than a thing.	31. Rhythm: a recurring beat in a poem
2. Alliteration: repeated first consonant sound.	32. Volta: the turning point of a poem.
3. Assonance: repeated vowel sound.	33. Antithesis: placing two contrasting ideas /characters together.
4. Anaphora: repeating the first words at the start of a line.	34. Ambiguity: a word where there are two or more possible meanings
5. Cliché: over-used phrase	35. Stanza: a group of lines separated from others in a poem (verse)
6. Colloquial language: casual, informal language	36. Caesura: a stop or pause in a line of poetry – caused by punctuation marks.
7. Extended metaphor: a series of linked metaphors.	37. Quatrain: a four line stanza.
8. Hyperbole: exaggeration for effect	38. Sestet: a six line stanza.
9. Imagery: visually descriptive or figurative language.	39. Couplet: a pair of lines which follow on from each other and invariably rhyme.
10. Internal Rhyme: rhyme on the same line.	40. Sonnet: a fourteen line poem.
11. Irony: a use of words to mean something different from what they appear to mean.	41. Figurative Language: the use of words or phrases to create a special meaning.
12. Metaphor: something described as something else.	42. Evokes: to call or summon up a memory or feeling.
13. Motif: recurring theme or symbol.	43. Depicts: portray/describe in words.
14. Onomatopoeia: a sound word.	44. Emphasises: give special importance or value to something in writing.
15. Pathetic Fallacy: giving human emotion and conduct to things found in nature including the weather.	45. Implies: suggest something as a logical consequence.
16. Personification: giving human characteristics to inanimate objects.	46. Illustrates: serve as an example of.
17. Plosive: letters p/t/k/b/d/g	47. Foreshadows: be a warning or indication of a future event.
18. Semantic field: a group of words related in meaning.	48. Connotes: implies or suggests.
19. Sibilance: a repeated s sound.	49. Denotes: be a sign of or indicate.
20. Simile: saying something is <u>like</u> or <u>as</u> something else.	50. Conveys: make something known or understandable.
21. Beginning: the establishment of ideas at the start.	51. Accentuates: make more noticeable or prominent.
22. Chronological: in time order.	52. Provokes: stimulate a reaction in.
23. Enjambment: a sentence that runs over stanzas.	53. Conversely: in an opposite way.
24. Flashback: set I a time earlier than the main narrative.	54. Inference: an opinion that you form based on the information that you have.
25. Iambic pentameter: 5 sets of unstressed/stressed beats on a line.	55. Structure: the organization of a poem's various elements.
26. Juxtaposition: placing contrasting ideas close together in a text.	56. Chorus: a part of a poem which is repeated after each verse.
27. Oxymoron: two opposite words next to each other.	57. Allusion: Unacknowledged reference and quotations that authors assume their readers will recognise
28. Refrain: repeated lines (like a chorus in a song)	58. Conceit: an ingenious or fanciful comparison or metaphor.
29. Repetition: a pattern of repeated words/ideas.	59. Allegory: a narrative with an underlying moral message
30. Rhyme scheme: the organization of the rhyme.	60. Paradox: a situation or phrase that appears to be contradictory but that also contains some measure of truth.

ENGLISH		YEAR 9		LANGUAGE PAPER 1		TERM 3.1		PAGE 1	
Key Vocabulary									
1	Inferences	An educated guess regarding plot or characters.	6	Evaluation	A judgement of a particular topic, often based on a statement.				
2	Analyse	to examine, explain and interpret a piece of writing.	7	Extent	How far you agree or disagree with something.				
3	Structure	The moves, shifts and progressions in a text.	8	Justify	To support your response with evidence or reasoning.				
4	Structural features	Features which effect the way a text is put together.	9	Engage	To interact with the text.				
5	Theme	A topic that is included in a piece of writing	10	Consider	To think carefully about something.				

Language Technique		Definition		Structural Technique		Definition	
11	Metaphor	When the writer compares one thing to another using the words 'is' or 'was.'		21	Shift in focus	When the writer compares one thing to another using the words 'is' or 'was.'	
12	Simile	When the writer compares one thing to another using the words 'like' or 'as.'		22	Zooming in	When the writer compares one thing to another using the words 'like' or 'as.'	
13	Alliteration	When a group of words all begin with the same consonant sound or letter.		23	Zooming Out	When a group of words all begin with the same consonant sound or letter.	
14	Superlative	An exaggerated label or trait given to a character or thing.		24	Introduction of new character	An exaggerated label or trait given to a character or thing.	
15	Rhetorical Question	A question asked for effect and which does not need an answer		25	Switching perspectives	A question asked for effect and which does not need an answer	
16	Emotive Language	Words used to create particular feelings or emotions in readers.		26	Internal thoughts in action	Words used to create particular feelings or emotions in readers.	
17	Semantic Field	When the writer gives an inanimate object human qualities.		27	Cyclical structure	When the writer gives an inanimate object human qualities.	
18	Zoomorphism	When you give a human or inanimate object animal-like qualities.		28	Cliff hanger	When you give a human or inanimate object animal-like qualities.	
19	Oxymoron	Two opposites together.		29	Dialogue	When characters speak aloud	
20	Pathetic Fallacy	When human characteristics are applied to things (often found in nature)		30	Flashback/Flashforward	When the narrator changes time, moving back to the past – or forwards into the future of a story	
Analytical Verbs		Definition		Analytical Verbs		Definition	
31	Emphasises	Highlights a particular piece of information or inference.		36	Alludes	To indirectly hint at something.	
32	Displays	Shows		37	Juxtaposes	To show a contrast or opposite feeling, thought and emotion	
33	Evokes	To present a feeling within the text.		38	Provokes	A reaction or emotion,	
34	Depicts	Explores		39	Exaggerates	When characters speak aloud	
35	Insinuates	To suggest or hint at something.		40	Validates	When the narrator changes time, moving back to the past – or forwards into the future of a story	

Weekly Spelling Test Words – You will need to know how to spell all the words listed below.

1. Philanthropic: A person who is generous, loves people.	31. Courageously: Without being deterred by danger. Being brave.
2. Utopia: The best imaginable world.	32. Additionally: Used to introduce a new fact or argument
3. Benevolent: A kind and good person	33. Musty: Having a stale, mouldy or damp smell.
4. Malevolent: A unkind and evil person.	34. Squawking: A bird or a person making a loud harsh noise.
5. Immoral: A person does something which wrong or corrupt.	35. Realm: A kingdom.
6. Moral: A person who does the right thing and is a good honest human.	36. Sorceress: A witch.
7. Predator: A hunter.	37. Myriad: A crowd of people or things.
8. Finite: Limited in size or extent. Can end, will end, mortal.	38. Pauper: A poor person.
9. Infinite: Will never end, eternal, immortal.	39. Confinement: Being locked away.
10. Corrupt: A person who makes bad, wrong and dishonest decisions.	40. Gruel: Very thin tasteless porridge.
11. Credulous: Gullible	41. Animalistic: If you describe a person or their behaviour to an animal
12. Duplicitous: Two faced.	42. Jittery: Very worried and upset.
13. Transgress: Go against.	43. Jubilant: Feeling of great happiness.
14. Banal: Dull, boring and fairly ordinary.	44. Conscientious: A person who wishes to do their work to a good standard.
15. Idiosyncratic: An individual who is unique, quirky and extraordinary.	45. Crystalline: Looking like a crystal.
16. Homogeneous: All the same.	46. Glistening: Shining with a sparkly light.
17. Heterogeneous: Varied, mixed and diverse.	47. Grotesque: Comically or repulsively ugly or distorted.
18. Malleable: Able to be changed and someone/something that is flexible.	48. Stupendous: Extremely impressive.
19. Dogmatic: A person who is stubborn and unchangeable	49. Putrid: Decaying or rotting and emitting a unpleasant smell.
20. Vulnerable: A person who is easy to harm and is very fragile.	50. Prickly: Spiky.
21. Intermittent: Every so often.	51. Disgusting: Arousing revulsion.
22. Perpetual: Never ending. Cyclical, repetitive	52. Courageous: Being brave.
23. Tangible: Can be touched.	53. Inquisitive: Being curious.
24. Intangible: Cannot be touched.	54. Obnoxious: Unpleasant person.
25. Volatile: A person who is unpredictable or uncertain.	55. Repulsive: Intense disgust.
26. Ephemeral: Something that last for a short time. It is temporary.	56. Zealous: Being passionate about something.
27. Supernatural: Beyond the laws of nature and somewhat magical.	57. Vindictive: Taking revenge.
28. Reinforce: Make something or someone stronger.	58. Scornful: Mocking an individual.
29. Exuberant: Full of energy, excitement, and cheerfulness.	59. Suspicious: Cautious distrust in someone or something.
30. Arduous: Difficult and tiring; involving strenuous effort.	60. Intimidated: To frighten of someone or something.

KS4 Term 3

1	Claw grip	arch thumb and index finger, cut underneath arch
2	Bridge hold	tuck fingers back in a claw, cut in front of knuckle
3	Rubbing in method	fat (butter or baking block is rubbed into flour using fingertips, used for crumble, pastry & biscuits
4	Creaming method	cream butter and sugar together until creamy, used for cake making
5	Roux	equal parts of fat and plain flour used to thicken a liquid by gelatinisation
6	Macronutrients	protein, carbohydrates and fats
7	Micronutrients	vitamins and minerals
8	Eatwell guide	a visual tool showing how much of each food group to eat for a balanced diet
9	Cross contamination	the transfer of harmful bacteria to food from other foods, equipment or people
10	Allergy	when a food substance triggers a damaging immune response in the body
11	Seasonality	the time of year when the harvest or flavour of food is naturally at its peak
12	Food Miles	the distance travelled by food commodities from producer to consumer - farm to fork

UK Landscapes

1	What is geology?	Study of rocks – the structure and composition of the Earth
2	What are igneous rocks?	Rocked formed from cooled magma and lava – all very resistant
3	What are metamorphic rocks?	Resistant rocks changed by heat and pressure
4	What are sedimentary rocks?	Rocks formed from sediments eroded and deposited by rivers, the sea or on the seabed
5	Name 2 igneous rocks	Granite and Basalt
6	Name 2 metamorphic rocks	Slate and Marble
7	Name 2 sedimentary rocks	Clay and Chalk
8	What is meant by a porous rock?	A rock with pores (holes) that can hold air or water
9	What is meant by impermeable?	Not allowing water through
10	What line divides the upland and lowland areas in the UK?	Tees-Exe line

Past Processes

11	What is an Ice Age?	A geological period during which thick ice sheets cover areas of land
12	What are glaciers?	Large accumulations of ice, snow, rock, sediment and water that slowly move downhill
13	How do glaciers change landscapes?	Change V-shaped river valleys into U-shaped glacial valleys
14	What is freeze-thaw weathering?	Water freezes inside a rock crack, expands and makes the crack larger
15	What is chemical weathering?	Acidic rain dissolving rocks e.g. limestone
16	What is biological weathering?	Plant roots and animal burrows breaking down rocks
17	What is erosion?	The wearing away and removal of materials by a moving force such as a river or breaking waves
18	Name an upland area in the UK.	Lake District or Yorkshire Dales
19	Name a lowland area in the UK.	The Weald or East Anglia
20	What is mass movement?	Movement of weathered rock down slopes under the force of gravity

Human activity

21	How does agriculture change UK landscapes?	Flatten land, create fields with fences or hedges
22	How does quarrying change the UK landscape?	Digging up large areas of rock changing the topography
23	How do settlement change the UK landscape?	Deforestation, flatten land, buildings/roads
24	What is an SSSI?	Sites of Special Scientific Interest
25	What is an AONB?	Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty

Tropical Rainforest		
1	What are the temperatures like in tropical rainforests?	High throughout the year, averaging 27°C
2	How much precipitation do tropical rainforests receive?	High throughout the year, over 2,000mm a year
3	What is stratification?	The distinct layers of rainforest vegetation
4	What are buttress roots?	Thick, shallow roots that spread to support the weight of the tree above
5	What are drip tips?	An adaption to drain water from leaves
6	How do animals adapt to tropical rainforests?	Camouflage, mimicry, climbing, poisons
7	What are the main characteristics of the soils?	Rich in iron, but thin, infertile and prone to nutrient leaching
8	What causes deforestation?	Agriculture, logging, mining, energy production, urbanisation
9	What is a plantation?	A farm specialising in a single cash crop such as palm oil
10	How will climate change affect tropical rainforests?	Increased droughts and forest fires

Taiga Forests		
11	What are winters like in the taiga?	Long, cold, and dry, with several months below freezing
12	What are summers like in the taiga?	Short, wet, with temperatures up to 20°C
13	What are coniferous trees?	Evergreen, cone-bearing, needle leaves
14	Why are the trees cone shaped with flexible branches?	So snow can easily slide off
15	How are the needles adapted to the climate?	Waxy coating to prevent frost damage and reduce water loss
16	What is permafrost?	Permanently frozen ground (soil and rock)
17	How do animals adapted to the taiga?	Migrate, hibernate, thick, insulating fur.
18	What are the direct threats to the taiga?	Logging, mining, energy projects
19	What is the impact of acid rain on the taiga?	Acidification of lakes, damages needles and roots of trees
20	What is the impact of increasing pests and diseases in the taiga?	Tree species dying, impacting on food webs

Conservation and Management		
21	What is the purpose of CITES?	Protect endangered species through banning trade
22	What are the aims of REDD?	Reduces CO ₂ emissions through protecting carbon stores in forests
23	Name four sustainable forest management strategies.	Selective logging, agroforestry, reforestation, ecotourism
24	What is a wilderness area?	Isolated, inaccessible and sparsely populated areas
25	What is a national park?	A large area of land, protected by a government for its natural beauty, plants or animals

Classification of Data

1 Resting heart rate	<p>Normal range = 60 to 100 bpm</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Heart rate may be temporarily elevated by stress or anxiety The fitter you are the lower your resting pulse rate <p>The faster the heart rate recovers after exercise, the fitter the person is</p>
2 Blood	<p>Low blood pressure = 90/60mmHg or lower</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ideal blood pressure = between 90/60mmHg and 120/80mmHg Pre-high blood pressure = between 120/80mmHg and 140/90mmHg High blood pressure = 140/90mmHg or higher
3 BMI	<p>Underweight = below 18.5 kg/m²</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Healthy weight = between 18.5 kg/m² and 24.9 kg/m² Overweight = between 25 kg/m² and 29.9 kg/m² Obese = between 30 kg/m² and 39.9 kg/m² Severely obese = 40 kg/m² or above
4 Key	<p>Key Concepts: Physiological Measures</p> <p>Measurable ways of assessing one's physical health & well-being</p>

Impact on Health

Resting Heart
<p>Low Pulse Rate: Can suggest the individual is very fit; when very low can cause fainting, light headedness & may indicate heart failure</p> <p>High Pulse Rate : Will become very hot, sweaty & out of breath quickly when exercising Dizziness. Palpitations; damage to artery, could suggest an underlying health condition</p>
Blood Pressure
<p>Low : Feeling dizzy, light headed, fainting, increased risks of falls, tiredness</p> <p>High : Headaches, tiredness, shortness of breath, blurred vision, cardiovascular disease, stroke, kidney disease</p>
BMI
<p>Underweight : muscle weakness & anaemia, weak immune system, reduced energy, weakened bones,</p> <p>Overweight : Physical discomfort , reduced energy levels, mobility problems , difficulty accessing public spaces, stroke, joint problems</p>
<p>Lifestyle Indicators : Activities that individuals choose to do that either enhances their health or negatively impact on their health</p>

<u>Life Style Indicators</u>

Lifestyle Indicators	Government Recommendation
Nutrition	<p>Follow the Eatwell Guide</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meals based on Eatwell Plate • Consume 5 portions of fruit and vegetables a day • Limit fat, sugar and salt • Drink 6-8 glasses of water a day • Consume around 2000 calories daily for women and 2500 for men
Physical activity	<p>Adults (aged 19-64) each week should do:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • At least 150 minutes moderate intensity activity, 75 minutes vigorous activity, or a mixture of both • Strengthening activities on two days • Reduce extended periods of sitting
Smoking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do not smoke tobacco in any form • Avoid spending time in smoky places (passive smoking)
Alcohol Misuse & Substance abuse	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is safest not to drink more than 14 units of alcohol a week on a regular basis • If you regularly drink as much as 14 units of alcohol per week, it is best to spread your drinking evenly over 3 or more days • Aim to have several alcohol-free days • Avoid the use of illegal substances (drugs) • Take prescription medication as instructed and only when prescribed for you

PART 1 Knowledge Quizzing

THE GROWTH OF DEMOCRACY

HISTORY

P1AB GERMANY

1	What is the German word for 'king'?	Kaiser
2	In what year did Kaiser Wilhelm II become the monarch of Germany?	1888
3	What was the Kaiser's first aim for Germany?	To try to control the political system
4	What was the name of the Chancellor who resigned in 1890?	Bismarck
5	What was the Kaiser's second aim for Germany?	Make Germany a world power by building an overseas empire
6	What are trade unions?	Organisations who represent groups of workers and support them to get better wages, conditions etc.
7	What were the main roles of the Chancellor of Germany?	The Chancellor was the most important minister who proposed new laws and answered to the Kaiser
8	What was the Reichstag?	The German parliament - made up of members who were elected every three years They could agree or reject laws and helped decide how money would be spent
9	Why did the Kaiser, Chancellor and government have to cooperate with the Reichstag?	Because the Reichstag could agree or reject laws and helped decide how money would be spent
10	Which political parties grew in popularity during the early 1900s?	Left wing parties - socialists
11	Why was rising socialism a threat to Kaiser Wilhelm II?	It created a divide between the Kaiser and the Reichstag - the right wing wanted things to stay the same, the left wing wanted change.
12	Why did socialism grow in the early 1900s?	The working class was growing because of industrialisation - more people moved to cities to work in factories and wanted the government to improve their working conditions
13	How did the Kaiser respond to rising socialism?	REFORM - Sunday working was banned, children under 13 were not allowed to work REPRESSION - Wilhelm felt threatened by the socialists so he ordered attacks on their offices and imprisoned social democrat leaders
14	What does 'Weltpolitik' mean?	world politics
15	What did the Kaiser need in order to build an overseas empire?	A strong army and navy
16	How many soldiers did Germany have by 1913?	800,000
17	What were the Navy Laws?	agreements to increase the size of Germany's navy
18	How many ships did Germany have by 1900?	38
19	What were the consequences of the Navy Laws?	Other nations, such as Russia, France and Britain felt threatened and so formed an alliance to protect themselves (Triple Entente) Building ships was very expensive and so government debt and taxes in Germany increased.
20	When was World War I?	1914-1918
21	Why did defeat in WWI surprise the German people?	They thought and were told that they were winning - Russia surrendered in 1917 and the Spring Offensive in the west helped Germany gain 40 miles. However, a counter attack by Britain and France then led Germany to defeat.
22	What happened to Germany's economy during the war?	Factories were producing weapons instead of goods and worked signed up to fight so by 1918, Germany was producing on 60% of what they were in 1913 - Germany was running out of money and supplies.
23	What happened to Germany's workers during the war?	Workers saw their wages decrease whilst factory owners profited - some workers went on strike demanding a democratic government
24	What was the Kiel Mutiny in 1918?	Navy crews refused to follow orders and took over the German naval base - they demanded an end to the war and a democratic government.
25	What happened to food supplies in Germany during the war?	There were major food shortages due to British blockades - some people were living off turnips and bread
26	What happened to the Kaiser Wilhelm II on 9th November 1918?	He abdicated (left) the throne.
27	What replaced the Kaiser?	The Weimar Republic
28	Who was the first German Chancellor in the Weimar Republic?	Fredrich Ebert
29	What did many Germans begin calling the Weimar Republic? Why?	They were called the November Criminals because many felt that they 'stabbed Germany in the back' by calling the Armistice and then signing the Treaty of Versailles.
30	Why didn't Germans expect such a harsh peace treaty?	They thought they had been punished enough by the war, food shortages and losing their monarch.
31	Give two reasons why the German people were very angry with the Treaty of Versailles.	It was a 'diktat' (dictated peace) The terms were seen as very harsh (£6.6billion reparations, War Guilt Clause, military limitations)
32	What was Article 48 of the Weimar Constitution?	Article 48 meant that the President could call a state of emergency and rule without the government and Reichstag for a certain period of time
33	How many different political parties were there in Germany after WWI?	32 different political parties
34	What was proportional representation?	A voting system where the percentage of votes is reflected in the percentage of seats in the Reichstag
35	Why was proportional representation difficult? (3 reasons)	It meant that it was very difficult for one political party to gain control of the Reichstag (get over 50% of the votes) This meant that often the Weimar government was very divided, decisions took a long time or were never made - leading to chaotic leadership It also meant that often extremist parties ended up with some seats in the Reichstag
36	What is a coalition government?	A government made up of a number of political parties because no one political party has the majority of seats.

PART 1 Knowledge Quizzing

THE GROWTH OF DEMOCRACY

HISTORY

P1AB GERMANY

37	Who attempted to overthrow the Government in 1919? What was the uprising called?	The communists - the Spartacist Uprising
38	What happened in the Spartacist Uprising?	Workers were already protested in 1919 so the Spartacists tried to use this to create a revolution. They took over government headquarters and newspaper offices in Berlin.
39	Why did the Spartacist Uprising fail? (3 reasons)	The Freikorps (ex soldiers) were used to stop the uprising. Over 100 workers were killed. The uprising was badly planned and did not gain enough support. The leaders were captured and killed.
40	Who attempted to overthrow the Government in 1920? What was the uprising called?	The right wing / Freikorps - The Kapp Putsch
41	Why did the Kapp Putsch happen?	The Weimar Government said it wanted to reduce the army and get rid of the Freikorps
42	What happened in the Kapp Putsch?	12,000 Freikorps marched on Berlin The government was forced to flee
43	Why did the Kapp Putsch fail?	It did not gain popular support Strikes and protests made it impossible for the Freikorps to rule After 4 days, Kapp fled and the Weimar government returned
44	Who attempted to overthrow the Government in 1923? What was the uprising called?	Hitler, Ludendorff and the Nazis - The Munich Putsch
45	Why did the Munich Putsch happen?	The Nazis believed that there should be one autocratic leader in Germany - they thought that democracy led to weak government.
46	Why did Hitler think he could succeed in the Munich Putsch?	By 1923, the Nazis had 55,000 members and were popular in certain states (Bavaria) Kahr (the prime minister of Bavaria) was right-wing and believed to be ready to also rebel against the Weimar government - so Hitler believed he would support the Putsch
47	What happened in the Munich Putsch?	Hitler and the Nazis burst into a meeting led by Kahr and said they were starting a revolution Hitler forced Kahr and other leading politicians to support him Kahr actually did not support the Putsch 2000 armed Nazis tried to storm the military base in Munich anyway They were stopped by the German army 16 Nazis were killed and Hitler was shot in the army The Putsch failed
48	What happened AFTER the Munich Putsch?	Hitler was sent to prison - supposed to be for 5 years but he served 9 months Hitler gained huge publicity during the trial Hitler wrote Mein Kampf in prison Hitler realised that he would need to take power by legal means
49	What did Germany miss in 1922?	A reparations payment
50	In 1923, what did France do in response to Germany missing their reparations payment?	Invaded the Ruhr
51	What did French and Belgian troops do when they invaded the Ruhr?	Seized control of mines, factories and railways and took supplies.
52	How did the Weimar Republic respond to the invasion of the Ruhr?	They told German workers to strike (stop working and protest)
53	What did the invasion of the Ruhr and workers strikes lead to?	Hyperinflation (where money loses its value)
54	How much did an egg cost in Germany by November 1923?	80 million marks
55	How were workers affected by hyperinflation?	They could not afford food and there were major food shortages which led to starvation
56	How were farmers affected by hyperinflation?	They did not want to sell their produce for worthless money which led to food shortages
57	How were pensions affected by hyperinflation?	Their pensions could not pay for enough food
58	How were the middle class affected by hyperinflation?	Their savings became worthless
59	Who gained from hyperinflation? How?	The upper classes often invested in property so they were not affected as badly Businessmen and people in debt could pay off their loans Prices increased more than wages so some businesses made big profits
60	How was the Weimar Republic affected politically by hyperinflation?	They were seriously weakened - the people were angry and blamed the government as Germany was in chaos Hyperinflation was partially their fault - so some people who had tried to initially support Weimar turned against them
61	Who was Gustav Stresemann?	German Foreign Minister 1923-1929
62	What did Stresemann do to solve hyperinflation?	He created a new German currency called the Rentenmark - this changed to the Reichsmark in 1924 He persuaded the French to leave the Ruhr
63	Why wasn't Stresemann's solution to hyperinflation popular with everyone?	The German people never forgot hyperinflation and people who lost their savings weren't compensated Asking the French to leave the Ruhr was seen as weak by right-wing extremists
64	What was the Dawes Plan? How did it help Germany?	It meant Germany had longer to pay their reparations Germany borrowed money from the USA to help rebuild - schools, hospitals, roads
65	What was good about the Dawes Plan?	Pensions and wages rose Exports increased and Germany was the second strongest industrial power by 1928
66	Why was the Dawes Plan criticised by some Germans?	Some Germans felt they shouldn't be paying any more reparations at all The German economy was really dependent on the USA Wages did not rise for everyone (e.g. farmers) Rich people had to pay more tax
67	What was the Young Plan? How did it help Germany?	It lowered the amount Germany had to pay to £2billion (which would still mean they would be paying until 1988!)
68	How did Stresemann improve relationships with other countries?	The Locarno Pact 1925 (promising not to invade each other) Joining the League of Nations in 1926 The Kellogg-Briand Pact (promising to settle disputes peacefully - signed by 64 countries)
69	Why is Stresemann often considered to be a very successful Foreign Minister?	He was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize There were no uprisings between 1924 and 1928 Support for extremist groups dropped (Nazis got 3% of votes in 1928)
70	When were the 'Golden Years' of Weimar?	1924 - 1928
71	What new style of architecture was introduced in the Golden Years?	Bauhaus
72	How did women benefit from the Golden Years?	They could smoke, cut their hair short, go out with a chaperone and VOTE
73	Why were freedoms for women still limited?	They often didn't vote or voted in the same way as their husbands
74	What impact did artists like Otto Dix have on German art?	He created art that had political messages and highlighted the inequality between rich and poor
75	How did theatre change during the Golden Years of Weimar?	There were more shows that aimed to show the lives of ordinary people (such as the Threepenny Orchestra by Brecht)
76	Why was 1928-28 a Golden Age for German cinema?	German films were very technically advanced and actresses like Marlene Dietrich became very popular
77	How did music change during the Golden Years of Weimar?	Going to clubs became popular - 600 dance bands in Berlin Censorship restrictions were removed There was more freedom and experimentation Berlin became famous for its clubs
78	Who didn't approve of the Golden Age of Weimar? Why not?	Some Germans disapproved as they wanted to keep to traditional German values They thought that the Weimar culture was disgusting and that Germany was in moral decline The Church did not like the decline in morals

PART 2 Knowledge Quizzing GERMANY AND THE DEPRESSION

HISTORY P1AB GERMANY

79	In what year was the Wall Street Crash?	1929
80	What did the Wall Street Crash lead to?	The Great Depression
81	What were TWO economic consequence of the Depression? (BE SPECIFIC!)	Businesses closed down/went bankrupt - 50,000 German firms closed between 1929 and 1932 Farmers struggled - 18,000 farmers bankrupt Unemployment increased - 6 million unemployed by 1932 Wages decreased - wages fell by 30% in 1932
82	What were TWO social consequences of the Depression? (BE SPECIFIC!)	Crime increased - many of the unemployed/homeless were under 25 Homelessness increased Street violence increased The welfare system could not cope - unemployment benefit was cut by 60%
83	What was ONE political consequence of the Depression? (BE SPECIFIC!)	People who had been optimistic during Weimar's Golden Years were now reminded of hyperinflation and the issues of the early 1920s - the mood towards the government turned to anger and despair People began to look towards alternative, more extreme politics e.g. communism, Nazism
84	Why was the Weimar Government so unpopular during the Depression?	The coalition government was made up of a number of political parties who couldn't agree on how to tackle the Depression - leading to confusion and chaos - making Weimar look weak and ineffective
85	How did the Depression help raise the popularity of the Nazi Party?	As unemployment increased, so did support for extremists as people looked for alternatives to the Weimar Republic who promised jobs and better wages.
86	Why did fear of communism increase between 1930 and 1932? Who was particularly worried? Why?	The Communist Party gained popularity and people worried that communism might take over Germany German business owners and farmers were particularly worried that communism would mean they would lose their livelihood and so they began to vote for the Nazis who promised to stop communism
87	What was Mein Kampf?	The book Hitler wrote in prison detailing his ideology
88	What were TWO of the key ideas that Hitler wrote about in Mein Kampf?	Having one strong leader (no democracy) Aryans were the Master Race Defeat Communism Ignore the Treaty of Versailles Rebuild the army Unite all German speaking people under one Reich
89	Why did Hitler's beliefs and ideas appeal to people?	His ideas matched what many German people already believed and wanted (e.g. defeat communism, ignore the Treaty of Versailles) He reminded them of a better time when they had one leader (the Kaiser)
90	Hitler was very charismatic. What does this mean?	He was able to charm his audience and make people believe that he could save Germany
91	How did Hitler's speeches increase his appeal?	He was a very powerful and inspiring public speaker. He seemed able to identify with the people and give them hope.
92	What was the SS?	Hitler's personal bodyguard
93	Who was in charge of the SS?	Heinrich Himmler
	What was the SA?	The SA (storm troopers) were the Nazi's own private army - often known as the brownshirts.
	Who was in charge of the SA?	Ernst Rohm
96	Who was in the SA?	Former soldiers and the unemployed
97	How did the SA increase the appeal of the Nazis? (at least TWO reasons)	They brought discipline in a time of chaos - they were well organised and looked capable of bringing order back to Germany They helped the Nazis campaign and distributed propaganda leaflets They were violent and intimidated opposition - even disrupting meetings of other political parties People thought that the SA could protect Germany from communism
98	How did the Nazis campaign to increase their support?	They distributed propaganda leaflets They trained speakers (over 6000) to spread their ideology They made links with rich businessmen to help fund their campaigns
99	What were some of the Nazis key policies? (at least THREE)	Solve Germany's economic problems Increase prices paid for crops Support families Provide strong leadership Make Germany great again
100	Why were Nazi policies often vague and flexible?	They wanted to appeal to as many people as possible so they made sure that their promises appealed to a wide variety of groups (farmers, housewives, factory workers, businessmen)
101	What were the Nuremburg Rallies?	Huge organised gatherings of people (over 100,000) where Hitler spoke and the SA marched The Nazi flag was everywhere at the rallies
102	Who was Josef Goebbels?	The Nazi Minister of Culture (propaganda)
103	What is propaganda?	information (especially of a biased or misleading nature) used to promote a particular political cause or point of view.
104	What kinds of propaganda did Hitler use to increase his appeal and support?	Posters, speeches, leaflets
105	What were TWO of the key messages in Nazi propangda?	Hitler is a saviour Hitler provides hope for the future The Nazis are strong and organised The Nazis can protect Germany from communism The Nazis will help the unemployed and families
106	Why was Nazi propaganda effective? Why did it increase Nazi appeal?	Posters were everywhere and always ensured that they had a really strong message Poster appealed to a huge variety of people in society (from housewives to businessmen)

PART 2 Knowledge Quizzing GERMANY AND THE DEPRESSION

HISTORY P1AB GERMANY

107	How many seats did the Nazis have in the Weimar government in 1928?	12
108	By 1930, the Nazis were the _____ biggest political party in the Reichstag.	second
109	By 1932, the Nazis were the _____ political party in the Reichstag.	largest
110	What % of seats did the Nazis have by July 1932?	37%
111	How many seats did the Nazis have in the Weimar government in July 1932?	230
112	How were laws being passed in Germany by 1932?	The President was using Article 48 (emergency powers) to pass laws
113	What was opposition to the Nazis like by 1932?	Opposition was weak and divided (the communists and the socialists hated each other so would not work together against the Nazis) Opposition underestimated how much of a threat the Nazis actually were
114	Who was Brüning?	German Chancellor 1930 - May 1932 - unpopular as he reduced benefits for the unemployed
115	Who was von Hindenburg?	President of Germany 1925 - Aug 1934
116	Who was von Papen?	German Chancellor May - Nov 1932 - encouraged Hindenburg to appoint Hitler (as he thought they could control him)
117	Who was von Schleicher?	German Chancellor Dec - Jan 1932
118	What secret deal did von Papen and Hitler make?	That they would get rid of von Schleicher and form a new government with Hitler as Chancellor and von Papen as vice Chancellor
119	On what date did Hitler become Chancellor of Germany?	Jan-33
120	How did Hitler become Chancellor of Germany in January 1933?	Papen persuaded Hindenburg to make Hitler Chancellor (they thought they could control him)
121	What does 'Führer' mean?	Ultimate and total leader of Germany
122	Even though Hitler is Chancellor in Jan 1933, why is he still weak?	He could be removed by political opponents, Hindenburg, the army or voted out by the people
123	When was the Reichstag Fire?	27th February 1933
124	Who was blamed for the Reichstag Fire?	A Dutch communist called Marinus Van Der Lubbe
125	What was the immediate reaction to the Reichstag Fire?	Goebbels used it to spread anti-communist propaganda and arrest 4000 communist leaders
126	How did the Reichstag Fire help the Nazis? What did it lead to?	Hitler persuaded Hindenburg to use Article 48 to place Germany into a state of emergency - no freedom of speech or newspapers, the government could arrest without charge, property could be searched without permission, opponents could be arrested and imprisoned
127	What happened in the 5th March elections after the Reichstag Fire?	The Nazis used the fire to gain more support - they gained 44% of the vote - as a coalition with the National Party, they were now essentially controlling the Reichstag.
128	When was the Enabling Act?	24th March
129	What was the Enabling Act?	A law that would allow Hitler to pass laws without going through the Reichstag for four years
130	How many votes did the Enabling Act get?	444 votes to 94
131	What did the Nazis do to trade unions in May 1933?	They took over trade union offices and arrested leaders All trade unions were merged into one Nazi trade union - the DAF (German Labour Front)
132	What did the Nazis do to all other political parties in July 1933?	Banned them
133	When was the Night of the Long Knives?	29th June 1934
134	What was the Night of the Long Knives?	the Nazis eliminated the SA (his own army!)
135	Why did the Night of the Long Knives happen? (at least TWO reasons)	The SA were becoming too powerful (3 million members!) Other leading Nazis didn't like how powerful Rohm was The army hated the SA and Hitler needed the army's full support Rohm wanted a social revolution to bring equality The SA were mostly working men - Hitler didn't want to appeal too much to them and then turn rich businessmen away from the Nazis
136	What were the consequences of the Night of the Long Knives? (at least TWO)	Hitler gained the army's support Hitler's actions were popular - many Germans felt he had restored order The SS grew in power The rest of Germany saw how ruthless Hitler was - it sent a powerful message Hitler grew in confidence as no one opposed the NOTLK
137	What happened to Hindenburg in August 1934? Why was this significant?	He died so Hitler became Führer of Germany and commander in chief of the German army

PART 3 Knowledge Quizzing LIVING IN NAZI GERMANY

HISTORY P1AB GERMANY

138	Who was Hermann Goering?	Nazi Minister in charge of Germany economy and leader of the Four Year Plan
139	What were the two key aims of the Four Year Plan?	Rearmament – producing the weapons the German army would need to win a war. Self-sufficiency – to make sure Germany did not have to rely on imports from other countries and rely on their own resources.
140	What was one POSITIVE impact of the Four Year Plan?	1. The main priority was war; as a result military production increased and this created jobs. 2. Very high targets were set and achieved in industries like steel and explosives production. 3. Scientists found ways to make petrol from coal, artificial wool and cotton from pulped wood, make-up from flour and coffee from acorns. This meant they did not to trade with other countries.
141	What was one NEGATIVE impact of the Four Year Plan?	Targets were missed in key industries like oil production and raw materials were still needed by 1937.
142	What was RAD (The National Labour Service)?	A national programme to get men into work and reduce unemployment
143	How long did all men between 18-25 have to spend in the National Labour Service?	From 1935, it was compulsory for all men aged 18-25 to spend six months in the RAD.
144	Give TWO specific key facts about the work that was done in the National Labour Service	In 1939, 6 months compulsory labour was also extended to women. They were employed to dig drainage ditches on farms, plant trees and mend hedges. Works included building Autobahns (motorways) and public buildings such as the 1936 Olympic Stadium, and to work as groundskeepers. They lived in camps and wore uniforms. They were provided with free meals and low wages.
145	How did public works programmes (such as Autobahns) improve employment?	New motorways (autobahns) built to link Germany's towns/cities, as well as the construction of new schools, hospitals and other public buildings. 2000 miles of new motorways were built. 100,000 people were employed on the scheme. Helped create more jobs and improved facilities. The Nazis' spending on job creation schemes rose by nearly 20 billion marks during the 1930s.
146	How much money did the Nazis spend on employment schemes in the 1930s?	Nazi spending on job creation schemes rose by nearly 20 billion marks during the 1930s.
147	How much government spending went on rearmament after 1936?	From 1936, over 60% of government spending went on rearmament.
148	What is conscription? Who had to join?	Forcing men to join the army All men between 18-25 were forced to join
149	How many million soldiers were in the German army by 1938?	1.4 million (increased from 100,000 men under the Treaty of Versailles)
150	Who was taken off the unemployment register by the Nazis?	Women Jewish people Young people on RAD schemes Conscripted men
151	How did big business owners and huge factories benefit from Nazi economic policy?	The Nazis destroyed the power of trade unions, which meant they could keep wages low and increase working hours without workers protesting. Huge factories also benefitted from rearmament – Daimler-Benz made aeroplanes and production rose over 800%.
152	Why did small business owners lose out from Nazi economic policy?	They had to compete against larger firms so over 300,000 small businesses went bankrupt.
153	Give one POSITIVE impact that Nazi economic policy had on farmers	Positive EARLY in the regime Farmers had any existing debts cancelled and food prices went up. Between 1933 and 1936 farmers' incomes increased by 41%.
154	Give one NEGATIVE impact that Nazi economic policy had on farmers	Negative LATER in the regime After 1936 food prices were strictly controlled and there was a shortage of workers as they were needed in factories. There was also little investment in farm machinery as the priority was developing technology for the army.
155	What was the DAF?	The German Labour Front - Nazi run 'trade union' for all German workers
156	By 1939, how many male workers were 'officially' unemployed?	25,000 out of a workforce of 25 million
157	Give one POSITIVE impact that Nazi economic policy had on ordinary workers	1. By 1936 the average wage was ten times more than the unemployment pay received during the Depression. 2. the DAF created 'Strength Through Joy' which offered cheap holidays, sports and concerts. 3. There were 20 million members of the DAF by 1939 and they organised training courses for over 2.5 million workers 4. The DAF organised low cost food and new toilet facilities in workplaces 5. Beauty of Labour improved working conditions
158	Give one NEGATIVE impact that Nazi economic policy had on ordinary workers	1. All other trade unions were abolished so workers had very few rights 2. If workers did not do what they were told, they could be sent to labour camps 3. Some skilled men ended up in low skilled labour jobs 4. If you were not a member of the DAF, it was hard to find work
159	What does 'police state' mean?	a country where the authorities (police, army, secret police) are used to create fear and terror so that the government has total control.
160	Who was Heinrich Himmler?	1929 - Head of SS 1936 - Head of Police (including the Gestapo)
161	What was the Gestapo? What did they do?	The Nazi secret police force
162	What did the Gestapo do?	They spied on people they thought might be a threat. They had the power to arrest people without trial, torture them and imprison them in concentration camps. They targeted 'undesirables' - first political opponents and then Jews and other minorities
163	Why did German people believe that the Gestapo were everywhere?	They wore plain clothes so were difficult to identify. They relied heavily on informants who would pass on information to them and report people who they believed were 'anti-Nazi' which made it feel like they had a great deal of knowledge / information.
164	How many Gestapo were there in reality?	15,000 (for a population of 60 million people)

PART 3 Knowledge Quizzing LIVING IN NAZI GERMANY

HISTORY P1AB GERMANY

165	What was the SS?	Blackshirts - originally Hitler's personal bodyguard but gradually became the most feared organisation in Nazi Germany They were Aryan, strong, all and totally loyal to Hitler.
166	How many SS were there by 1939?	250,000
167	What were concentration camps?	Enormous prisons for anyone the Nazis deemed to be 'undesirable' Began with political opponents and then Jews and minorities
168	What were conditions like in concentration camps?	Brutal - hard labour every day, people could be held for any length of time, many died from malnutrition and disease
169	What were block leaders? What did they do?	Local control - each area of a town had a block leader who visited every home each week. They collected donations to the Nazi Party and checked up on residents. Block leaders wrote reports on residents which were shared with the Nazis - this report could affect whether a person got a job and an signs of disobedience were noted - even not being enthusiastic enough about Hitler's achievements.
170	How did the Nazis change the police and law courts?	Crimes by Nazis were ignored The police became a network of informers. Law courts and judges were all under Nazi control Laws with a punishment of the death penalty increased from 3 to 46
171	What is propaganda?	means used to spread information and ideas to influence people and their views.
172	What is indoctrination?	when you strongly convince someone to believe in certain ideologies (like brainwashing)
173	Give two key messages that the Nazis wanted to spread through propaganda	Hitler is a saviour Anti-Semitism Hatred for the Treaty of Versailles Ideal Aryan race - strength of Aryans Weaknesses of 'undesirables'
174	Who was Josef Goebbels?	Minister of Enlightenment and Culture (propaganda)
175	What is censorship?	tightly controlling (and removing) information - to ensure German people only heard, saw or read what the Nazis wanted them to.
176	How/why were Nazi rallies used for propaganda?	Used to present an image of order and control. They were used to give a dramatic impression of overwhelming power/unity. The rallies gave people a sense of belonging to a powerful movement that was achieving great things. They were attended by hundreds of thousands of people so were a great platform to spread Nazi propaganda
177	How / why were newspapers used for propaganda?	Newspapers were all Nazi owned All news stories were checked and censored Newspapers were encouraged to print negative stories about opponents and Jews
178	How / why were radios used for propaganda?	All radio stations were placed under Nazi control. Cheap radios were made on a huge scale and by 1939, about 70% of German families owned one of these radios. They were also installed in cafes, factories, schools and offices. Loudspeakers were also placed in the streets so the Nazi message was heard by as many people as possible, and as much as possible. Listening to foreign radio stations was banned
179	How / why was film used for propaganda?	Cinema was very popular so Goebbels produced films that showed Hitler as a hero / Jews as the enemy
180	What happened to some books/art/music in Nazi Germany?	They were destroyed or banned as they carried unwanted messages 20,000 books were burned 5,000 painting were burned
181	What books/art/music was approved of by the Nazis?	Anything that promoted Hitler/the Aryan race/the military Anything that was traditional - German folk music
182	How / why was architecture used for propaganda?	Hitler believed he could influence people's lives by ensuring buildings were designed in a 'monumental style' to show Nazi power. Homes were designed in a traditional style - from stone and wood, with shutters and pitched roofs.
183	Why were the 1936 Berlin Olympics important propaganda for the Nazis?	Hitler and Goebbels used this as an opportunity to show the strength, pride and power of Germany under the Nazis. Outward signs of Jewish persecution were all removed for the event.
184	What does Anti-Semitism mean?	Hostility, prejudice or hatred towards Jewish people.
185	What does persecution mean?	Hostility, prejudice, hatred and poor treatment due to your religion, race, political beliefs
186	What is an Aryan?	Commonly used by the Nazis to refer to white, strong members of Germany.
187	What does it mean when you dehumanise someone?	to take away the positive qualities that humans are entitled to.
188	What is a scapegoat?	a person who is blamed for the mistakes or faults of others, especially for reasons of convenience.
189	What does Herrenvolk mean?	'Master race' - The idea of being ruled by the 'best' people in society.
190	What does Untermenschen mean?	'Racial inferiority' - When someone is lesser than you due to their race.
191	What does Lebensunwertes mean?	'Life unworthy of life' - The belief that some people are not good enough to deserve to live.

PART 3 Knowledge Quizzing

LIVING IN NAZI GERMANY

HISTORY

P1AB GERMANY

192	What was Kristallnacht?	Night of Broken Glass, 12 th November 1938.
193	Give one way that Jewish people were persecuted in 1933.	Increased anti-Semitic propaganda Jewish people were banned from government jobs, inheriting land and serving in the army All Jewish civil servants and teachers were sacked The Nazis encouraged people to boycott Jewish businesses
194	What jobs were Jewish people not allowed to have after 1934?	Doctors or lawyers
195	What were the Nuremburg Laws?	Laws that were introduced from 1935 onwards to progressively dehumanise Jewish people
196	When and what was the Reich Law on Citizenship?	1935 - Jews are no longer German citizens
197	When and what was the Reich Law for the Protection of German Blood and Honour?	1935 - marriage between Jewish people and non-Jewish people was banned
198	What did the Nazis do to help identify Jewish people from 1938 onwards?	Wear the Star of David J stamped in their passport Had to carry an identity card Had to change their middle name to Sarah or Israel
199	What happened on Kristallnacht?	Gangs smashed and burned Jewish property and attacked Jews. 814 shops, 171 homes and 191 synagogues were destroyed. Goebbels said Jews had 'brought it on themselves'. Jews were fined one billion marks to pay for the damages. 20,000 Jews were then sent to concentration camps
200	What was the Einsatzgruppen?	Murder groups - rounded up Jewish people and shot them
201	What was the Final Solution?	Plan made at the Wannsee Conference in 1942 to mass exterminate all Jewish people using gas
202	What was Auschwitz?	One of six death camps created by the Nazis for the Final Solution
203	What is the mass genocide in Germany between 1933 and 1945 known as?	The Holocaust
204	Approximately how many Jewish people were killed during the Holocaust?	Over 6 million
205	How were political opponents persecuted?	They were the first group to be systematically arrested and sent to concentration camps, from July 1933.
206	How were homosexuals persecuted?	Many gay men were arrested – 8,000 arrests had occurred by 1938. Many were sent to concentration camps. The Nazis encouraged voluntary castration.
207	How were disabled people persecuted?	The Law for the Prevention of Hereditary Diseased Offspring of 1933 began compulsory sterilisation of certain groups; mental illness, learning disabilities, deafness and epilepsy. By 1939, 400,000 people had been sterilised. The T4 Programme euthanised babies and children with severe mental and physical disabilities.
208	Give one reason why more people didn't resist the Nazis	1. Many Germans admired and trusted Hitler and were prepared to tolerate the police state in return for jobs, foreign policy success and anti-Communism. 2. Fear - people feared losing their jobs, businesses etc. if they opposed. 3. Many Germans contributed to the Final Solution (e.g. train drivers) 4. Propaganda and censorship meant that some Germans didn't know the full extent of persecution
209	What was the Third Reich / 1000 Year Reich?	The idea that Nazi Germany would be the 3rd great kingdom and would last for 1000 years
210	What did the Nazis want boys to become?	Strong, loyal, obedient, brave soldiers
211	What did the Nazis want girls to become?	Strong, fertile, loyal and obedient wives and mothers
212	What did the Nazis do to school teachers?	Any teachers who refused to teach what the Nazis wanted were sacked 20% of teachers were sacked in 1933
213	What was the Teacher League?	Created in 1929 to provide training for all teachers on Nazi ideology By 1937, 97% of teachers were members
214	What were classrooms like in Nazi Germany?	Pupils greeted their teachers with a Nazi salute Classrooms were covered in photographs of Hitler and swastika flags
215	Give one way that the Nazis changed the school curriculum	Huge increase in PE lessons - three doubles per week Girls taught homemaking Boxing was compulsory for boys History lessons taught about the unfair ToV, the rise of Nazis and the evil of Jews and communists Biology lessons taught about the master race and how other races were inferior Maths lessons - pupils were given sums that put across key Nazi ideas (e.g. how much money a disabled person costs the state)
216	What was the Hitler Youth?	An after school youth programme for German boys and girls
217	How many members were in the Hitler Youth by 1933?	55,000
218	What percentage of young people were members of the Hitler Youth by 1939?	80%
219	Give two things that boys would do in the Hitler Youth	Physical activities - running, cycling, hiking, jumping Listening to Nazi ideology Learning military skills - how to use a gun, tactics etc. Camping
220	Give two things that girls would do in the Hitler Youth	Cooking, sewing, walking and hiking, camping
221	Why was the Hitler Youth a powerful propaganda tool for the Nazis?	Young people are easily influenced and indoctrinated Young people often spent more time with Nazis than they did with their own parents - membership was compulsory A minority of young people even exposed their own parents to the Nazis
222	Why did some members of the Hitler Youth have a POSITIVE viewpoint of it?	Poorer children enjoyed the opportunities (e.g. camping/holidays) Some enjoyed all of the sports and activities offered Some enjoyed the sense of friendship and community Children who were promoted to leaders tended to enjoy it
223	Why did some members of the Hitler Youth have a NEGATIVE viewpoint of it?	Many children felt estranged from their parents as they were more loyal to the Nazis than their own family Some young people's enthusiasm decreased over time - started well but became too linked to war and was too cruel/strict Some young people refused to join at all and set up alternative groups (e.g. Edelweiss Pirates)


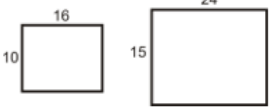
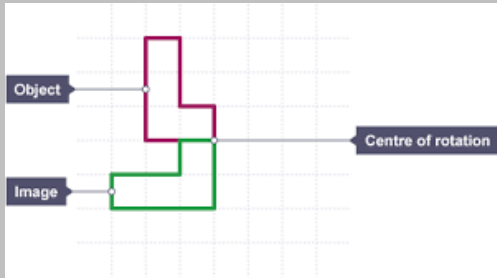
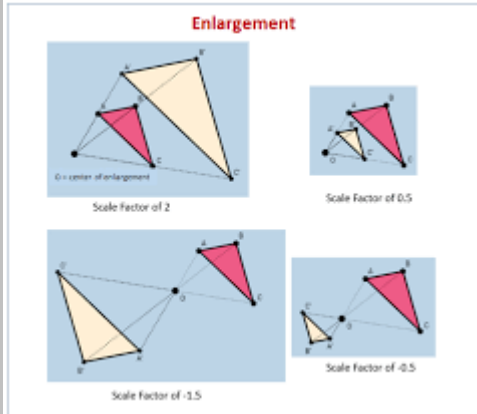
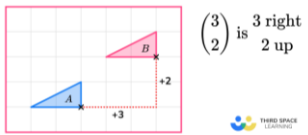
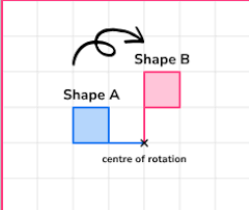
PART 3 Knowledge Quizzing

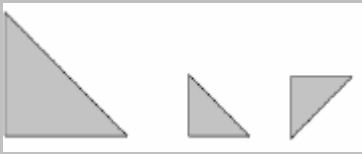
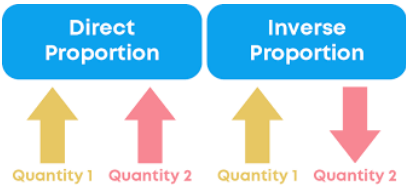
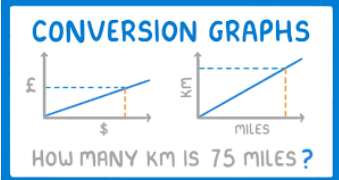

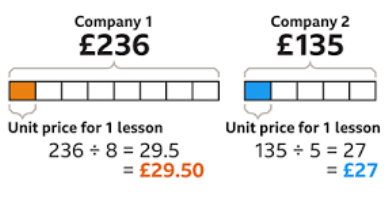
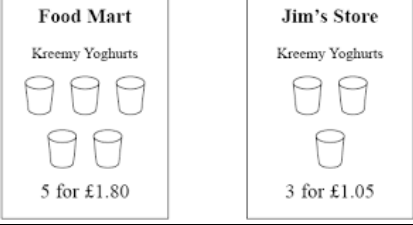
LIVING IN NAZI GERMANY




HISTORY

P1AB GERMANY

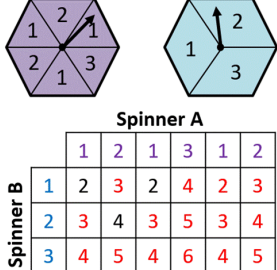
224	What did the Nazis want women to do in Germany?	Stay at home and raise children
225	What was Kinder, Kirche and Küche	Children, Church and Cooking - what a woman should focus on in Nazi Germany
226	What was the Law for the Encouragement of Marriage?	loaned young couples money to marry and set up home Loan did not have to be paid back if you then had 4 or more children
227	What was the Motherhood Cross?	A reward for German women for having children – women were awarded a gold medal for 8+ children
228	What was the Lebensborn Programme?	unmarried mothers could go to a hostel and have children impregnated by SS officers. Aryan women were told they had a duty to produce racially pure children to create a new generation of Aryan Germans.
229	What did the Nazis want a 'typical' German woman to be?	Traditional wife and mother Produce healthy, strong Aryan children Wear skirts, no smoking, no dyed hair
230	Why did the role of a woman change from 1939?	There was a labour shortage so many went back to work to contribute to the war effort
231	Give one economic impact for women in Nazi Germany	Many women lost their careers so that they had worked hard for Many female doctors, teachers, lawyers and judges were sacked. Women in work were persuaded or pressured by propaganda and monetary incentives to quit There were no women employed in the legal system by 1936.
232	Give one social impact for women in Nazi Germany	Women were expected to emulate traditional German peasant fashions: plain clothing and traditional long dresses or skirts, hair in buns or plaits and flat shoes. Trousers or high heels were discouraged. In many cities, women were banned from smoking because it was considered 'unladylike'. Slimming was discouraged as it might make it harder to get pregnant.
233	Give one political impact for women in Nazi Germany.	No female members of the Reichstag were allowed. Women played no role in decision making. The number of women allowed to go to university was restricted to 10% and employers were encourage to employ men in favour of women.
234	Give one positive impact of the Nazis policies towards women - which women benefitted?	the number of women employed actually rose by 2.4 million. As the German economy grew, more women were needed in the workplace. The birth rate increased from around 970,000 babies a year in 1933 to 1,413,000 in 1939 infant mortality fell between 1933-1936
235	Give one negative impact of Nazi policies towards women - which women did NOT benefit?	Thousands of women were prevented from starting a career. When Germany started the Second World War, many of the policies towards women had to be reversed as there was a desperate shortage of labour and they needed women to work. From 1939, unmarried women under 25 had to do a period of compulsory agricultural labour. Thousands of women were needed to work in the factories for the war effort. They had to take on the joint roles of mother and main wage earner.
236	Why didn't Hitler close/ban all churches in Nazi Germany?	the churches because they had huge support from the German people. Many Germans had strong Christian beliefs and regularly attended church - Hitler could not afford to alienate a large number of Christians
237	What was the Concordat with the Catholic Church?	An agreement that stated that if the Church did not interfere in politics, the Church would be independent - free from Nazi control
238	What happened to the Concordat over time?	Hitler broke it - Catholic priests were intimidated and arrested if they criticised Nazi policies
239	What was the Reich Church?	An attempt by the Nazis to join together all Protestant churches under their control
240	Who led the Reich Church?	A committed Nazi called Bishop Ludwig Muller
241	What was the Confessional Church?	An anti-Nazi church set up to challenge Nazi church involvement
242	Why didn't the Church speak out more against the Nazis?	Most opposition came from individuals rather than collectively as a whole
243	Who was Bishop von Galen? What did he do?	Catholic Bishop - moderately successful opposition to the Nazis Criticised Nazi race policies in his sermons He was so popular that the Nazis didn't dare remove him In 1941, his speeches against the T4 euthanasia policy stopped the policy from going ahead
244	Who was Dietrich Bonhoeffer? What did he do?	Opposed Nazis - said Nazism was anti-Christian Believed that true religion involved standing up to evil government He chose to stay in Germany when he could've escaped to Britain He was arrested and executed in 1945
245	Who was Martin Niemoller?	WWI hero Openly criticised the Nazis and set up the Confessional Church (non-Nazi Church) Arrested and sent to a concentration camp in 1937
246	Give one way that Jewish people resisted the Nazis.	1. Some fought against Nazi rule, escaped and ran away and formed resistance groups who blew up railway lines used by the Germans - they were rare and brutally hunted by the Nazis 2. Warsaw Ghetto Uprising - Jews resisted for 43 days before Nazis regained control - whole ghetto was set on fire 3. Occasional rebellions in death camps - e.g. 150 prisoners escaped and 15 guards killed in Treblinka in 1943.
247	Who were the White Rose? What did they do to resist the Nazis?	student group set up by brother and sister Hans and Sophie Scholl and their Professor Kurt Huber at Munich University in 1941 They issued 6 leaflets trying to make people aware of horrific Nazi acts and gain support. They left these leaflets anonymously in public places, on doorsteps and in mailboxes. They painted anti-Nazi messages on buildings during the night.
248	What happened to the White Rose in 1943?	They were arrested by the Gestapo and they were tortured and hanged. Sophie Scholl had her leg broken during Gestapo interrogation and she had to limp to the scaffold.
249	Who were the Edelweiss Pirates? How did they resist the Nazis?	Groups of young people who resisted joining the Hitler Youth They would beat up Hitler Youth patrols During WWII, they distributed anti-Nazi propaganda
250	What happened to 12 Edelweiss Pirates in 1944?	They were publicly hanged by the Gestapo
251	What was the July Bomb Plot in 1944?	A plan to assassinate Hitler by some of his own military leaders The plot failed and the leaders were executed
252	How were German lives affected by rationing during WWII?	Shortages of coal Water rationed to 2 days per week German diets became very simple - bread, potatoes, one egg per week
253	How were German lives affected by area bombing during WWII?	German city Lubeck destroyed 3.6 million homes destroyed 7.5 million people made homeless 500,000 German civilians killed Despite all of this, it didn't lead to organised resistance against the Nazis
254	How were German lives affected in terms of homelessness/refugees during WWII?	Millions were made homeless Some walked hundreds of miles to try to reach safety (over 500,000 died on the journey West) 8 million slave labourers by the end of the war 11 million ethnic Germans were refugees by the end of the war
255	How were German lives affected in terms of employment during WWII?	Albert Speer began organising for total war in 1942 Everything that didn't contribute to war stopped (e.g. clothes shops) Women entered the workforce in large numbers - in factories and medicine

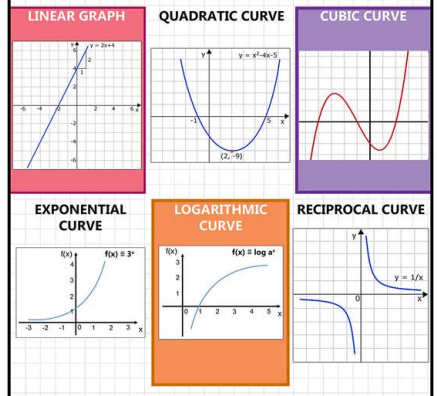
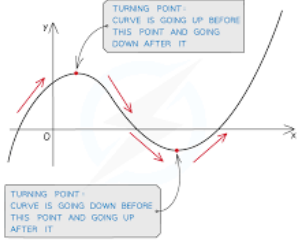
69	Similar shapes	Shapes are similar if they are the same shape but different sizes.	
70	Scale Factor	The ratio of corresponding sides of two similar shapes.	 <p style="text-align: center;">Scale Factor = $15 \div 10 = 1.5$</p>
71	Object	The original shape	
72	Image	The transformed (new) shape	
73	Enlargement	A transformation that changes the size of a shape	
74	Center of enlargement	The point that an enlargement originates from	
75	Fractional scale factor	A scale factor that makes a shape smaller	
76	Vector	A way to represent horizontal and vertical movement of a shape	
77	Rotation	A transformation that rotates a shape	

78	Similar	Shapes are similar if they are the same shape but different sizes.	
79	Direct proportion	As one amount increases, the other increases at the same rate	
80	Inverse proportion	As one amount increases, the other amount decreases	
81	Conversion graph	A graph that converts one unit/measurement/currency into another	
82	Unitary method	A method of solving problems by finding the value of 1 unit	
83	Unit cost	The cost per one unit	
84	Best buy/ best value	The item that is worth more for less	
85	Ratio	A comparison of parts to parts	
86	Multiplier	A decimal that is equivalent to a percentage used in calculations	

87	Gradient	The steepness of a line	
88	Speed	Distance divided by time	<div data-bbox="991 259 1513 638" style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 5px;"> <p>Compound measures</p> <p>Speed $speed = \frac{distance}{time}$</p>  <p>Density $density = \frac{mass}{volume}$</p>  <p>Pressure $pressure = \frac{force}{area}$</p>  </div>
89	Density	Mass divided by volume	
90	Pressure	Force divided by area	

91	Outcome	The result of an event that depends on probability																					
92	Event	A result of an experiment																					
93	Probability	A numeric representation of the likelihood of an event happening																					
94	Relative Frequency	The proportion from a specific data set																					
95	Independent events	Events where the outcome of the first does not affect the outcome of the second																					
96	Tree Diagram	A way to show possible outcomes of consecutive events																					
97	Venn Diagram	A way to visualize relationships between groups of things	<p style="text-align: center;">Venn Diagram Symbols</p> <div style="display: flex; flex-direction: column; align-items: center;"> <div style="display: flex; align-items: center; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <div style="margin-left: 10px;"> <p>$A \cup B$</p> <p>A union B</p> <p>Elements that belong to either A or B or both.</p> </div> </div> <div style="display: flex; align-items: center; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <div style="margin-left: 10px;"> <p>$A \cap B$</p> <p>A intersect B</p> <p>Elements that belong to both A and B.</p> </div> </div> <div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="margin-left: 10px;"> <p>A'</p> <p>A complement</p> <p>Elements that don't belong to A.</p> </div> </div> </div>																				
98	Intersection	The group that contains only the items in two or more sets																					
99	Union	The group that contains all items in two or more sets																					
100	Complement	The group that contains everything not in a specific set																					
101	Two-Way Table	A way to organise data from two, distinct categories	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; text-align: center;"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Baseball</th> <th>Basketball</th> <th>Football</th> <th>Total</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <th>Male</th> <td>13</td> <td>15</td> <td>20</td> <td>48</td> </tr> <tr> <th>Female</th> <td>23</td> <td>16</td> <td>13</td> <td>52</td> </tr> <tr> <th>Total</th> <td>36</td> <td>31</td> <td>33</td> <td>100</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Baseball	Basketball	Football	Total	Male	13	15	20	48	Female	23	16	13	52	Total	36	31	33	100
	Baseball	Basketball	Football	Total																			
Male	13	15	20	48																			
Female	23	16	13	52																			
Total	36	31	33	100																			

102	Sample Space	A way to show all possible outcomes	 <table border="1" data-bbox="1141 235 1391 376"> <tr> <td colspan="2"></td> <td colspan="6">Spinner A</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="2"></td> <td>1</td><td>2</td><td>1</td><td>3</td><td>1</td><td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td rowspan="3">Spinner B</td> <td>1</td> <td>2</td><td>3</td><td>2</td><td>4</td><td>2</td><td>3</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2</td> <td>3</td><td>4</td><td>3</td><td>5</td><td>3</td><td>4</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3</td> <td>4</td><td>5</td><td>4</td><td>6</td><td>4</td><td>5</td> </tr> </table>			Spinner A								1	2	1	3	1	2	Spinner B	1	2	3	2	4	2	3	2	3	4	3	5	3	4	3	4	5	4	6	4	5
		Spinner A																																							
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	3	4	5	4	6	4	5																																		

Maths: Year 9		Unit 16: Algebraic Representation	Term: Summer Half Term 2
103	Quadratic	A curved graph of an equation with an x^2 term	
104	Reciprocal	A graph of an equation of the form $y = \frac{1}{x}$	
105	Exponential	A graph of an equation of the form $y = ab^x$	
106	Piece-wise	A graph that is made up of pieces of other graphs	
107	Simultaneous	Graphs that are plotted together and have an intersection	
108	Vertex/ Turning Point	The minimum or maximum point on a curved graph	
109	Point of intersection	A point where two or more graphs cross each other	

Personal Exercise Planning

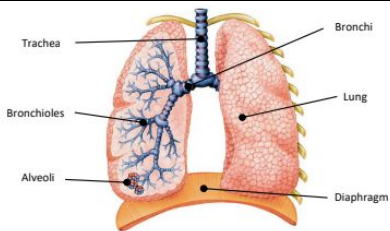
Principles of Training		
1	Specificity	The particular requirements of an activity, sport or position
2	Progressive Overload	Gradually increasing the amount of overload to improve fitness without injury.
3	Reversibility	Gradually losing fitness instead of progressing or remaining at the current level.
4	Training Thresholds	A safe and effective Heart Rate to train at to improve aerobic or anaerobic fitness.
5	Individual Needs	Meeting the needs of the person. Need to consider current fitness levels.
6	Frequency	How many times a week someone trains.
7	Intensity	Measures how hard someone trains. This could be measured by heart rate or the weight lifted.
8	Time	How long each training sessions lasts for.
9	Type	Method of training to achieve specific goals.

Methods of Training

Methods of Training		
1	Continuous	Must be at least 20 minutes of steady training. Your Heart Rate will be at 60% of your maximum Heart Rate (Aerobic Training).
2	Fartlek	'Speed play'. It is a combination of fast and slow running and lasts at least 20 minutes. It improves Cardiovascular Fitness.
3	Circuit	8-10 stations of at least 30 seconds of work and 30 seconds rest. It can improve Muscular Endurance or Cardiovascular Fitness
4	Interval	High intensity periods of work, followed by periods of rest.
5	Plyometrics	Exercises when muscles exert maximum force in short intervals. This improves Power.
6	Weight/Resistance Training	Progressive exercises in the form of the weight lifted, the exercise completed or the number of reps and sets.

Respiratory System

Key Words		
1	Vital Capacity	The greatest volume of air that can be expelled from the lungs after the deepest breath possible
2	Tidal volume	The amount of air breathed in each breath
3	Breathing rate	The number of breaths per minute
4	Breathing depth	The amount of air inhaled or exhaled in a single breath
5	Effects on exercise on respiratory system	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Increase tidal volume 2. Increase breathing rate 3. Increase breathing depth
6	Respiratory system	The network of organs and tissues that help you breathe
7	Minute ventilation	The minute ventilation is the amount of air a person breaths in a minute



Cardiovascular System

Key Words		
1	Heart rate	The number of times the heart beats per minute.
2	Stroke Volume	The volume of blood pumped from the left ventricle per beat.
3	Cardiac output	Heart rate x Stroke volume.
4	Cardiovascular	Relating to the heart, blood and blood vessels.
5	Red blood cells/Haemoglobin	Carry oxygen from the lungs to the working muscles.
6	Function on the cardiovascular system	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Transport O₂ and CO₂ around the body 2. Regulate body temperature 3. Clott open wounds
8	Resting heart rate	How many times your heart beats at rest.
9	Working heart rate	How many times your heart beats during exercise.
10	Heart rate recovery	How quickly your heart can return to resting after exercise.
11	Maximum heart rate	The greatest number of beats your heart can possibly reach (220 - Age).

Considerations in research design

Hypothesis and variables		Sampling	Ethical issues	Reliability	Validity
Start with a theory of behaviour, tested using objective research methods Aim – general statement explaining the purpose of the study		Target population – group of people being studied Sample is chosen from the target population and should represent	Conflict between p’s rights and well-being and the need to gain valuable results	Measure of consistency	Related to whether a result is a true reflection of ‘real-world’ behaviour
study Variables – anything that can change or vary IV – changed DV – measured Operationalisation – making variables clearly defined and measurable		target population Sampling methods aim to avoid bias Random sampling – each person has an equal chance of being selected, all people in the target population put in a hat or random name generator	Informed consent – p’s should be told the purpose of research and that they can leave at any time Deception – p’s should not be misled about the aims, mild deception can be justified Privacy – p’s have the right to control	Quantitative methods – tend to be most reliable. Lab exp’s – controlled and easy to replicate Interviews/ questionnaires – same person should answer the q’s in the same way, closed questions better for	Sampling methods – sample may not represent target population. Opportunity sample – lowest in representativeness, high in stratified sampling Experimental design – Repeated measures – order effects challenge
Hypotheses – clear testable, precise statement Alternative hypothesis – predicts relationship between variables Null – predicts no relationship		Evaluation - no bias as everyone has equal chance, takes time as need all members of the target population, sample may still not represent target pop Opportunity sampling – taking the people who happen to be there Evaluation – quick and cheap, yet only represents the	information about themselves Confidentiality – personal data must be protected and respected Ways of dealing with ethical issues BPS guidelines – which all professional	this Observations - one observer should produce same observations if repeated or two observers (interobserver reliability) Qualitative methods – less reliable Case	validity, overcome by counterbalancing Independent groups – p’s variables challenge validity, overcome by random allocation Quantitative methods Lab exp – task, setting, participant awareness
Extraneous variables – unwanted variables that could affect the DV Research procedures Instructions to p’s – all p’s must be given the same info		population from which it was drawn Systematic sampling – selecting every nth person from a list of the target population Evaluation – avoids researcher bias, may end up with an	psychologists must follow Dealing with informed consent – p’s (guardians) sign a form Dealing with deception and protection from harm – full debrief at the end to	studies and unstructured interviews – difficult to repeat in the same way	challenge validity, high control. Field exp – task and control challenge validity, more natural Methods producing numerical data lack validity as they reduce behaviour to a score
Standardised procedures – exact same methods, to try and control EV’s Randomisation – using chance when designing a study to control the effects of bias		unrepresentative sample Stratified sampling – selecting p’s in the proportion to frequency in the target population Evaluation – most representative, very time-consuming to sort sub-groups	reduce distress Dealing with privacy and confidentiality – p’s should be anonymous		Qualitative methods – case studies have greater validity as they give a deeper insight into behaviour Difficult to analyse which reduces validity
Quantitative data – numbers but can measure through thoughts and feelings Qualitative data – words but can be turned to numbers when counting Primary data – obtained first hand	Easy to analyse and draw conclusions, lacks depth More depth and detail, difficult to analyse and summarise Suits the aims of the research, takes time and effort	Range – spread of data, arrange data in order and subtract lowest from highest score Mean – mathematical average, add up scores and divide by the number of scores Median – middle value, data put in order from lowest to highest	Easy to calculate, can be distorted by extreme scores Uses all data so is the most sensitive measure, can be distorted by extreme values Not effected by extreme scores, less sensitive than the mean to variation in values	Scatter diagrams – for correlations Frequency tables – way to organise data in rows and columns, shows the number of times something has occurred Frequency diagrams – Histogram – continuous categories, no spaces between bars Bar chart – bars in any order Normal distribution – symmetrical spread	Decimals Fractions – reduced to simplest form Ratios – way to express fractions 8:4 Percentages – fractions out of 100 Mean – add up scores and divide by number of scores Standard form – mathematical shorthand to represent very large or small numbers Significant figures – two significant figures 32,462 = 32,000 Estimate results – rough calculation

Secondary data – data from other studies of government stats	Easy and convenient to use, may not be fit for what is investigated	Mode – most common score(s)	Very easy to calculate, can be unrepresentative	forms a bell shape with mean, median and mode at peak	
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Quantitative and qualitative research methods

Method	Description	Strengths	Weaknesses
Correlations	Show how things are linked together, associations Co-variables – correlations are quantitative, continuous numerical data Scatter diagrams used to plot Positive – as one variable increases so does the other Negative – as one variable increases the other decreases Zero – no relationship	Good starting point for research Can be used to investigate curvilinear relationships	Does not show cause and effect No controls of EV's so conclusions drawn may be wrong
Experiments	Look at a measureable change in the DV caused by a change to the IV		
	Lab experiments – high control over what happens, takes place in a lab	EV's can be controlled, so cause and effect can be established Used of standardised procedures permits replication, can demonstrate validity	Behaviour in a lab is less normal so difficult to generalise P's may change their behaviour because they are aware they are being watched
	Field experiments – take place in a natural setting, IV manipulated by experimenter	More realistic than lab exp's as in a natural environment Can use standardised procedures so some control	May lose control of EV's so difficult to show cause and effect Ethical issues because p's not aware of the study
	Natural experiments - natural or lab setting, IV is not changed by the experimenter it varies naturally e.g. age, race	May have high validity because of real-world variables Can standardise procedures so some control over EV	Few opportunities to do this kind of research as behaviours may be rare May be EV's because p's not randomly allocated to conditions
Experimental design	The different ways p's can be organised in relation to IVs/conditions of the exp		
	Independent groups – 2 groups, different p's in each condition	Order effects not a problem because p's only do the experiment once	Different p's in each group, participant variables can act as EVs To deal with participant variables, try to allocate p's to conditions using chance or systematic method
	Repeated measures – 1 group of p's which do both conditions	No participant variables, fewer p's needed so less expensive	Order effects reduce validity To deal with order effects, use counterbalancing so half the p's do condition A first and then conditions B, the others do B and then A
	Matched pairs – p's tested on variables relevant to the study, p's then matched to and one member of each pair goes in each condition	No order effects, fewer participant variables	Takes time to match participants, doesn't control all participant variables
Interviews	Face to face, real-time contact, though also on phone / text Structured – interviewer reads list of questions, can have prepared follow-up questions Unstructured – some questions prepared before, new questions created depending on what interviewee says Semi-structured – some questions decided before but follow-up questions emerge	Produce lots of information Insight gained into thoughts / feelings	Data can be difficult to analyse People may be uncomfortable talking face to face
Questionnaires	Prepared list of questions which can be answered in writing, over the phone, internet etc. Open questions – tend to produce qualitative data Closed questions have a fixed range of answers, e.g. rating scales, yes/no etc.	Can gather lots of information from many people Easy to analyse as often used closed questions	Social desirability bias Questions may be leading so lack validity

Case studies	<p>An in-depth investigation of an individual, group, event or institution</p> <p>Qualitative method – collect information about people’s experiences in words. May have quantitative data e.g. IQ scores</p> <p>Longitudinal – often carried out over a long period of time so can see how behaviour changes, may also collect retrospective case history</p>	<p>Research lacks specific aims so researcher more openminded</p> <p>Best way of studying rare behaviours</p>	<p>Focus on one individual or event, so often cannot be generalised</p> <p>Subjective interpretation of events</p>
Observations	<p>Researcher watches or listens to ps’ and records data</p> <p>Natural vs controlled – natural (where it would normally occur), controlled (researcher manipulates env)</p> <p>Covert vs overt – covert (under cover so p’s not aware) overt (p’s told in advance)</p> <p>Participant vs non-participant – participant (researcher part of the group), non-participant (researcher remains separate)</p> <p>Categories of behaviour – target behaviour broken into separate observable categories</p> <p>Interobserver reliability – two researchers should watch the behaviour at the same time, record and the correlate behaviour</p>	<p>Greater validity because based on what people do</p> <p>Real –life behaviour when p’s not aware of being observed</p>	<p>Ethical issues as can’t gain consent if observing in a public place</p> <p>Observer bias – observer’s expectations affect validity</p>

Name: _____

Religious Studies GCSE

Definitions and Teachings Knowledge Organiser

Thematic Paper

Theme A: Relationships and Families

Religious Teachings

	Topic	Beliefs	Quotation
Teaching 1	Homosexual Relationships	Some Christians will be firmly against same sex relationships. Others will be more tolerant as they believe all people should be loved.	Men who have sex with men will not inherit the kingdom of God. - Bible
Teaching 2	Homosexual Relationships	There are clear teachings in the Qur'an that same sex relationships are wrong. The purpose of a relationship for Muslims is to be married and start a family.	Must you lust after males and abandon the wives that God has created for you? You are exceeding all bounds. - Qur'an
Teaching 3	The purpose of families	The expression of love and commitment within a marriage is like the love Jesus has for his followers.	Husbands, love your wives, just as Christ loved the Church. - Bible
Teaching 4	The purpose of families	Parents have a duty to protect their children and to raise them properly, and children must respect their parents.	Honour your children and protect their manners. - Hadith
Teaching 5	Sex outside marriage	Marriage is a sacred vow and an important commitment made before God, so adultery is wrong.	You shall not commit adultery. - Bible
Teaching 6	Sex outside marriage	Sex should only take place within marriage so adultery is always wrong.	Do not go anywhere near adultery: it is an outrage, and an evil path. - Qur'an
Teaching 7	Contraception	Catholics are against all artificial forms of contraception (see below). Some other Christians may approve of its use as part of a loving relationship.	Every sexual act should have the possibility of creating new life. - teaching of the Roman Catholic Church
Teaching 8	Contraception	The teaching below is used to argue that contraception is allowed to make life easier.	God wishes to lighten your burden; man was created weak. - Qur'an
Teaching 9	Marriage	Marriage is a sacrament in the Catholic Church and is an important commitment which should be for life (see below). Most Christians believe you should be married before starting a family.	For better, for worse, for richer, for poorer, in sickness and in health, to love and to cherish, til death do us part. - Church of England marriage vows
Teaching 10	Marriage	All Muslims should plan to marry and to start a family. They should aim to raise their children as good Muslims.	There is no institution more beloved and dearer to God than marriage. - Hadith
Teaching 11	Divorce and Remarriage	Many Christians will be against divorce and remarriage (see below). However other Christians may now accept this as part of modern life.	Anyone who divorces his wife and marries another women commits adultery against her. - Jesus
Teaching 12	Divorce and Remarriage	Divorce is permitted but it should be the last divorce. There are teachings that divorce displeases Allah.	Divorce is permitted but it should be the last divorce. There are teachings that divorce displeases Allah.
Teaching 13	Gender Equality	There are teachings which suggest that man should rule over women but many Christians would see these as old-fashioned.	To the woman he said "your husband ...will rule over you" - Genesis

			God created mankind in his own image, male and female he created them. - Genesis
Teaching 14	Gender Equality	All humans are created equally by God and all will be judged equally. Men and women are equally important, although they may have different roles.	Men and women have the same religious and moral responsibilities, and will be rewarded by God for good deeds - Qur'an

Definitions

D1	Cohabitation	A couple living together without being married/in civil partnership.	D10	Gender prejudice	Negative thoughts, feelings or beliefs about a person or group based on their gender.
D2	Compassion	Sympathy and concern for the suffering of others.	D11	Heterosexuality	Being physically/sexually attracted to persons of the opposite gender.
D3	Contraception	Precautions taken to prevent pregnancy and to protect against contracting or transmitting STIs (sexually transmitted infections).	D12	Homosexuality	Being physically/sexually attracted to persons of the same gender.
D4	Divorce	Legal ending of a marriage.	D13	Nuclear family	Family unit made up of two parents and their child(ren).
D5	Extended family	Family unit comprising two parents and their children, but also grandparents, cousins etc.	D14	Polygamy	The practice of having multiple spouses (wives and/or husbands).
D6	Family planning	Planning when to have a family and how big a family to have by use of birth control practices and/or contraception.	D15	Procreation	Having a child; seen as a duty in many religions.
D7	Gender discrimination	Acting on prejudices against someone because of their gender.	D16	Remarriage	Marriage for the second time, after divorce ending an earlier marriage.
D8	Gender equality	Belief that all genders have equal status and value, so	D17	Vows	Promises made during a marriage ceremony.

		discrimination against any is wrong.			
D9	Gender prejudice	Negative thoughts, feelings or beliefs about a person or group based on their gender.			

Theme B: Religion and Life

Religious Teachings

	Topic	Beliefs	Quotation
Teaching 15	Origins of the Universe	Fundamentalist Christians believe the Genesis creation account is literally true. Liberal Christians believe the creation story is a myth, or symbolic.	"In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth" – Genesis (Bible)
Teaching 16	Origins of the Universe	Muslims believe God made the universe from nothing. Some Muslims believe the account of creation in the Qur'an describes the Big Bang.	"Your Lord is God who created the heavens and earth in six days" – Qur'an
Teaching 17	The Value of the World	The Earth is valuable because God created it. People have a duty to look after God's creation (stewardship). Christians teach that God gave humans power (dominion) over the earth.	"Rule over the fish in the sea and the birds in the sky" – Genesis (Bible)

Teaching 18	The Value of the World	The Earth is valuable because God created it. People have a duty to look after God's creation (stewardship).	"It is He who has made you successors on the earth" – Qur'an
Teaching 19	The use and abuse of the environment	We must protect the earth against misuse. We must show stewardship over creation.	"The Earth is the Lord's and everything in it" -Psalms (Bible)
Teaching 20	The use and abuse of the environment	We must protect the earth against misuse. We must show stewardship over creation.	"Do not seek from it more than what you need" -Hadith
Teaching 21	The use and abuse of animals	Some Christians believe God gave animals to humans to eat. Animal testing that is essential for human needs is OK but animals should be looked after.	The one who eats everything (including meat) must not treat with contempt the one who does not, and the one who does not must not judge the one who does, for God has accepted them" – Romans (Bible)
Teaching 22	The use and abuse of animals	Killing animals for food is allowed. Animal testing that is essential for human needs is OK but animals should be looked after.	"It is God who provides livestock for you, some for riding and some for food" – Qur'an
Teaching 23	The origins of Human Life	Many Christians believe that it is possible to believe in God and evolution. Some are creationists who reject the theory of evolution as not in keeping with scripture.	Genesis chapter 2 teaches that God created the first man, Adam, and breathed life into him.
Teaching 24	The origins of Human Life	Many Muslims believe that it is possible to believe in God and evolution. Some are creationists who reject the theory of evolution as not in keeping with scripture.	"You humans were lifeless and He gave you life" – Qur'an
Teaching 25	Abortion	Taking human life is wrong because of the sanctity of life. Some Christians will argue that abortion is sometimes the most loving option.	"For you created my inmost being; you knit me together in my mother's womb" – Psalms (Bible)
Teaching 26	Abortion	Taking human life is wrong because of the sanctity of life. Abortion is permitted only when the mother's life is in danger.	"Do not kill your children for fear of poverty – We shall provide for them and you" – Qur'an
Teaching 27	Euthanasia	Some Christians believe euthanasia is wrong due to the sanctity of life. Some Christians will argue that it can sometimes be the most loving thing to do.	"Love your neighbour" – Jesus, in Luke (Bible)
Teaching 28	Euthanasia	Muslims believe euthanasia is wrong due to the sanctity of life. Predestination means that God has a person's life planned out and we should not change this.	"No soul may die except with God's permission at a predestined time" – Qur'an
Teaching 29	Death and the afterlife	Death is the beginning of eternal life which will be spent with God. God will judge us on our actions and our faith.	"God so loved the world that He gave His only son, that whoever believes in Him shall have eternal life" – John (Bible)

Teaching 30	Death and the afterlife	Death is the beginning of eternal life which will be spent with God. God will judge us on our actions and whether we accepted the teachings of the Qur'an.	"Those who believe, do good deeds, keep up the prayer...will have their reward with their Lord" – Qur'an
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Definitions

D18	Abortion	The deliberate ending of a pregnancy.	D27	Natural resources	Resources which are found in nature – fossil fuels (eg coal, oil, natural gas), plants etc.
D19	Afterlife	Beliefs about what happens to 'us' after our body has died; in many religions this relates to life after death or immortality in some form.	D28	Pollution	Contamination of an environment with harmful substances.
D20	Animal experimentation	The use of animals for medical research and product testing.	D29	Quality of life	The standard of health, comfort and happiness/fulfillment experienced by a person or group.
D21	Awe and Wonder	Sense of wonderment at nature; often linked to the feeling that God is involved/revealed through it.	D30	Responsibility	Having a duty or obligation to act in a certain way.
D22	Big Bang Theory	Scientific theory about the origins of the universe; belief that the universe began almost 14 billion years ago with a reaction of particles from a singularity followed by a process of inflation and expansion.	D31	Sanctity of life	Belief that life is sacred/special because it was created by God, or because we are each unique individuals.
D23	Death	The end of the physical, bodily life.	D32	Scientific	Knowledge based on what can be observed (eg regularities in nature) and experimentation.

D24	Dominion	Belief that humans have been given control/charge of the world.	D33	Stewardship	Duty given by God to humankind to look after the created world, and all life within it.
D25	Environment	The world around us; this can be made up natural or artificial surroundings.	D34	Evolution	Scientific theory of the development of species which involves a process of natural selection and survival of the fittest.
D26	Euthanasia	Assisting with the ending of life for a person who is terminally ill or has degenerative illness; often known as assisted suicide.			

Theme D: Peace and Conflict

Religious Teachings

	Topic	Beliefs	Quotation
Teaching 31	Peace and Conflict	Killing is wrong, but it can sometime be right to fight for your faith or for justice.	"He will judge between the nations. Nation will not take up sword against nation" – Isaiah (Bible)
Teaching 32	Peace and conflict	Killing is wrong, but it can sometime be right to fight for your faith or for justice.	"The servants of the Lord of Mercy are those who walk humbly on the earth, and who, when aggressive people address them, reply with words of peace" – Qur'an
Teaching 34	Violence, protest and terrorism	Protest can be used to achieve justice.	"Do not repay anyone evil for evil" – Romans (Bible) "Turn the other cheek" - Jesus
Teaching 34	Violence, protest and terrorism	Fighting is only allowed in self-defence or to defend the faith against attack.	"Do not kill each other, for God is merciful to you" – Qur'an
Teaching 35	Reasons for War	Retaliation is wrong.	"The love of money is the root of all evil" – 1 Timothy (Bible)

Teaching 36	Reasons for War	Fighting in self-defence is OK and fair retribution can create justice.	"Those who have been attacked are permitted to take up arms because they have been wronged" – Qur'an
Teaching 37	Nuclear War and WMD	Only God has the right to end life. The indiscriminate killing of large numbers of innocent people can never be justified.	"You shall not murder" – One of the 10 Commandments, Exodus (Bible)
Teaching 38	Nuclear War and WMD	God created all life so it should be protected. The indiscriminate killing of large numbers of innocent people can never be justified.	"Do not contribute to your destruction, but do good, for God loves those who do good" – Qur'an
Teaching 39	Just War	Augustine and Aquinas developed the concept of a Just War – one which follows rules of fairness.	"Blessed are the peacemakers" - Jesus
Teaching 40	Just War	Lesser Jihad means that Muslims should fight under certain conditions.	"Know that the evil of war is swift, and its taste bitter" - Hadith
Teaching 41	Holy War	Most Christians now reject "Eye for an eye" in favour of Jesus' teaching love and forgiveness.	"Eye for an eye, tooth for a tooth" – Exodus (Bible) "All who live by the sword dies by the sword" - Jesus
Teaching 42	Holy War	Holy War must follow the rules of lesser jihad.	"Fight in the cause of Allah but do not transgress limits" – Qur'an
Teaching 43	Pacifism	Some Christians are pacifists. The Quakers are a Christian denomination who strongly support pacifism.	"Blessed are the peacemakers" - Jesus
Teaching 44	Pacifism	Islam is a religion of peace and Muslims must accept peace where possible. Islam is not a pacifist religion because of the duty of lesser jihad.	"If they incline towards peace you must also incline towards it, and put your trust in God" – Qur'an
Teaching 45	Victims of War	Victims of war should be loved and cared for. There are a number of Christian charities who do this.	"Love your neighbour" – Jesus The parable of the Good Samaritan teaches that everyone is our neighbour, regardless of race, gender, beliefs, etc.
Teaching 46	Victims of War	Victims of war should be loved and cared for. There are a number of Muslim charities who do this.	"Whoever saved a life, it would be as if they saved the life of all mankind" – Qur'an

Definitions

D35	Conflict	Dispute between sides, can be between individuals, groups or nations.	D44	Peace-making	Working to bring about peace and reconciliation.
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D36	Forgiveness	Letting go of blame against a person for wrongs they have done; moving on.	D45	Protest	A statement or action to express disagreement; can be an organised event to demonstrate disagreement with a policy or political action.
D37	Holy War	War that is believed to be sanctioned by God.	D46	Reconciliation	Making up and rebuilding relationships between two groups/sides after disagreement.
D38	Justice	Bringing fairness back to a situation.	D47	Retaliation	To pay someone back for their harmful actions.
D39	Just War	Set of rules for fighting a war in a way believed to be justified and acceptable to God.	D48	Terrorism	Use of violence and threats to intimidate others; used for political purposes to build fear in the ordinary population and to secure demands from Government.
D40	Nuclear deterrence	Having nuclear weapons with the aim of deterring/preventing other states attacking for fear of retaliation and nuclear war (possibly leading to Mutually Assured Destruction).	D49	Victims of war	Those who are harmed during a war, for example those killed, injured or left homeless.
D41	Nuclear weapons/war	A weapon of mass destruction which causes widespread damage and loss of life. Nuclear war would be a war fought using these weapons.	D50	Violence	Behaviour involving physical force which intends to hurt, kill or cause damage.
D42	Pacifism	Belief that all violence is wrong, which then affects all behaviours.	D51	War	Armed conflict between two or more sides.
D43	Peace	The opposite of war; harmony between all in society.	D52	Weapons of Mass Destruction	Weapons which cause widespread, indiscriminate damage (eg nuclear, chemical, biological).

Theme E: Crime and Punishment

Religious Teachings

	Topic	Beliefs	Quotation
Teaching 47	Reasons for crime	Christians believe no one is evil but everybody makes mistakes. We are created good.	"Do not covet anything that belongs to your neighbour" – one of the 10 Commandments, Exodus (Bible)
Teaching 48	Reasons for crime	Muslims believe that no human, except for Muhammad, is perfect and that doing wrong things is failure to resist temptation.	"Competing for more distracts you until you go in your grave" – Qur'an
Teaching 49	Attitudes to criminals	The Ten Commandments forbid theft, murder etc. Murder is wrong because only God should take life.	The Parable of the Sheep and Goats makes clear that helping prisoners is like helping Jesus. "I was in prison and you visited me" – Jesus "You shall not murder" – One of the 10 Commandments, Exodus (Bible)
Teaching 50	Attitudes to criminals	In the UK Muslims support UK law even though it is not shari'ah. Shari'ah punishments are severe for serious crimes that are prohibited in the Qur'an.	"God commands justice...and prohibits injustice" – Qur'an "Do not take life, which God has made sacred" – Qur'an
Teaching 51	Aims of punishment	Most Christians now reject "eye for an eye".	"Eye for an eye, tooth for a tooth" – Exodus (Bible)

		Most Christians would say that reformation is the most important aim.	"Love your neighbour" – Jesus
Teaching 52	Aims of punishment	Retribution is accepted where crimes are against shari'ah. Some shari'ah punishments are carried out in public to deter others.	"Cut off the hands of thieves – a deterrent from God" – Qur'an
Teaching 53	Suffering and persecution	Christians have a duty to help those who are suffering. They recognise that good can sometimes come from persecution.	"We glory in our suffering because it produces perseverance, character and hope" – Romans (Bible)
Teaching 54	Suffering and persecution	Muslims have a duty to help those who are suffering. Allah allows suffering for reasons that we as humans cannot understand.	"You are sure to be tested...If you are steadfast and mindful of God, that is the best course" – Qur'an
Teaching 55	Treatment of criminals	Most Christians believe that prisoners should be treated with love and respect to encourage them to reform. Christians do not support corporal punishment.	"Do not take revenge...leave room for God's wrath. It is mine to avenge; I will repay says the Lord" – Romans (Bible)
Teaching 56	Treatment of criminals	Corporal punishment is used in some Muslims countries. Shari'ah law emphasises retribution and deterrence.	"We prescribed for them a life for a life, and eye for an eye" – Qur'an
Teaching 57	Forgiveness	Christians believe that God is forgiving so will try to forgive.	[when asked how many times we should forgive] "Not seven times, but seventy seven times" - Jesus
Teaching 58	Forgiveness	Only Allah can truly forgive. Showing forgiveness to others is important to create a good world.	"Pardon each other's faults and God will grant you honour" - Hadith
Teaching 59	Death Penalty	God gave life and only God has the right to take life away. Some Christians would argue that the death penalty helps protect society. Others would argue that forgiveness and reformation are more important.	"Eye for an eye, tooth for a tooth" – Exodus (Bible)
Teaching 60	Death Penalty	The death penalty exists in shari'ah law and is seen as an effective deterrence and fair retribution.	"Do not take life which God has made sacred, except by right" – Qur'an

Definitions

D53	Addiction	Being addicted to/dependent on a particular substance; can be a cause of crime (eg stealing money to pay for illegal drugs).	D73	Law	The rules a country demands its citizens follow, the breaking of which leads to punishment.
D54	Community service	Punishment involving the criminal doing a set number of hours of physical labour/work in their local community.	D74	Mental illness	A medical condition that can cause changes to a person's behaviour; can be a cause of crime.

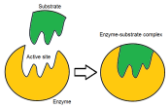
D55	Corporal punishment	Punishment in which physical pain is inflicted on the criminal.	D75	Murder	Unlawfully killing another person.
D56	Crime	Action which breaks the law; can be against the person (eg murder), against property (eg vandalism), or against the state (eg treason).	D76	Poverty	The state of being without the things needed for a reasonable quality of life; can be a cause of crime.
D57	Death penalty	Capital punishment; the execution of a criminal which is sanctioned by the state.	D77	Principle of utility	The concept of acting out of the greater good for the most people. (eg removing a dangerous criminal from society in order to protect others).
D58	Deterrence	Aim of punishment; the threat of punishment as a way to put a person off committing crime (eg knowing they could go to prison if they steal).	D78	Reformation	Aim of punishment; helping the criminal see how and why their behaviour was wrong, so that their mindset changes for the better.
D59	Evil intentions	Having the desire to deliberately cause suffering or harm to another.	D79	Retribution	Aim of punishment; getting the criminal back for their crimes.
D60	Forgiveness	Letting go of blame against a person for wrongs they have done; moving on.	D80	Sanctity of life	Belief that life is sacred/special because it was created by God, or because we are each unique individuals.
D70	Greed	Reason for committing crime – wanting or desiring something or more of something.	D81	Theft	Taking something without the owner's consent.
D71	Hate crime	A crime committed because of prejudice views about a person or group.	D82	Unjust law	A legal requirement within a society that is believed to be unfair; a cause of crime if a person believes they cannot follow (or must act against) a law they believe is unjust.

D71	Prison	Imprisonment is a form of punishment where a criminal is locked in a secure guarded building (prison) for a period of time.	D83	Upbringing	The environment a child lives in, and the instructions they receive, while they are growing up; can be a cause of crime.

Circulatory System			Respiratory System		
1	What is the function of blood?	Transporst system that delivery nutrients to cells e.g. glucose and oxygen and to remove waste from cells e.g. carbon dioxide.	16	List the structures air passes through when breathing in	mouth/nose → trachea → bronchi → bronchioles → alveoli
2	Name the four main components of blood.	Red blood cells, white blood cells, plasma, platelets	17	How are the lungs adapted for good gas exchange?	Many alveoli- high surface area. Good blood supply. Very thin walls for a short diffusion distance.
3	What is the function of platelets?	To form blood clots (e.g. scabs when we cut ourselves)	Plant Organisation		
4	What is the function of red blood cells?	To carry oxygen	18	Why is a leaf an organ?	There are many tissues inside the leaf that work together to perform photosynthesis
5	How are red blood cells adapted to carry oxygen?	Biconcave shape to increase surface area, no nucleus and has haemoglobin for oxygen to bind to.	19	Name the layers of the leaf from top to bottom.	Waxy cuticle → Upper epidermis → Palisade mesophyll → Spongy mesophyll → Lower epidermis → Waxy cuticle.
6	Define deoxygenated	Blood without oxygen in it.	20	How is the upper epidermis adapted for its function?	Transparent to let light through to palisade layer.
7	What is a double circulatory system?	Deoxygenated blood is pumped from the right side of the heart to the lungs, and the oxygenated blood that returns is pumped from the left side of the heart to the body	21	What process takes place in palisade layer?	Photosynthesis
8	What are the three blood vessels?	Veins, arteries and capillaries.	22	How is the palisade mesophyll adapted for photosynthesis.	Tightly packed, cells have lots of chloroplast to absorb as much sunlight as possible.
9	How does the structure of an artery relate to its function?	Carries blood away from the heart under high pressure –has a small lumen and thick elastic walls to stretch.	23	How is the spongy mesophyll adapted for photosynthesis?	Air spaces to allow more surface area for gases to diffuse quickly
10	How does the structure of a vein relate to its function?	Carries blood back to the heart at low pressure , thin walls, large lumen , but has valves to prevent blood flowing the wrong way	24	What is the function of the xylem?	To transport water and mineral ions from the roots to the rest of the plant.
11	How does the structure of a capillary relate to its function?	Carries blood to cells and tissues – has a one-cell-thick wall to provide a short diffusion distance.	25	How is xylem adapted to its function?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •made of dead cells • no end wall between cells • walls strengthened by a chemical called lignin
12	In order state how blood travels through the heart.	Vena cava → right atrium → right ventricle → pulmonary artery → out to lungs to collect oxygen→ back to heart through pulmonary vein → left atrium → left ventricle →aorta	26	What is the function of phloem?	To transport glucose from the leaf to the rest of the plant.
13	What is the coronary artery?	The artery that supplies the heart cells themselves with oxygenated blood	27	What is translocation?	Movement of glucose (food) through phloem to the rest of the plant.
14	What is coronary heart disease?	When the coronary artery narrows due to fatty cholesterol build up in the walls.	28	What is transpiration?	Loss of water as it is pulled in from the roots to the leaves and lost through the stomata at the bottom of the leaf.
15	What are two treatments for coronary heart disease?	Stents- surgery to insert mesh to hold artery open or Statins- medicine to lower blood cholesterol.	29	What are four factors that affect transpiration rate?	Temperature, light intensity, humidity, and wind speed
			30	What are stomata and where are they found?	Holes found at the bottom of the leaf
			31	What are the function of guard cells?	Controls the opening and closing of the stomata?

TOPIC: B5 INFECTION AND RESPONSE

1	What are communicable diseases?	Diseases which are caused by pathogens and can be passed from one person to another	11	How does the measles spread?	By droplet infection
			12	What is a vaccine?	Dead or inactive version of the pathogen
			13	Why do we get vaccinated?	To prevent the spread of diseases
2	What are non communicable diseases?	The diseases which can't be spread.	14	Name three bacterial diseases.	Salmonella food poisoning, Gonorrhoea, cholera
3	What re pathogens?	Pathogens are the disease causing microorganisms.	15	How does TMV spread?	by contact and vectors,
			16	How does HIV spread?	Sexual contact, exchange of body fluids
4	Name the pathogens	Bacteria, virus, fungus, protists			
5	What are the different ways to spread pathogens?	Air, water, y direct contact	17	What are the symptoms of gonorrhoea?	Discharge from the penis or vagina, pain while urinating
6	How can you stop the spread of pathogens?	By simple hygienic methods, destroying vectors, by isolation and vaccination	18	What are the symptoms of salmonella food poisoning?	Fever, abdominal cramps and diarrhea
7	What is health?	Health is the physical, mental and social well being of a person.	19	Name any fungal disease in plants	Rose black spot
8	How does bacteria makes you feel sick?	By releasing toxins in the body	20	Name one disease caused by protists	Malaria
9	How does virus make you feel sick?	Enters the body cells, reproduce inside and damage the cell	21	How does rose black fungus spread?	By wind and water
10	How can we treat bacterial diseases?	Using antibiotics	22	How is malaria caused?	Female anopheles mosquito
11	Why can't measles be treated with antibiotics?	Measles are caused by virus	23	What is the function of white blood cells?	To protect against infection
12	Give three examples of viral diseases.	Measles, AIDS and TMV			

Organisation and Digestive System			Enzyme		
1	Name the five levels of organisation.	cells → tissues → organs → organ systems → organisms	19	How do enzymes bind to substrates? 	<u>Lock and key hypothesis.</u> Each active site has a specific shape to the substrate it breaks down.
2	Define tissue	A group of similar cells working together to perform a specific function			
3	Define organ	A group of different tissues working together to perform a specific function.			
4	Define organ system	A group of organs working together to perform a specific function.			
5	Name the organs in the digestive system in order	Mouth → oesophagus → stomach → (liver/pancreas) → small intestine → large intestine → rectum → anus	20	What are carbohydrases/amylase?	Enzymes that speed up the breakdown of carbohydrates (starch or glycogen) into glucose.
6	What is the function of saliva in digestion?	Lubrication to help swallowing – contains amylase to break down starch.	21	What are proteases?	Enzymes that speed up the breakdown of proteins into amino acids
7	What is the function of the stomach in digestion?	Contains hydrochloric acid, makes protease enzyme to break down proteins	22	What are lipases?	Enzymes that speed up the breakdown of lipids into fatty acids and glycerol
8	What is the function hydrochloric acid in digestion?	Found in the stomach to kill bacteria and create the right pH for enzymes to work.	23	Where are different enzymes produced?	All enzymes are produced in the pancreas and small intestine. Protease is also produced in the stomach. Amylase is also produced in salivary glands
9	What is the function of the liver in digestion?	Produces bile, which neutralises hydrochloric acid from the stomach and emulsifies fat to form small droplets with a large surface area.	24	What two factors affect how well enzymes work?	Temperature and pH
10	What is the function of the pancreas in digestion?	Makes enzymes amylase, protease and lipase.	25	What does optimum mean?	Best
11	What is the function of the small intestine in digestion?	To absorb soluble molecules from the digestive system in to the blood.	26	How does temperature affect enzymes?	As temperature increases, enzymes work faster as they have more kinetic energy, until it reaches optimum, after which the enzyme denatures.
12	How is the small intestine adapted to quick diffusion?	Good blood supply, walls are thin and villi for large surface area.	27	How does pH affect enzymes?	If the pH is too high or too low the enzyme denatures.
13	Where is bile made and stored?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Made in the liver Stored in gall bladder 	28	What is the optimum pH for enzymes to work?	It depends on where the enzyme works. In the stomach the optimum pH is 2 however in the small intestine the optimum pH is 7/8.
14	Define metabolism	The sum of all reactions happening in an organism	<u>Food Tests</u>		
<u>Enzymes</u>			29	What is the test and positive result for starch?	Iodine turns from orange to blue/black
15	Define enzyme	A biological catalyst made of protein.	30	What is the test and positive result for sugars	Benedict's turns from blue to yellow/green/orange/red depending on how much sugar is present.
16	What do enzymes do in digestion?	Break down substrates to smaller soluble molecules	31	What is the test and positive result for proteins?	Biuret goes from blue to purple.
17	Where on an enzyme does a substrate (food) bind?	Active site	32	What is the test and positive result for lipids?	Ethanol, forms a white layer at the top.
18	What does denatured mean?	The enzyme is destroyed because the active side changed shape.			

Knowledge Organiser Physics GCSE: **Energy resources**

1.	What is fossil fuel?	Fuels that are made from the remains of long-dead animals and plants. E.g. Coal, Oil and Natural Gas
2.	Define renewable?	Fuels that are constantly replaced by natural processes. E.g. Wind, Solar, Tidal.
3.	What is non-renewable?	Fuels that, once used, cannot be replaced. E.g. Coal, Oil, Natural Gas and Nuclear.
4.	What is biofuel?	Fuel taken from living or recently living organisms.
5.	What is oil used to produce?	Diesel, petrol and bitumen.
6.	What are nuclear fuels used for?	They are used to generate electricity.
7.	Which energy resource produces the majority of electricity used globally?	Fossil fuels.
8.	Name two non-renewable energy resources	Fossil fuels, nuclear fuel
9.	What are some advantages of fossil fuels as an energy resource?	reliable, cheap
10.	What is a reliable energy source	one which can produce energy all the time.
11.	What are some disadvantages of fossil fuels?	carbon dioxide (greenhouse gas) produced leading to global warming. Can produce sulphur dioxide causing acid rain.
12.	What are some advantages of nuclear fuel?	No carbon dioxide produced, reliable.
13.	What are some disadvantages of nuclear fuel?	nuclear waste remains radioactive for thousands of years. Expensive to build and decommission

14.	List 4 renewable energy resources.	Any 4 from: biofuel, wind, hydroelectricity, geothermal, tidal, wave, solar.
15.	What are some advantages of biofuels?	carbon neutral, reliable
16.	What are some disadvantages of biofuels?	production of fuel can damage ecosystems and reduce variety of crops grown
17.	What are some advantages of wind power?	No carbon dioxide produced
18.	What are some disadvantages of wind power?	unreliable, expensive to construct
19.	What are some advantages of hydroelectricity?	No carbon dioxide produced
20.	What are some disadvantages of hydroelectricity?	blocks rivers preventing fish migration, unreliable (may not produce electricity during droughts)
21.	What are some advantages of geothermal energy?	doesn't damage ecosystems, reliable.
22.	What are some disadvantages of geothermal energy?	fluids drawn from ground may contain greenhouse gases such as CO2 and methane. These contribute to global warming
23.	What are some advantages of tidal energy?	No carbon dioxide produced.
24.	What are some disadvantages of tidal energy?	unreliable - tides vary, may damage tidal ecosystem
25.	What are some advantages of wave power?	No carbon dioxide produced
26.	What are some disadvantages of wave power?	unreliable - may not produce electricity when calm seas
27.	What are some advantages of solar power?	No carbon dioxide produced
28.	What are some disadvantages of solar power?	unreliable - no electricity produced at night and limited

Knowledge Organiser Physics GCSE: **Energy resources**

		on cloudy days. Expensive to construct.
29.	What term is used to describe energy becoming spread out or transferred to a "wasted" store?	dissipation
30.	What term is used to describe a method for reducing unwanted energy transfers by reducing friction?	lubrication
31.	What is a thermal insulator?	A non-conductive material which reduces thermal energy transfers.
32.	What is the name for a method of reducing energy transfers by the use of non-conductive materials?	insulation
33.	What is the law of conservation of energy?	Energy cannot be created and destroyed but only transferred from one store to another.

Knowledge Organiser Chemistry GCSE **UNIT 3 Single and Combined Science: Separating Substances**

1.	In everyday language what is a "pure" substance?	A substance that has had nothing added to it and is in its "natural" state
2.	In chemistry what is a "pure" substance?	A substance made of a single element or compound
3.	How can pure substances be distinguished from impure ones?	By their melting/boiling points
4.	Describe the melting and boiling points of pure substances	One very specific temperature
5.	Describe the melting and boiling points of impure substances	They change state at a range of temperatures
6.	What is a mixture?	Two or more substances that are not joined together. The substances can be elements, compounds, or both.
7.	What is filtration?	Method used to separate an insoluble solid from a liquid using a physical barrier such as paper.
8.	If some this it soluble it...	Able to dissolve in solvent. For example, sugar is soluble in water because it dissolves to form sugar solution.

9.	What is a solute?	The dissolved substance in a solution.
10.	Something that is insoluble is....	Unable to dissolve in a particular solvent. For example, sand is insoluble in water.
11.	A solution is....	Mixture formed by a solute and a solvent.
12.	A solvent is...	The liquid in which the solute dissolves to form a solution.
13.	The boiling point of a substance is...	The temperature at which a substance rapidly changes from a liquid to a gas.
14.	When a substance is dissolved...	It is said to be dissolved when it breaks up and mixes completely with a solvent to produce a solution.
15.	Crystallisation is...	The process of producing crystals from a solution by evaporating the solvent.
16.	A crystal is...	A solid containing particles (atoms, molecules or ions) joined together to form a regular arrangement or repeating pattern.
17.	Evaporation is...	The process in which a liquid changes state and turns into a gas.

Knowledge Organiser Chemistry GCSE **UNIT 3 Single and Combined Science: Separating Substances**

18.	Condensation is....	A change of state in which gas becomes liquid by cooling.
19.	What is distillation?	Distillation is a process used to separate liquids based on their boiling points. It involves heating a mixture of liquids to create vapor, which is then cooled and condensed to separate the liquids
20.	What is fractional distillation?	In fractional distillation a mixture of several substances, such as crude oil, is distilled and the evaporated components are collected as they condense at different temperatures.
21.	What is chromatography?	A process to separate the constituents of a mixture
22.	What is a chromatogram?	The results of separating mixtures by chromatography.

23.	In paper chromatography, what is the stationary phase and what is the mobile phase	Paper is stationary, solvent (usually water or ethanol) is mobile as it moves up the paper
24.	How can chromatography show the difference between pure and impure substances?	Pure ones will not separate into a number of spots
25.	How is the Rf value calculated?	distance moved by spot/distance moved by solvent
26.	What does a substance's Rf value depend on?	How soluble it is in the solvent
27.	In chromatography, why must the substances be placed on a pencil line?	Pencil will not dissolve in the solvent
28.	In chromatography why must the solvent height be lower than the pencil line?	So that the substances do not dissolve into the solvent off the paper

Knowledge Organiser Chemistry **GCSE UNIT 4 Combined Science Structure and Bonding**

1.	If an atom gains electron, what charge will it have?	Negative
2.	If an atom loses electrons, what charge will it have?	Positive
3.	What charge do electrons have?	-1
4.	What can the group number tell you about the electrons in an atom?	The number in the outer shell
5.	Why do atoms transfer electrons in ionic bonding?	So that they can have full outer shells
6.	What kind of substances form ionic bonds?	Metals and non-metals
7.	In ionic bonding, what happens to the electrons?	They are transferred
8.	Explain in terms of electrons what occurs when lithium reacts with chlorine to form lithium chloride	One electron is transferred from lithium to chlorine so both atoms gain full outer shells.
9.	Explain in terms of electrons what occurs when magnesium reacts with chlorine to form magnesium chloride	One magnesium atom transfers two electrons. One goes to one chlorine atom, and one goes to another chlorine atom so both atoms gain full outer shells.
10	What force exists between ions?	The electrostatic force
11	Why don't two negative ions form ionic bonds?	Like charges repel
12	Why do positive and negative ions form ionic bonds?	Opposite charges attract
13	What structure is formed when metals and non-metals react together?	Giant ionic lattice
14	Describe the structure of a giant ionic lattice	Rows of alternating positive and negative ions held

		together by the electrostatic force of attraction
15	Give two properties of ionic substances	High melting and boiling points. Only conduct electricity when molten or in solution.
16	Explain why ionic substances have high melting points.	Strong bonds between oppositely charged ions require a lot of energy to break
17	What does molten mean?	Melted
18	Explain why ionic compounds do not conduct electricity when solid	Their ions cannot move and carry charge
19	Explain why ionic compounds conduct electricity in solution	Because the ions are free to move and carry charge
20	Explain why ionic compounds conduct electricity when molten	Because the ions are free to move and carry charge
21	What kind of substances form covalent bonds?	Non-metals
22	In covalent bonding, what happens to the electrons?	They are shared
23	What is the name given to the structure of substances like diamond, graphite and silicon dioxide?	Giant covalent
24	Describe the structure of a giant covalent substance	Billions of atoms all bonded together covalently
25	Name two typical properties of giant covalent substances	High melting and boiling points, do not conduct electricity (in general)
26	Explain why giant covalent substances have high melting and boiling points	They have strong covalent bonds between the atoms which require a lot of energy to break

Knowledge Organiser Chemistry **GCSE UNIT 4 Combined Science Structure and Bonding**

27	Explain why most giant covalent substances do not conduct electricity	They do not have delocalised electrons
28	Explain how graphite conducts electricity making full reference to its structure and bonding.	Each carbon has 3 bonds meaning 1 electron is delocalised which is free to carry charge through the graphite
29	Explain why graphite can act as a lubricant/is slippery and soft	The layers are free to slide over each other as the forces holding them together are weak
30	What is graphene?	One layer of graphite
31	What is graphene used for?	Advanced electronics
32	What type of substance are methane and water?	Simple molecular (or small molecules)
33	What is a molecule?	A group of atoms chemically bonded together
34	Describe the structure of simple molecular substances	Atoms are bonded into molecules with strong covalent bonds. Molecules are held together by weak intermolecular forces.
35	What are intermolecular forces?	Weak forces between molecules
36	Give two typical properties of simple molecular substances	Low melting and boiling points, don't conduct electricity
37	Explain why simple molecular substances have low melting points	Weak forces between molecules require little energy to break
38	What is the relationship between the size of a molecule and its melting/boiling point?	The larger a molecule, the higher the melting and boiling point.

39	Explain why larger molecules have higher melting points than smaller ones	Large molecules have stronger intermolecular forces, so more energy is required to overcome them.
40	What is a polymer?	A long chain made of small molecules joined up.
41	Describe the main features of metallic structures	Positive metal ions arranged in layers with delocalised electrons
42	What causes metallic bonds?	Electrostatic attraction between metal ions and delocalised electrons
43	Give four properties of metals	Good conductors of electricity, good conductors of thermal energy, high melting and boiling point, malleable
44	Explain why metals can conduct electricity	Delocalised electrons are free to carry charge through the metal
45	Explain why metals have a high melting and boiling point	Strong electrostatic attraction between positive metal ions and delocalised electrons requires a lot of energy to break
46	Explain why pure metals are malleable	Layers of metal ions are free to slide over each other
47	What is an alloy?	A mixture of two or more elements, at least one of which is a metal
48	Give two reasons for alloying a metal	To make it harder / To make it less reactive
49	Explain why alloys can be harder than pure metals	Different sized atoms disturb the layers and stop them sliding over each other

P4: Electrical Circuits		
1	State the rule for current in a series circuit	the current is the same everywhere
2	State the rule for potential difference in a series circuit	the total potential difference of the power supply is shared between components
3	State the rule for resistance in a series circuit	the more resistors, the greater the resistance. $R_T = R_1 + R_2$
4	State the rule for current in a parallel circuit	the total current through the whole circuit is the sum of the currents through the separate components
5	State the rule for potential difference in a parallel circuit	the potential difference across each branch in the circuit is the same
6	State the rule for resistance in a parallel circuit	adding more resistors in parallel decreases resistance - less than the smallest resistance
7	Electric Current is....?	the flow of electric charge / electrons
8	Potential difference between two points in a circuit is....?	the work done / energy when a coulomb of charge passes between the points
9	In a circuit the potential difference causes	charge to flow
10	What is the difference between a series and parallel circuit ?	Series = A circuit with only one route / loop for charge to flow Parallel = more than one route / loop for charge to flow
11	State the equation which links charge flow, current and time	$Q=It$
12	State the equation which links current, potential difference and resistance	$V=IR$
13	State the equation which links charge flow, energy transferred and potential difference	$E=QV$
14	What are the units for charge flow, current and potential difference?	Coulomb (C) Amps (A) Volts (V)
15	Describe the I-V characteristic for a fixed resistor	Current and potential difference are directly proportional, resistance is constant
16	Describe the I-V characteristic of a filament lamp	Resistance is not constant, it increases as p.d. increases
17	Explain why resistance increases with increased p.d. in a filament lamp	temperature increases causing ions to vibrate and increasing collisions with electrons flowing through the filament
18	Current which regularly changes direction is called...	alternating current

P5: Electricity at home		
1	What are the things that move in a circuit?	Charges (electrons move, they have a negative charge)
2	What is current?	The rate of flow of charge
3	What is needed for current to flow in a circuit?	A potential difference (provided by a battery or mains supply)
4	What is potential difference?	A push on the charges in a circuit
5	What formula relates charge, current and time?	$Q=It$
6	What is the property of components that causes them to oppose a current flowing through them?	Resistance
7	What formula relates potential difference, resistance and current?	$V=IR$
8	What is the difference between direct p.d. and alternating p.d.?	Direct p.d. is always positive or always negative, alternating p.d. switches between positive and neagtive
9	Describe the characteristics of UK mains electricity	A.C with frequency of 50Hz and p.d. of 230V
10	Explain why the live wire is dangerous even if the circuit is not switched on	Live wire carries 230V
11	What formula relates power, current and potential difference?	$P=IV$
12	What formula relates power, current and resistance?	$P=I^2R$
13	What formula relates energy, power and time?	$E=Pt$
14	What formula relates energy, charge and potential difference?	$E=QV$
15	What is the National Grid?	A system of cables and transformers linking power stations to consumers
16	What do step-up transformers do?	Increase the p.d. ready for transport over long distances
17	What do step-down transformers do?	Decrease the p.d. ready for use by consumers
18	Why is the National Grid an efficient way of transferring energy?	Electricity is transported at a high p.d., therefore low current, and the energy lost to heating is minimised
19	What is the role of a fuse?	Contains a thin wire that melts and cuts the current off if too much flows through it

Knowledge Organiser Physics GCSE: **Molecules and Matter**

1.	How much mass a substance contains compared to it's volume is...	density
2.	State the equation which links density, mass and volume	$\rho=m/v$
3.	Name the change of state when a liquid becomes a solid	freezing
4.	Name the change of state when a solid becomes a liquid	melting
5.	Name the change of state when a liquid becomes a gas	evaporation
6.	Name the change of state when a gas becomes a liquid	condensation
7.	Name the change of state when a solid becomes a gas (without passing through liquid form)	sublimation
8.	Changes of state are caused by the amount of _____ a substance has	energy
9.	State changes are examples of _____ change	physical
10.	Physical changes are ones which can be _____	reversed
11.	A change which creates new products and cannot be reversed is _____ change	chemical
12.	The energy stored inside a system by the particles which make it up is known as _____ energy	internal
13.	What is internal energy?	The total kinetic energy and potential energy of all the particles in a system
14.	Energy stored within moving objects is _____	kinetic

15.	Energy stored in particles because of their position is...?	potential energy
16.	Particles which are further apart have _____ potential energy	more
17.	The energy needed to raise the temperature 1 kg of a material by 1°C is the _____	specific heat capacity
18.	The average kinetic energy of particles is known as the _____	temperature
19.	The amount of energy required to change the state of one kilogram of a substance with no change in temperature is the ...?	specific latent heat
20.	Latent heat of fusion is for changing...?	solid to liquid
21.	Latent heat of vaporisation is for changing...?	liquid to vapour (gas)
22.	Increasing temperature _____ pressure in a gas if volume is constant	increases
23.	The force exerted by gas on a surface as the particles collide with it is known as....?	gas pressure
24.	State the units of density	kg/m^3
25.	State the units of volume	m^3
26.	Why doesn't temperature increase during melting?	Energy is being used to weaken forces between particles
27.	Why doesn't temperature increase during evaporation	Energy is being used to weaken forces between particles
28.	Why does temperature of a substance increase as it is heated?	Particles gain more kinetic energy and temperature is a measure of kinetic energy

Knowledge Organiser Physics GCSE: **Molecules and Matter**

29.	Particles are arranged regularly in a?	solid
30.	Particles are arranged randomly, but touching in a ...?	liquid
31.	Particles move around randomly in a?	gas

Key terms

1. Breadwinner	The person in the family who earns the money, usually the male.
2. Commune	Self-contained and self-supporting communities where childcare, property etc. are shared.
3. Conjugal roles	The domestic roles of married partners who does what in the home.
4. Domestic division of labour	The division of tasks such as housework and childcare in the family.
5. Double shift	When women are in full time employment and be responsible for household tasks.
6. Expressive role	Traditionally a woman's role in the family according to Parsons, where they look after the emotional needs of the family.
7. Extended family	A family which contains members beyond the nuclear
8. Family diversity	This means there are a range of families in society today e.g. lone-parent, reconstituted, same-sex.
9. Household	One or more people who live at the same address but may not related e.g. university students.
10. Instrumental role	Traditionally the male's role within the family to be the breadwinner and provide financially for the family.
11. Lone parent family	A family of one parent and their dependent children Usually headed by the mother.
12. Neo-conventional family	A typical nuclear family but where both parents go to work.
13. Nuclear family	A family of one man and one woman with their dependent children.
14. Patriarchy	Male power and dominance over women.
15. Reconstituted family	A family of one man and one woman with children from previous relationships.
16. Secularisation	A decline in religious belief and activity.
17. Stratified diffusion	How the roles adopted by those at the top of the social hierarchy (richer families) filters down to the rest of society.
18. Symmetrical family	Families which are equal on both sides where partners have joint roles
19. Cereal packet family	The 'ideal' nuclear family shown in the media and advertising.
20. Cohabitation	When two partners live together in a relationship without being married

Perspectives on the family

1	<p>The family is a key social structure as it performs several essential functions for individuals and society. Murdock argue it performs four vital functions:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Sexual Function: regulates sexual behaviour that is approved by society, prevents breakdown and maintains stability Reproductive function: creates the next generation to fill roles needed Economic function: providing shelter, food & clothes, economic cooperation Socialisation function: provides primary socialisation and learning of shared norms and values <p>Parsons – the family performs two important functions today</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Primary socialisation Stabilisation of adult personalities (warm bath theory) <p>× Functionalists ignore the dark side of the family and the impact of diversity</p>
2	<p>The family helps to maintain the class divide and benefits capitalism. This happens in three main ways:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Inheritance: money and wealth is passed down in richer families through inheritance and is not shared with the working classes Consumerism – families are targeted as consumers who buy products, children use 'pester power', profits go to the ruling class Socialisation – children learn to accept hierarchy and that someone is in charge meaning they accept it in the workplace and don't revolt <p>Zaretsky – The family provides an 'illusion' that society is fair and this maintains capitalism as it prevents a revolution</p> <p>× Marxists ignore positive functions and that not all families benefit capitalism</p>
3	<p>The family helps to maintain the gender divide and promotes patriarchy in society (male dominance and power). This happens through:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Men acting as the breadwinner in the family (they usually earn more) so have more control and power Women often have a double shift or triple shift and take on the majority of unpaid housework Domestic abuse from men in the family Gender socialisation in families teaching stereotypical roles for boys and girls <p>× Feminists ignore that some women may enjoy/choose the housewife role and that positive changes have been made</p>
4	<p>Nuclear families are the ideal family type and are the best for members and society because:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> They promote traditional values such as marriage Children grow up with two role models (for better socialisation) They are more likely to be financially stable and less likely to be reliant on benefits (and become part of the underclass) <p>They see lone-parent and same-sex families as causing problems for society</p>

Key sociologists

1	<p>Rapoport and Rapoport (functionalist)</p> <p>Families are changing, there is increasing diversity Five different aspects of family diversity: organisational (eg internal divisions of domestic labour), cultural (beliefs and values), class (eg how the family's position in the social class system affects the availability of resources), life course (stage in the family life cycle) and cohort (historical period).</p>
2	<p>Parsons (functionalist)</p> <p>Family has two basic functions which are common to all families in all societies: primary socialisation of children and the stabilisation of adult personalities e.g to give and receive emotional support</p>
3	<p>Young and Willmott (functionalist)</p> <p>Large scale social survey (over 2,000 respondents in Greater London and surrounding areas) Families are more symmetrical with both husband and wife make similar contributions to the running of the household eg shared chores and decisions. More common in working class families. Stage 4 is the 'managing director family'. This is work centred and the wife is responsible for home and children – more common in middle class families</p>
4	<p>Zaretsky (Marxist)</p> <p>The family also helps to maintain capitalism in society. He thinks that the family helps to provide an 'illusion' that society is fair and provides a safe haven away from exploitation at work. Women become responsible for personal relationships within the family. This cushions them from capitalism.</p>
5	<p>Delphy and Leonard (Feminist)</p> <p>Men benefit the most from the exploitation of women's labour. They believe that the family has a central role in maintaining patriarchy. Women are oppressed because even when wives have paid employment outside the home they still have to carry out household tasks which are not equally shared</p>
6	<p>Oakley (Feminist)</p> <p>Segregated conjugal roles adopted by men and women are part of the conventional family also known as the 'cereal' packet' family. This contains married parents and at least one child, the father is the breadwinner and the mother stays at home to look after the house and children. This type of family may actually exploit women and support patriarchy.</p>

Family diversity

Family type	Increase or decrease	Reasons why
1.Nuclear	↓	Secularisation Increase in divorce Changing position of women
2.Reconstituted	↑	Increase in divorce Changing attitudes Greater individualism
3.Lone parent	↑	Increase in divorce Changing position of women Changing attitudes
4.Same sex	↑	Changing laws (gay marriage is legalised) Changing attitudes
5.Beanpole	↑	Increase in life expectancy Decrease in the birth rate
6.Non conventional	↑	Changes in law (equal pay) Changing attitudes Changing position of women
7.Cohabiting couple	↑	Changing attitudes Changing position of women Increase in divorce
8.On person household	↑	Increase in divorce Longer life expectancy Greater individualism

Changing patterns of marriage

Trends	Reasons	Impacts
First time marriages are decreasing	Secularisation / changing attitudes Changing position of women Increasing cost of marriage	Less married nuclear families More cohabitating couples
Remarriages are increasing	Secularisation / changing attitudes Increase in divorce / changes to divorce laws	More reconstituted families Serial monogamy
Age of first time marriage is increasing	Changing position of women Increasing cost of marriage Changing attitudes	More couples cohabit before marriage
Increase in same-sex marriages	Changing attitudes Changes in law	

Is marriage still important?

Yes	No
Remarriages are increasing Same sex marriages are increasing Married persons tax allowance was introduced (policies encourage marriage) People still aspire to be married	First time marriages are decreasing Cohabitation is more acceptable Divorce is increasing (suggesting marriage isn't valued) Some couples choose a civil partnership

Are gender roles more equal?

Yes	No
Symmetrical families – joint conjugal roles The New Man Women take part in decision making	Double shift/triple shift The New Man is myth – women still responsible (men cherry pick) for housework/childcare Men still make the most important decisions ¼ women are victims of domestic abuse (evidence of patriarchy)

Changing patterns of divorce

1.Trends in divorce	42% of marriages end in divorce The divorce rate has increased compared to 30 years ago The divorce rate has declined slightly over the past 10 years but is still high
2.Reasons for increases in divorce	Changes in law – Divorce reform act (1969) widened the grounds for divorce (to include irretrievable breakdown), waiting time for a divorce decreased from 3-1 years Changing attitudes – More acceptable to divorce Changing position of women – greater financial independence
3.Sociological views of divorce	Functionalist – divorce can lead to fewer dysfunctional families and greater harmony. Divorce creates jobs to help the economy. Divorce shows people have higher expectations of marriage. Marxist – divorce is more common in working class families due to stress/inequality caused by capitalism, Feminist – divorce can be positive to allow women to escape patriarchal relationships.

A - POEM

Look in your book for the poem "Quiero ver una vaca colorada"

B - SONG

Look in your book for the lyrics of the song "Maestro, puedo ir al baño"

C – FAMILY MEMBERS

En mi familia tengo a
(In my family I have)

- mi abuelo** (my grandfather)
- mi abuela** (my grandmother)
- mi primo** (my male cousin)
- mi prima** (my female cousin)
- mi hermano mayor** (my older brother)
- mi hermano menor** (my younger brother)
- mi gemelo /a** (my twin brother/sister)
- mi sobrino** (my nephew)
- mi sobrina** (my niece)
- mi novio** (my boyfriend)
- mi novia** (my girlfriend)

Hay ____ personas en mi familia
(There are ____ personas en mi familia)

- mis abuelos** (my grandparents)
- mis primos** (my male cousins)
- mis primas** (my female cousins)
- mis parientes** (my relatives)
- mis hermanos** (my siblings)
- mis sobrinos** (my nephews)
- mis sobrinas** (my nieces)

que se llama
(that is called)...

Él / ella tiene
(He / she is...)

que se llaman....
(that are called...)

Ellos tienen
(They are...)

un año (1)

- dos (2)
- tres (3)
- nueve (9)
- diez (10)
- once (11)
- doce (12)
- trece (13)
- catorce (14)
- quince (15)
- dieciseis (16)
- diecisiete (17)
- dieciocho (18)
- diecinueve (19)
- veinte (20)
- veintiún (21)
- veintidós (22)
- treinta (30)
- treinta y uno (31)
- cuarenta (40)
- cincuenta (50)
- sesenta (60)
- setenta (70)
- ochenta (80)
- noventa (90)

años (years old)

años respectivamente
(years old respectively)

D – PHYSICAL DESCRIPTIONS										
(Yo) soy <i>(I am)</i>	alto /a <i>(tall)</i> bajo /a <i>(short)</i> delgado / a <i>(thin)</i>	Tengo el pelo <i>(I have ...hair)</i>	castaño <i>(brown)</i> moreno <i>(dark)</i> negro <i>(black)</i> pelirrojo <i>(red-haired)</i> rubio <i>(blonde)</i> corto <i>(short)</i> largo <i>(long)</i> liso <i>(straight)</i> rizado <i>(curly)</i>	Además <i>(in addition/ besides)</i>	mis <i>(my)</i>	ojos son <i>(eyes are)</i>	azules <i>(blue)</i> marrones <i>(brown)</i> verdes <i>(green)</i> negros <i>(black)</i>	Y <i>(and)</i>	llevo <i>(I wear)</i> no llevo <i>(I don't wear)</i>	gafas <i>(glasses)</i> bigote <i>(moustache)</i> barba <i>(beard)</i>
(Él / ella) es <i>(He/she is)</i>	gordo/a <i>(fat)</i> feo /a <i>(ugly)</i> guapo/a <i>(attractive)</i>	Tiene el pelo <i>(He/she has ...hair)</i>			sus <i>(his / her)</i>				lleva <i>(He/she wears)</i> no lleva <i>(he/she doesn't wear)</i>	
(Nosotros) somos <i>(we are)</i>	altos /as <i>(tall)</i> bajos /as <i>(short)</i> delgados /as <i>(thin)</i>	Tenemos el pelo <i>(we have ...hair)</i>			nuestros <i>(our)</i>				llevamos <i>(we wear)</i> no llevamos <i>(we don't wear)</i>	
(Ellos/ellas) <i>(They are)</i>	gordos/as <i>(fat)</i> feos /as <i>(ugly)</i> guapos/as <i>(attractive)</i>	Tienen el pelo <i>(They have ...hair)</i>			sus <i>(their)</i>				llevan <i>(they wear)</i> no llevan <i>(they don't wear)</i>	

E – INVITES AND EXCUSES				
¿Puedes <i>(Can you)</i> ¿Quieres <i>(do you want)</i> ¿Te gustaría <i>(would you like)</i> ¿Quisieras <i>(would you like)</i>	jugar al tenis conmigo? <i>(play tennis with me?)</i> hablar con mis amigos? <i>(talk to your friends?)</i> escuchar música conmigo? <i>(listen to music with me?)</i> ver una peli conmigo? <i>(watch a movie with me?)</i> ir al cine conmigo? <i>(go to the cinema with me?)</i> ir de compras conmigo? <i>(go shopping with me?)</i> salir al centro conmigo? <i>(go to the city centre with me?)</i>	No, porque <i>(no, because)</i>	(yo) estoy <i>(I am)</i>	descansando <i>(relaxing)</i> tomando el sol <i>(sunbathing)</i> ayudando a mi madre <i>(helping my mother)</i> descargando música <i>(downloading music)</i> editando publicaciones <i>(editing posts)</i> viendo un programa <i>(watching a programme)</i> leyendo* un libro <i>(reading a book)</i> escribiendo correos <i>(writing emails)</i> subiendo vídeos <i>(uploading videos)</i>
			(tú) estás <i>(you are)</i>	
			(él/ella) está <i>(he/she is)</i>	
			(nosotros) estamos <i>(we are)</i>	
			(ellos/ellas) están <i>(they are)</i>	

F – FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

Me llevo bien con... <i>(I get along well with)</i>	mi abuelo <i>(my grandfather)</i> mi abuela <i>(my grandmoth)</i> mi primo <i>(my male cousin)</i> mi prima <i>(my female cousin)</i> mi hermano mayor <i>(my older brother)</i> mi hermano menor <i>(my younger brother)</i> mi gemelo /a <i>(My twin brother/sister)</i> mi sobrino <i>(my nephew)</i> mi sobrina <i>(my niece)</i> mi novio <i>(my boyfriend)</i> mi novia <i>(my girlfriend)</i>		(él / ella) es <i>(he/she is)</i>	muy <i>(very)</i>	amistoso/a/os/as <i>(friendly)</i> atrevido /a/os/as <i>(daring)</i> cariñoso/a/os/as <i>(loving)</i> educado/a/os/as <i>(polite)</i> comprensivo/a/os/as <i>(understanding)</i> deportivo/a/os/as <i>(sporty)</i> gracioso/a/os/as <i>(funny)</i> cortés <i>(polite)</i> sensible/s <i>(sensitive)</i>	También <i>(also)</i> le gusta <i>(he/she likes)</i> no le gusta <i>(he/she doesn't like)</i>	aconsejar <i>(to give advice)</i> comprender <i>(to understand)</i> conocer <i>(to get to know)</i> cuidar <i>(to look after)</i>
	Me llevo mal con .. <i>(I get on badly with)</i>		mis abuelos <i>(my grandparents)</i> mis primos <i>(my male cousins)</i> mis primas <i>(my female cousins)</i> mis parientes <i>(my relatives)</i> mis hermanos <i>(my siblings)</i> mis sobrinos <i>(my nephews)</i> mis sobrinas <i>(my nieces)</i>				