

YEAR 7 KNOWLEDGE ORGANISER

MICHAELMAS TERM 2020/21

Name:

Family Group:



















LEARNING - LOVING - LIVING



PAGE NUMBER	SUBJECT	TOPIC
1-3	General information	Knowledge Organiser guidance, Retrieval activity ideas, The science of Learning- How to revise effectively
4-6	English	Poetry from other cultures, Shakespearean Rhetoric, Vocabulary
7-9	Mathematics	Number, Calculations
10-18	Science	Introduction, Atoms and elements, Energy and heat transfer, Levels of Organisation, Acids and Alkalis
19-23	Geography	Brazil, Asia – Tectonic Hazards
24-26	History	Pre 1066 and Norman Invasion, Norman England, Medieval Church
27-30	Religious Education	Christianity- Old Testament, New Testament
31-33	Physical Education	Football, Rugby, Netball
34-37	Computer Science	The Bigger Picture, Problem solving
38-39	Drama	Foundations of Drama
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GENERAL INFORMATION

The knowledge organiser is a book that sets out the **important**, **useful** and **powerful knowledge** of a single topic on one page.

When used effectively, Knowledge Organisers are useful in:

- Helping build a foundation of factual knowledge.
- Embedding revision techniques for now and future studies (A-Level, College, University)
- Allowing knowledge to become stored in long term memory which frees up working memory for more complex ideas. It also allows you to connect concepts together, even across subjects

HOMEWORK EXPECTATIONS

EACH NIGHT you should spend at least **1 hour** per night on homework. <u>3 subjects per night x 20 minutes per subject= 1 hour.</u> Use the homework timetable as a guide to what subjects to complete each night.

Complete all work in your exercise book and make sure you bring your knowledge organiser to school EVERYDAY (in your coloured folder).

Every FRIDAY morning the week's worth of KNOWLEDGE ORGANISER homework will be <u>checked in Family Group time</u> and detentions issued for work not complete, or not up to standard.

SUBJECT HOMEWORK

All students will also be assigned **ENGLISH** reading activities on www.CommonLit.org with each assignment taking 20-30 minutes to complete and **MATHS** activities with short explanatory videos on the online platform of https://mathswatch.co.uk.

It is also recommended to take advantage of FREE online revision tools such as www.senecalearning.com or the recently updated BBC BITESIZE.

It is also recommended that students regularly **READ** a variety of **fiction and non fiction books** of their choosing. This extra reading will develop and broaden general understanding and context in all subjects.



<u>HOMEWORK TIMETABLE</u>					
Year 7	Subject 3				
Monday	Maths	History	PE		
Tuesday	English	Geography	ICT		
Wednesday	Maths	RE	Music		
Thursday	English	Science	Creative		
Friday	Maths	Languages	Drama		

EQUIPMENT CHECKLIST

Pencil case	Knowledge Organiser	2 Black or Blue pens
2 pencils and Eraser	Green Pen	Pencil Sharpener
Mini whiteboard and pen	Calculator	Ruler
Maths geometry set	Class book	

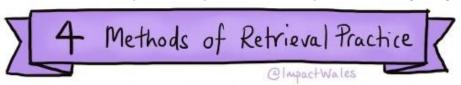
HOMEWORK CHECKLIST

Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7
			Half term			
Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7



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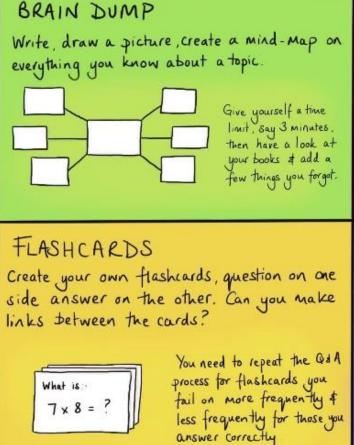
Here are some activities that you can try at home with your knowledge organiser to help revise. There are even more strategies on page 3.

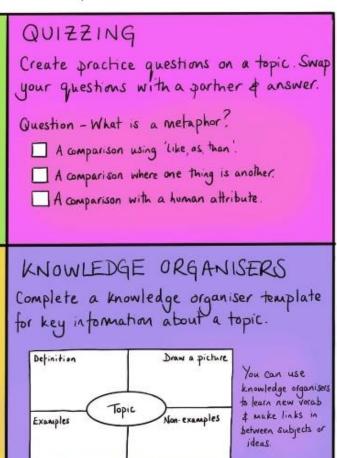


Before you start put away all your books & classroom materials.

Retrieval Practice Examples

- * Exit Tickets
- *Starter quizzes
- *Multiple choice quizzes
- *Short answer tests
- * Free write
- *Think, pair,
- *Ranking &
- *Challenge grids





After you have retrieved as much as you can go back to your books & check what you've missed. Next time focus on that missing information

LEARNING — LOVING — LIVING

DUAL CODING

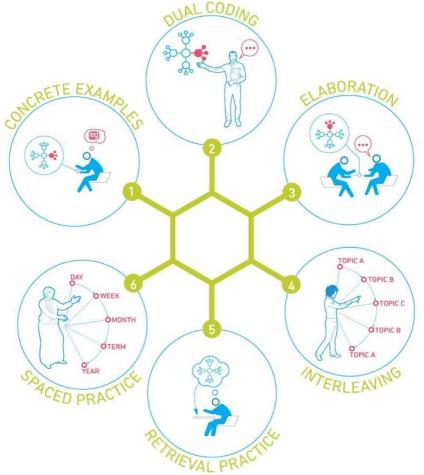
Dual coding is the process of combining visual and written materials. You can visually represent materials using methods such as info graphics, timelines, cartoon/comic strips, diagrams and graphic organisers. Combing images with words or explaining an image makes it more likely to 'stick'.

CONCRETE EXAMPLES When you're studying, try to think about how you can turn ideas you're learning into concrete examples. Making a link

into concrete examples. Making a link between the idea you're studying and a real life example, concrete example, can help students understand abstract ideas and make it 'stick'.

SPACED PRACTISE

Divide up your revision into short manageable chunks of time. When revising aim for 20 - 30 minutes per session. Five hours spread out over two weeks is better than the same five hours all at once. This is **spaced practice** and it is regarded as one of the most effective revision strategies.



RETRIEVAL PRACTICE

Through the act of retrieval, or calling information to mind, our memory for that information is strengthened and forgetting is less likely to occur. Retrieval practice ideas include: Read, cover, write, check, flashcards and brain dumps.

ELABORATION

When talking about studying, elaboration involves explaining and describing ideas with many details. Elaboration also involves making connections among ideas you are trying to learn. Ask yourself questions about a topic to delve deeper. The more information you have about a specific topic the stronger your grasp and ability to recall.

INTERVEAVING

Interleaving is a process where you combine multiple subjects and topics while you study in order to improve learning. Switch between ideas and make links between them during a study session. Interleaving has been shown to lead to better long-term retention

YEAR 7- MICHAELMAS TERM- ENGLISH — POETRY FROM OTHER CULTURES



	Technique/Vocabulary	Definition	Example/effect
1	Alliteration (n) Alliterative (adj)	When words in a sentence start with the same letter	<u>Si</u> lence for <u>spectroscopic</u> <u>Flight of fancy,</u>
2	Caesura (n)	A pause within or at the end of a line, often using a full stop	It allows an idea to be given a sense of importance or to highlight
			something shocking
3	Enjambment (n)	the continuation of a sentence without a pause beyond the end of a line,	This allows a poet to continue or develop a train of thought or idea
		couplet, or stanza	
4	Consonance (n)	Repetition of consonant sounds	Her accent was <u>clinical</u> , <u>crushing</u> in its light Impersonality
5	Assonance (n)	Internal vowel rhyme	Dem tell me bout <u>ole</u> King <u>Cole</u> was a merry <u>ole soul</u> but dem never
			tell me bout Mary Sea <u>cole</u>
6	Sibilance (n) Sibilant (adj)	The 'S' sound, normally several of these in a row.	Silence. Silenced transmission of Pressurized good-breeding
7	Symbolism (n) Symbolic (adj)	The idea of words or phrases representing something else	Red booth. Red pillar box. Red double-tiered Omnibus squelching
			tar
8	Onomatopoeia (n)	Words that sound like the noise they describe	to surge of wheels
	Onomatopoeic (adj)		to dull North Circular <u>roar</u>
9	Metaphor (n) Metaphorical (adj)	a figure of speech in which a word or phrase is applied to an object or	Toussaint de <u>beacon</u> of de Haitian Revolution
		action to which it is not literally applicable	
10	Simile (n)	A figure of speech where two things are compared using 'like' or 'as'	Brash with glass, name <u>flaring like a flag</u>
11	Oxymoron (n) Oxymoronic (adj)	When contradictory terms or ideas are put next to each other	crushing in its light Impersonality
12	Rhythm (n) rhythmic (adj)	The pattern or beat of a poem	It contributes to the tone and mood of the text
13	Juxtaposition (n) Juxtapose (v)	Putting two things close together to create a contrasting effect	Dem tell me bout de dish ran away with de spoon but dem never
			tell me bout Nanny de maroon
14	Stanza (n)	The name for a verse in a poem	N/A
15	Refrain (n)	A repeated part in a poem, like a chorus	N/A
16	Semantic Field	A group of words with similar meanings	It allows a poet to develop a mood, theme or idea across the poem.
17	Polysemic (adj)	More than one meaning	It facilitates multiple interpretations
18	Emotive Language	Language that is charged with emotion	Intending to provoke an emotional reaction
19	Imagery (n)	Creating pictures in the readers' heads using words	N/A
20	Accentuate (v)	To highlight or make something obvious	By repeating the word 'red', Soyinka accentuates his anger at
			discovering that the Landlady is prejudicial and racist.
21	Connotation (n)	Connected or deeper meanings or feeling behind a word	The word 'bandage' has connotations of pains and suffering
22	Irony (n) Ironic (adj)	Humour using opposites	It is ironic that the landlady thinks Soyinka is stupid as he is clearly
			the more intelligent person.
23	Satire (n) satirise (v) satirical (adj)	The use of humour to mock or ridicule stupidity or ignorance, often aimed	Half Caste satirises racism by criticizing the language of
		at the powerful	classification.
24	Derogatory (adj) derogate (v)	Rude and disrespectful language	Agard's poem demonstrates the derogatory nature of the phrase 4
1			'half-racte'



	Rhetorical	Definition	Example		
	Technique				
1	Anaphora	Starting each sentence with the same word	1		ne of kings, this scepter'd isle,
			This earth	of ma	ejesty, this seat of Mars' Richard II
2	Hypophora	Hypophora Asking a question then answering it straight afterwards 'If		rong	a Christian, what is his humility? Revenge.' Merchant of
			Venice		
3	Epiplexis	A series of rhetorical questions	Who is her	e so l	base that would be a bondman?Who is here so rude
			that would	l not l	be a Roman? Julius Caesar
4	Aposiopesis	A pause-when someone doesn't finish a sentence ()	'I will have	such	revenges on you both
			That all the	e wor	ld shall- I will do such things-' King Lear
5	Antithesis	First you mention one thing, then you mention another. Both elements are often	'The fewer	men	, the greater share of honour.' Henry V
		opposites			
6	Parallelism	Giving two or more parts of the sentences a similar form and structure so as to	'Fear'd by t	their	breed and famous by their birth' Richard II
		give the passage a definite pattern			
7	Epistrophe	When you end each sentence or clause with the same word	'See, how s	she le	ans her cheek upon her hand!
			O, that I we	ere a	glove upon that hand,' Romeo and Juliet
8	Tricolon	Three ideas in a row	'Friends, Romans, Countrymen, lend me your ears.' Julius Caesar		ns, Countrymen, lend me your ears.' Julius Caesar
9	Polyptoton	The repeated use of one word as different parts of speech or in different	'With eager feeding food doth choke the feeder' Richard II		ding food doth choke the feeder' Richard II
		grammatical forms			
10	Imperative	Giving a command or order to the listener or audience	'Stiffen the sinews, summon up the blood' Henry V		ws, summon up the blood' Henry V
	Appeals	Definition			
11	Ethos	An appeal to the authority or credibility of the presenter. It is how well the present	ter convince	s the	audience that he or she is qualified to present (speak)
		on the particular subject.			
12	Logos	This is logical appeal or the simulation of it, and the term logic is derived from it. It	is normally i	used [·]	to describe facts and figures that support the speaker's
		claims or thesis. Having a logos appeal also enhances ethos because information m	nakes the spe	eaker	look knowledgeable and prepared to his or her
		audience			
13	Pathos	It is an appeal to the audience's emotions, and the terms pathetic and empathy ar	e derived fro	om it.	It can be in the form of metaphor, simile, a passionate
		delivery, or even a simple claim that a matter is unjust	unjust		
	Keyword	Definition			Shakespearean Dates
14	Soliloquy	a device often used in drama when a character speaks to himself or herself		20	1.1564- Born in Stratford Upon Avon
15	Philippic	a bitter attack or denunciation, especially a verbal one		21	2. 1599- First Globe theatre built
16	Diatribe	a forceful and bitter verbal attack against someone or something		22	3. 1616- Shakespeare Died
17	Metaphor	a figure of speech in which a word or phrase is applied to an object or action to wh	nich it is	23	4. Queen Elizabeth I ruled from 1558-1603
		not literally applicable.			
18	Introspection	the examination or observation of one's own mental and emotional processes		24	5. King James I ruled from 1603-1625
19	Personification	Giving human qualities to something not human			•
	•				



TELLY TO THE ENGLISH TO SHOULD THE							
Poet	ry from Other Cultur	es	Shake	Shakespearean Rhetoric			
	Word	Definition		Word	Definition		
1	Dismiss (v) dismissive (adj)	Showing that something is unworthy of consideration	16	Sedition (n)	Rebelling against the government		
2	Colonialism (n) Colonial (adj	Where one country takes, occupies and rules another	17	Credible (adj) Credibility (n)	How believable something is		
3	Vague (adj)	Uncertain, not specific or precise	18	Oratory (n) Orator (n)	Public speaking		
4	The commonwealth	A group of countries, Most used to be in the British Empire	19	Rouse (v) Rousing (adj)	Exciting and inspiring (of a speech)		
5	Indifferent (adj) Indifference (n)	Unconcerned, not caring, having no opinion.	20	Antithesis (n) Antithetical (adj)	Opposites		
6	Plight (n)	A difficult or horrible situation	21	Domineer (v) Domineering (adj)	Assert your will in an arrogant way. Bossy		
7	Authoritarian (adj) Authoritarianism (n)	Strict, bossy, expecting obedience	22	Patriotism (n) Patriotic (adj)	A love for your country		
8	Mundane (adj)	Boring, lacking interest, dull	23	Implore (v)	To beg desperately for something		
9	Denounce (v) Denunciation (n)	A public statement that something is wrong	24	Subtle (adj) Subtlety (n)	Using soft or indirect methods to do something		
10	Berate (v)	To scold or criticise angrily	25	Defer (v) Deferential (adj)	Showing polite respect to someone powerful		
11	Scathing (adj)	Severely and strongly critical	26	Undermine (v)	To lessen the effectiveness or power of something, to go against someone's power		
12	Apartheid (n)	Racial segregation in South Africa	27	Futile (adj) Futility (n)	Pointless or useless		
13	Oppress (v) Oppression (n)	The exercise of power in a cruel or unfair manner	28	Allude (v) Allusion (n)	Suggest or hint at something		
14	Disparity (n)	A great difference	30	Resent (v) Resentment(n)	Feeling bitter towards something		
15	Deprive (v) Deprivation (v)	Lacking the basics in life	31	Contempt (n) Contemptuous (adj)	A feeling that something is worthless 6		



Standard Index Form



Placeholder Three billion, one hundred and forty eight million, thirty three thousand and twenty nine 1 billion 1,000,000,000

1 million 1 000,000 Compare integers using $<,>,=,\neq$

Two and a half million

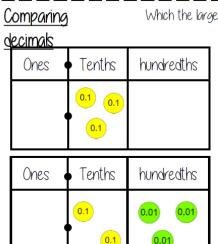
300 000 000

≠ not equal to Six thousand and eighty

< less than

= equal to

> areater than



Which the largest of 0.3 and 0.23? 0.3 > 0.23"There are more counters in the furthest column to the left" 0.30 Comparing the values both with the same number of decimal 0.23 places is another way to compare the number of tenths

A form in which numbers are recorded as a number between 1 and 10 multiplied by a power of ten. Examples: 193

in standard index form is recorded as 1.93×10^2

0.193 in standard index form is recorded as 1.93 ×10⁻¹

This form is often used as a succinct notation for very large and very small numbers.

Squaring and square-rooting cubing and cube-rooting are inverses of

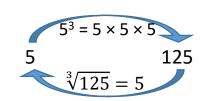
(=) 2 500 000

Three billion

68 000

Ones

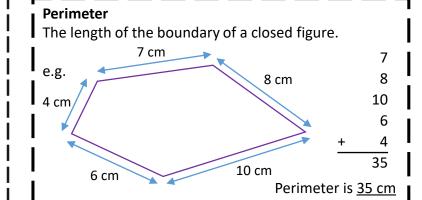
each other. $8^2 = 8 \times 8$ $\sqrt{64} = 8$



and hundredths

Decimals We sau "nought point five two" Five tenths and two hundreaths

tenths hundredths ones 0 ones, 5 tenth and 2 hundredths 0 + 0 | + 0 | + 0 | + 0 | + 0 | + 0 | + 0 0 | + 0 0 | = () + ()5 + ()()2= 0.52





Negative and Positive Numbers – Addition & Subtraction

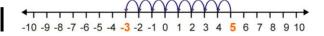




-10 -9 -8 -7 -6 -5 -4 -3 **-2** -1 0 1 2 **3** 4 5 6 7 8 9 10



$$5 - 8 = -3$$



$$3 - -6 = 9$$

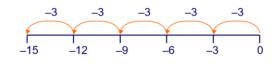


$$-4 - -7 = 3$$



Negative and Positive Numbers – Multiplication

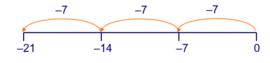
$$-3 + -3 + -3 + -3 + -3 = -15$$



$$5 \times -3 = -15$$

A positive number × a negative number = a negative number

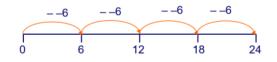
$$-7 \times 3 = 3 \times -7 = -21$$



A negative number × a positive number = a negative number

$$-4 \times -6 = 4 \times - -6 = 24$$

£270



A negative number × a negative number = a positive number

Negative and Positive Numbers – Division

If
$$5 \times -3 = -15$$
, then $-15 \div 5 = -3$

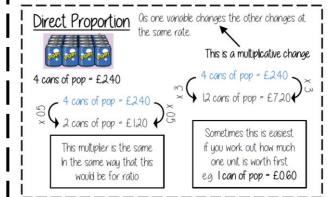
A negative number ÷ a positive number = a negative number

If
$$-7 \times 3 = -21$$
, then $-21 \div -7 = 3$

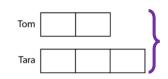
A negative number + a negative number = a positive number

If
$$-4 \times -6 = 24$$
, then $24 \div -4 = -6$

A positive number ÷ a negative number = a negative number

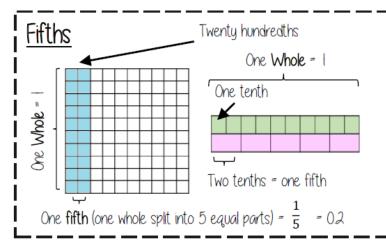


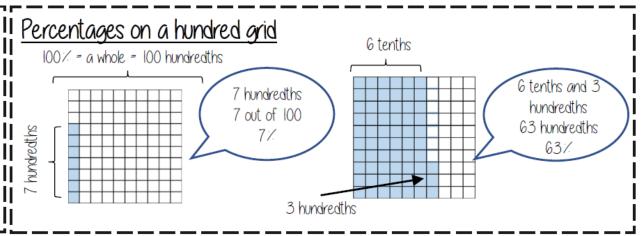
Ratio Tom and Tara share £270 between them in the ratio 2:3.
What else can you find out?

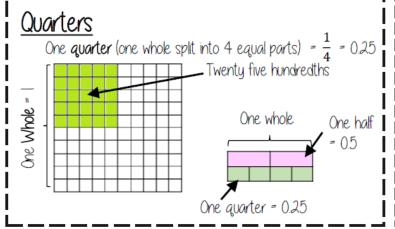


Tom and Tara share some money between them in the ratio 2:3. Tara gets £20 more than Tom. What else can you Tara find out?









Keywords

Numerator: the number above the line on a fraction. The top number. Represents how many parts are taken **Denominator**: the number below the line on a fraction. The number represent the total number of parts.

Whole: a positive number including zero without any decimal or fractional parts.

Commutative: an operation is commutative if changing the order does not change the result.

Unit Fraction: a fraction where the numerator is one and denominator a positive integer.

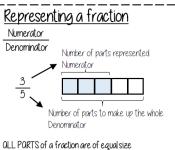
Non-unit Fraction: a fraction where the numerator is larger than one.

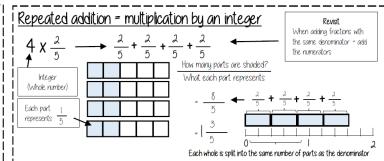
Dividend: the amount you want to divide up.

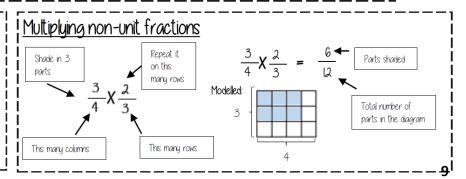
Divisor the number that divides another number.

Quotient: the answer after we divide one number by another e.g. dividend+ divisor = quotient

Reciprocal: a pair of numbers that multiply together to give







EARNING — LOVING — LIVING

Hazard symbols

Scientists often work with chemicals that can cause harm. Clear symbols are used to label chemicals that might be dangerous, so that the appropriate care can be taken. There are two systems that might be used to do this. The older system, CHIP, uses black symbols on an orange background, shown below.















F+: extremely

flammable









N: Dangerous

The international system, (GHS, Globally Harmonised System), uses black symbols on a white background in a red rhombus. These are show below



Safety Equipment

Working with chemicals can pose a risk to health. To ensure that work is carried out as safely as possible, goggles and a lab coat should always be worn during practical work

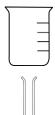
Laboratory equipment

Science as a subject is about studying the world around us. This means that there is a need for lots of specialist equipment to carry out experiments and gather results.

This equipment is often sensitive so that it can detect small changes. This means it must be handled with care to avoid damage.

Containers that will be used to work with or store chemicals are often made of glass. This is because, even though glass can break easily if dropped, it is very chemically stable – it won't react easily with the chemicals being handled.

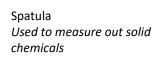
Some examples of laboratory equipment are given below.

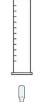


Beaker Used to hold liquids in larger quantities

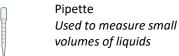


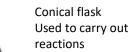
Test tube Used to carry out tests on small quantities





Measuring cylinder Used to measure volumes of liquids



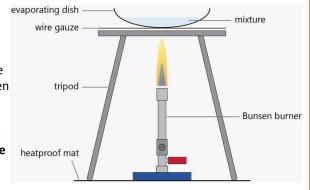




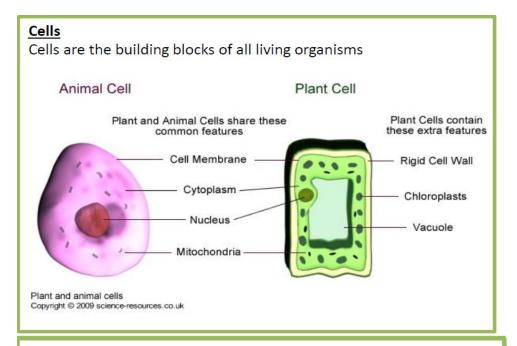
When heating is required for an experiment, **Bunsen** burners are often used. These work by using natural gas to produce a flame that can apply controlled heat to the equipment being heated.

Bunsens are always placed on a heatproof mat before use. When equipment is being heated, a tripod is often used to hold this in place over the flame: a gauze or pipeclay triangle will then support the glassware.

The yellow **safety flame** should never be used to heat equipment, as it leaves sooty residue behind. The blue or nonluminous flame is hotter, and does not leave soot on the equipment.





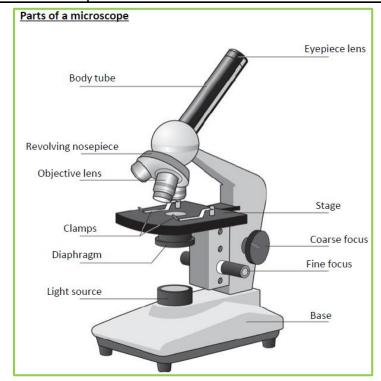


Using a microscope

To view an object down the microscope we can use the following steps:

- 1. Plug in the microscope and turn on the power
- 2. Rotate the objectives and select the lowest power (shortest) one
- 3. Place the specimen to be viewed on the stage and clamp in place
- 4. Adjust the course focus until the specimen comes into view
- 5. Adjust the fine focus until the specimen becomes clear
- 6. To view the specimen in more detail repeat the process using a higher power objective

Key Terms	Function
Stage	Area where specimen is placed
Clamps	Hold the specimen still whilst it is being viewed
Light source	Illuminates the specimen
Objective lens	Magnifies the image of the specimen
Eyepiece lens	Magnifies the image of the specimen
Course/fine focus	Used to focus the specimen so it can be seen clearly
Revolving nosepiece	Holds 2 or more objective lenses





Specialised Cells

Specialised cells are found in multicellular organisms. Each specialised cell has a particular function within the organism.

Type of	Type of Cell		Special Features
	Red blood cell	To carry oxygen	 Large surface area for oxygen to pass through. Contains haemoglobin, which joins with oxygen. Contains no nucleus.
W K	Nerve cell	To carry nerve impulses to different parts of the body	 Long. Connections at each end. Can carry electrical signals.
	Male reproductive cell (sperm cell)	To reach female cell (egg cell) and join with it	 Long tail for swimming. Head for getting into female cell.
	Root hair cell	To absorb water and minerals	Large surface area.
	Leaf cell	To absorb sunlight for photosynthesis	Large surface area.Lots of chloroplasts.

Preparing a microscope slide

To prepare a slide to view onion cells we can use the following steps:

- 1. cut open an onion
- 2. use forceps to peel a thin layer from the inside
- 3. spread out the layer on a microscope slide
- 4. add a drop of iodine solution to the layer
- 5. carefully place a cover slip over the layer

Magnification

We can use the following equation to calculate magnification of an object viewed through a microscope:

$$magnification = \frac{image\ size}{actual\ size}$$

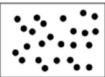
Key Terms	Definition	
Cell wall	Made of cellulose, which supports the cell	
Cell membrane	Controls movement of substances into and out of the cell	
Cytoplasm	Jelly-like substance, where chemical reactions happen	
Nucleus	Contains genetic information and controls what happens inside the cell	
Vacuole	Contains a liquid called cell sap, which keeps the cell firm	
Mitochondria	Where most respiration reactions happen (glucose + oxygen → carbon dioxide + water)	
Chloroplast	Where photosynthesis happens (carbon dioxide + water → glucose + oxygen)	



Key Word	Definition
Atom	The smallest unit of an element.
Element	Substances made out of one type of atom.
Compound	Substances made of two or more different types of atoms, chemically bonded.
Pure	A substance that contains only element or compound
Impure	A substance that contains a mixture of elements and compounds

Elements

- · Elements are substances made up of one type of atom.
- · All 118 elements are found listed in the Periodic Table.
- The atoms in an element can either be single, or go around in pairs. It doesn't matter, as long as the atoms are the same.
- · Elements that go around in pairs are called diatomic elements.

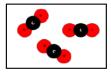




Pure Substances

A substance is pure if it only has **one type** of particle in it e.g. just helium atoms or just carbon dioxide molecules.





Impure Substances

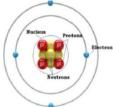
Impure materials are mixtures of different types of particle (covered more in Topic 7).

The first 20 elements and their Chemical symbols

Element	Symbol
Hydrogen	н
Helium	He
Lithium	Li
Beryllium	Ве
Boron	В
Carbon	
Nitrogen	N
Oxygen	0
Fluorine	F
Neon	Ne
Sodium	Na
Magnesium	Mg
Aluminium	Al
Silicon	Si
Phosphorus	Р
Sulfur	S
Chlorine	Cl
Argon	Ar
Potassium	K
Calcium	Ca

Structure of the Atom

- An atom is made up of three subatomic particles: protons, electrons and neutrons.
- · Protons are in the nucleus and have a positive charge.
- · Neutrons are in the nucleus and have no charge.
- Electrons are in the shells and have a negative charge.
- Protons and neutrons are the same size, where electrons have hardly any mass.
- In an atom, there are equal numbers of protons and electrons because the positive and negative charges need to balance.

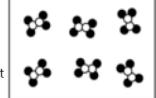


Compounds

- Compounds are substances made up of different elements which are chemically bonded.
- Compounds can be formed by chemically reacting elements together e.g.:

Magnesium + oxygen → magnesium oxide (Element) (Element) (Compound)

- Often, the compound formed has different properties to the elements that make it. E.g. magnesium is a shiny metal, oxygen is a colourless gas and magnesium oxide is a white powder
- In order to separate the elements in a compound you would need to carry out another chemical reaction.
- Compounds are still pure because, although they contain different atoms, those atoms are bonded to make one particle
- · Examples of compounds are:
 - o Carbon dioxide (CO₂)
 - Water (H₂0)
 - Anything else that has more than one element





Energy Stores

Energy is a quantity measured in joules (J). It is NOT a material or 'thing'. Examples of how energy is stored:

- Energy is stored in fuels as chemical potential energy
- Energy is stored in anything elastic when it is stretched, as elastic potential energy
- Energy is stored in any object that has been lifted up from the ground, because the object stores gravitational potential energy
- · Energy is stored in moving objects as kinetic energy
- Energy is stored in any object as thermal energy, also known as heat energy. The higher its temperature, the more thermal energy it stores.

Energy Transfer

An energy transfer is when energy changes from one store to another. VERY IMPORTANTLY, the **total amount of energy does not change**. Energy cannot be created or destroyed. All that can be changed is how it is stored. This idea is called **the law of conservation of energy.**

Energy is transferred, so it changes store, in loads of situations. Examples to know:

- When a fuel is burned, the chemical potential energy in the fuel ends up stored as thermal energy in the surroundings;
- When an object falls off a shelf, the gravitational potential energy it stores is transferred (changed) to kinetic energy while it is falling.
- When the object hits the floor, all the gravitational potential energy it
 had to start with ends up stored as thermal energy in the surroundings.
- When a spring that's been stretched is released, the elastic potential energy it stored is transferred to kinetic energy then to thermal energy.

Key Terms	Definitions
Energy	Energy is a quantity that is stored in all objects. Anything storing energy can do work.
Work	Work is done when energy moves (is transferred) from store to another.
Potential Energy	Potential energy is energy stored in objects thanks to their position.
Chemical potential energy	Energy stored in fuels like wood or the gas for Bunsen burners is called chemical potential energy.
Elastic potential energy	Elastic objects like springs or rubber bands store elastic potential energy when they are stretched.
Gravitational potential energy	Any object that is not on the ground has gravitational potential energy. This is because they are lifted in a gravitational field and could fall down.
Kinetic energy	Any moving object stores kinetic energy. This includes the movement of particles.
Thermal energy	Also known as heat energy. All objects store some thermal energy, because their particles are moving.
Conservation of energy	The law that says energy cannot be created or destroyed, only moved between stores.
Energy transfer	A process where energy changes how it is stored.

Temperature and Thermal Energy

Temperature and thermal energy are linked, but are not the same thing.

- The thermal energy of a material depends on the **potential energy** of the particles AND the **kinetic energy** of the particles it is made from.
- Temperature <u>only</u> depends on the kinetic energy of the particle. The more the particles are moving, the higher the temperature.
- The mass of a material does NOT affect its temperature. However, the larger the mass, the more thermal energy it stores because it contains more particles.



Thermal energy transfer

Thermal energy will always be transferred from hotter objects/areas to cooler objects/areas. This includes hot objects transferring thermal energy to the surroundings (the air, nearby surfaces and so on). Thermal energy transfer continues until thermal equilibrium is reached (the temperature is equal).

You can reduce the amount of thermal energy transferred using insulation.

Thermal energy transfer by infra red radiation

All objects give out some infra red radiation, but the hotter they are the more radiation they give out. All objects can also absorb infra red radiation: when they do, they heat up. Radiation can travel through empty space – so this is how the Sun heats up the Earth.

The colour of the surface of an object affects how rapidly it emits and absorbs infra red radiation. Black, matt surfaces are the best absorbers and emitters. Shiny, silver surfaces are the worst absorbers and emitters.

Thermal energy transfer by conduction

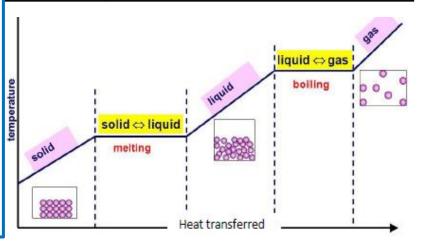
Thermal energy can be transferred between materials that are touching. Thermal energy is still transferred from the hotter object/area to the cooler object/area. This is called conduction of thermal energy. As the diagram shows, the particles in the area at a higher temperature vibrate more: their kinetic energy increases. They bump into neighbouring particles and pass on (transfer) thermal energy.

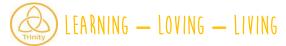
Energy when increasing temperature and when changing state

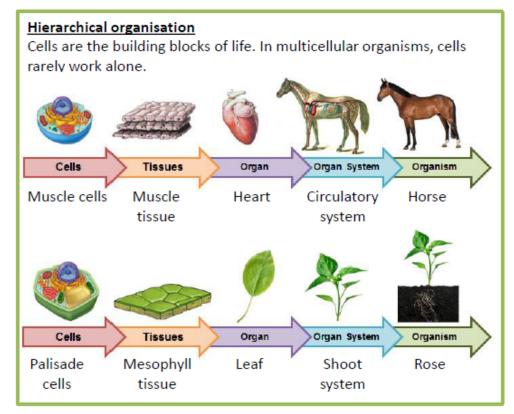
When heating a substance (solid, liquid or gas) and it doesn't change state, its temperature rises. This is because the particles move around more: their kinetic energy increases.

When heating a substance and causing it to change state, its temperature does NOT change during the state change. However, energy cannot disappear. The heat transferred to the substance increases the **potential energy** of the substance: it moves the particles it is made from apart until the substance has melted or boiled.

	T	
Key Terms	Definitions	
temperature	The measure of the average amount of kinetic energy of all the particles in a substance.	
temperature gradient	A difference in temperature between two places. Thermal energy always moves from hotter to colder places or materials.	
thermal equilibrium	A situation where the temperature in two places is equal.	
heat	The energy stored in substances thanks to the energy of their particles. Also called thermal energy.	
conduction	One way that thermal energy can be transferred. Objects that are touching can transfer thermal energy, from the hotter object to the cooler one.	
radiation	Another way that thermal energy can be transferred. All objects give out infra red radiation. Hotter objects give out (emit) infra red radiation that is absorbed by cooler objects.	
emit	To give out	
absorb	To take in	







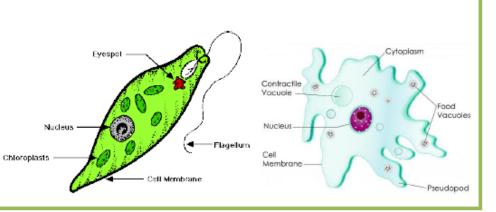
T		
Key Terms	Definitions	
Cell	The building block of life and the smallest structural unit of an organism	
Tissue	A group of cells working together to perform a particular function	
Organ	A group of tissues working together to perform a particular function	
Organ system	A group of organs working together to perform a particular function	
Organism	An individual life form, can be multicellular or unicellular	
Multicellular	Consisting of many cells	
Unicellular	Consisting of just one cell	
Diffusion	The random movement of particles from a high concentration to a lower concentration	

Unicellular Organisms

Unicellular organisms are made up of just one cell. There are no tissues, organs or organ systems. Unicellular organisms often have structural adaptations to help them survive.

Euglena are a unicellular organism. They have a flagellum (tail) to help them move and chloroplasts so they can make their own food.

Amoeba are also unicellular organisms. They form pseudopods (false chloroplasts feet) that let them move about and can surround food so that the cell can take it in.





Safety

- When handling acids and alkalis in the lab we need to take many safety precautions for example wearing goggles.
- If an acid is dilute (lots of water has been added) it will be irritant and cause redness or blistering of the skin.
- If an acid is concentrated it will destroy skin cells.





Hazard Symbol for irritant

Hazard Symbol for Corrosive

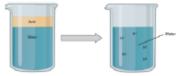
Bases and Alkalis

- Bases are a family of chemicals which neutralise alkalis (more on neutralisation on the next page)
- Alkalis are a type of base. Therefore all alkalis are bases.
- Alkalis dissolve in water and contain OH⁻ ions.
- An example of a base and a base which is an alkali are summarised below

	Copper oxide	Sodium hydroxide
Can it neutralise acids?	Yes	Yes
Is it a base?	Yes	Yes
Can it dissolve in water?	No	Yes
ls it an alkali?	No	Yes

Acids

- Acids are a family of chemicals, examples are lemon juice, vinegar and Coca Cola. There is
 also acid in our stomach.
- Acids contain H⁺ ions, when dissolved in water. This is hydrogen which has lost an
 electron.



- Strong acids like hydrochloric acid are very corrosive this means they destroy skin cells
 and cause burns
- Weak acids like vinegar are safe to eat but are still irritant to sensitive parts of the body.

Key Terms	Definitions
Acid	A substance which forms H ⁺ ions.
Alkali	A soluble base that contains OH ⁻ ions
Base	A substance that will neutralise an acid
The pH scale	A scale which measure how acidic a substance is
Indicator	A chemical which will change colour depending on the acidity of the substance

Indicators

- Indicators are chemicals that show whether a substance is an acid or an alkali
- There are many examples of indicators for example litmus paper and universal indicator
- There are also natural indicators like red cabbage

The pH Scale

- The pH scale measures how strong an acid or alkali is
- The pH scale runs from 0-14
- The pH scale measures the concentration of H⁺ ions, the lower the number the higher the concentration.
- Acids have a pH between 0 and 6, pH 1-3 are strong acids, 4-6 are weak acids
- Alkalis have a pH between 8 and 14, 8-10 weak alkalis, 11-14 strong alkalis
- Anything with a pH of 7 is neutral, for example water





Key Terms	Definitions
Neutralisation	A reaction where an acid and an alkali make a salt and water
Reactant	What you start with in a chemical reaction
Product	What is made in a chemical reaction
Soluble	Will dissolve in water
Insoluble	Does not dissolve in water

Salts

- There are two types of salt that could be made in a neutralisation reaction, soluble or insoluble salt
- Insoluble salts can be separated using filtration
- · Soluble salts dissolve in water and can be separated using evaporation



Chemical Reactions

- In chemical reactions, what we start with is know as the reactants and what we make is known as the products.
- We can show reactants and products in a word equation
 Acid +Alkali → Salt + Water

Reactants Product

Neutralisation

- When an acid reacts with a base a neutralisation reaction occurs, this
 means what you make has a pH of 7.
- When a neutralisation reaction happens the products are a salt and water.
 (See below for how to name a salt)
- There are many examples of neutralisation reactions, for example a wasp sting is alkali so we add vinegar (an acid) to it to neutralise it.
- Farmers also spread alkalis onto fields to neutralise the acid in the soil.
- Another example is indigestion when there is to much acid in our stomach, we neutralise this with alkali tablets

Salts

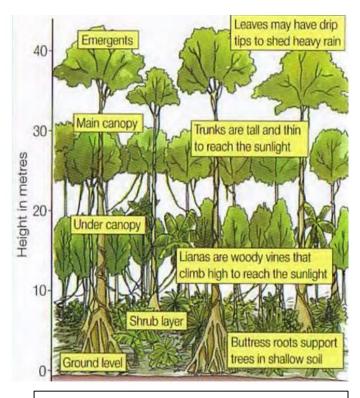
- · When a neutralisation reaction happens a salt is made
- To name a salt you need to use the alkali to form the first part of the name and the acid
 to form the second part of the name
- Hydrochloric acid makes chlorides
- Nitric acid make nitrates
- · Sulphuric acid makes sulphates

Alkali	Acid	Salt?
Calcium hydroxide	Hydrochloric acid	Calcium Chloride
Magnesium oxide	Nitric acid	Magnesium Nitrate
Calcium carbonate	Sulphuric acid	Calcium Sulphate
Aluminium hydroxide	Nitric acid	Aluminum Nitrate
Potassium hydroxide	Sulphuric acid	Potassium Sulphate

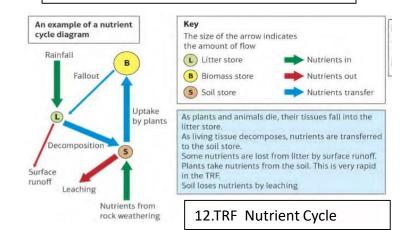
ſ	Examples of neutralisation reactions				
	Reactants	General equation	Example		
	Acid and Alkali	Acid +Alkali → Salt + Water	Sodium Hydroxide + Sulphuric Acid → Sodium Sulphate + Water		
	Acid and Metal Carbonate → Salt + Water +Carbon Dioxide		Hydrochloric acid + Magnesium Carbonate → Magnesium Chloride + Carbon Dioxide + Water		
	Acid and metal Oxide	Acid + Metal Oxide → Salt +Water	Sulphuric acid +Calcium Oxide → Calcium Sulphate + Water		



1	Tropical Rainforest	A tropical rainforest biome is found in hot, humid environments in equatorial climates. They contain the most diverse range and highest volume of plant and animal life found anywhere on earth
2	Biome	A large scale ecosystem like a Tropic Rainforest
3	Ecosystem	A localized biome made up of living and non living environment
4	Food web	A complex network of overlapping food chains that connect plants and animals in biomes.
5	Biotic	Living part of the biome made of flora (plants) and fauna (animals)
6	Abiotic	The non-living part of a biome includes the atmosphere, water, rock and soil.
7	Services	Often invisible processes that enable the biosphere to function i.e. atmospheric regulation and water purification.
8	Goods	Physical material that are of value to us such as crops, timber, oil, coal and gas.
9	Indigenous	Original populations; the oldest communities in the world.
10	Greenhous e effect	Gases like carbon dioxide and methane that trap heat around the Earth, leading to global warming,



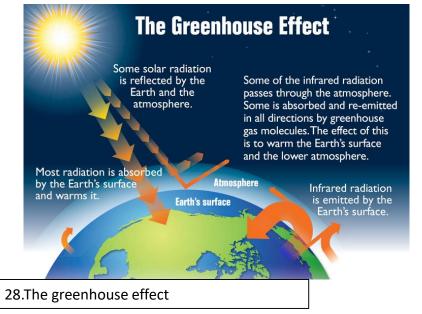
11.Layers of a Tropical Rainforest





	Brazil Key Facts		UK Facts for comparison
13	Continent	South America	Europe
14	Level of affluence	Emerging Country	Developed
15	GDP per capita	\$8902 US	\$39 720 US
16	Population	209.3 million	66.4 million
17	Percentage living in urban areas	79.5%	82%
18	Fertility Rate	2.18	1.8
19	Infant mortality rate	16 per 1000 live births	3.8 per 1000 live births.
20	Average age	31.3 years	40
21	Percentage working in the tertiary sector	70%	79%

	Amazon Rainforest Key Facts		
No,	Size	Biggest rainforest in the world. 5.5 km ²	
22	Biodiversity Most biodiversity land based biome. Contains 10% of all the world's species.		
23	Number of mammals	427	
24	Number of insects	2.5 million	
25	Number of birds	1500	
26	Number of plant species	40 000	
27	Level of deforestation	8000m² per year	





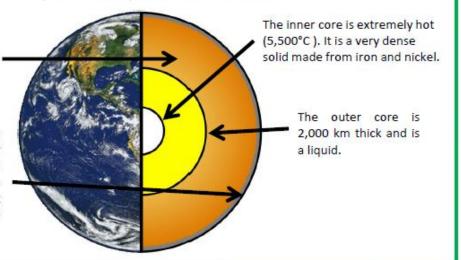
To know the structure of the earth and to know why its unstable

The earth's structure:

The Earth has four main layers: the inner core, the outer core, the mantle and the crust.

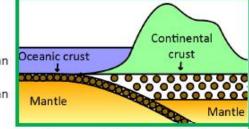
The mantle is semi-molten and about 3,000 km thick. The closer the mantle is to the core, the more liquid it is.

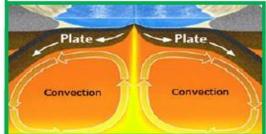
The crust is the rocky outer layer. It is thin compared to the other sections, approximately 5 to 70 km thick. If the Earth was scaled down to the size of an apple, the crust would be about the thickness of the apple skin.



The earth's crust:

- The earth's crust is broken up into plates, called tectonic plates.
- There are two types of tectonic plate oceanic and continental.
- Oceanic plates carry the oceans. They are thinner but more dense than continental plates.
- Continental plates carry the land. They are thicker but less dense than oceanic plates.





- Heat from the core causes convection currents in the mantle. These
 cause the mantle to move as it heats and cools.
- These currents slowly move the crust around.
- In some places the crust is destroyed. In other places new crust is formed.

Key words and terms:

Crust:

The rocky outer layer of the earth, made up of oceanic and continental crust.

Mantle:

Semi-molten rock, moving beneath the earth's crust. It is the movement (convection currents) in the mantle which cause tectonic plates to move

Outer core:

A 2000km thick liquid made up largely of iron and nickel.

Inner Core:

A dense solid of extreme temperature (5,500°C) made up of iron and nickel.

Tectonic plates:

Huge plates (oceanic and continental) that make up the earth's crust, and which move because of convection currents.

Convection currents:

Currents in the mantle which cause the tectonic plates to move, caused by extreme heat from the earth's core.

Dense:

When something is closely packed together.

Molten:

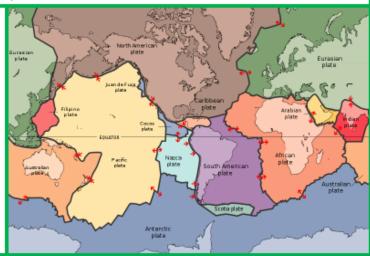
Something which is melted and has become a liquid.



To describe conservative, constructive and destructive plate boundaries.

Plate boundaries:

- The Earth's crust is broken into different plates, which sit on the Earth's mantle.
- These plates move because of convection currents.
- The plates move in different directions and meet at plate boundaries.
- As the plates move, parts of the crust are destroyed and in other areas new crust is created.



Different types of plate boundary:

- There are three different types of plate boundary: destructive, constructive and conservative. Which type they
 are depends on how the plates move at this boundary.
- Different plates boundaries have different landforms, such as volcanoes and fold mountains.

Boundary	Movement	Diagram	Example	Landforms
Destructive	The plates either collide or the oceanic plate subducts under the continential plate.	$\Rightarrow \leftarrow$	The Nazca plate being forced under the South American plate.	Volcanoes Fold mountains Earthquakes
Constructive	The plates move apart.	\Leftrightarrow	The African plate and the South American plate.	Volcanoes
Conservative	The plates move alongside each other.	₽	The Pacific plate and the North American plate.	Earthquakes

Key words and terms:

Plate boundaries:

Where two or more tectonic plates meet.

Conservative:

A plate boundary where two plates slide past one another.

Constructive:

A plate boundary where two plates are moving apart.

Destructive:

A plate boundary where two plates are colliding.

Magma:

Molten rock from the mantle before it reaches the surface of the earth.

Lava:

Molten rock released from the earth's core by a volcano.

Fold Mountains:

Mountains formed at collision zones, where two continental plates move towards each other.

Volcano:

A vent in the earth's crust from which lava, ash and gas is released.

Earthquake:

A sudden shaking of the ground, caused by movement in the earth's crust.



To describe conservative, constructive and destructive plate boundaries.

Volcanoes:

- Volcanoes are a vent in the earth's crust from which lava, ash and gas is released.
- Most volcanoes form at destructive and constructive plate boundaries.
- Volcanoes do not form at conservative boudaries.
- If a volcano forms at a plate boundary, they are either composite or shield volcanoes.
- Of these two types, volcanoes can be active, dormant or extinct.

Composite and shield volcanoes:

There are a number of key differences between composite and shield volcanoes.

	Composite	Shield	
Diagram	Lava Auh	Fluid Israel Gentle	
Shape	Steep sides.	Gentle sides.	-
Plate boundary	Form at destructive plate boundaries.	Form at constructive plate boundaries.	
Lava	Thick lava.	Thin, runny lava.	1
Eruptions	Eruptions happen less often but are usually violent. The eruption consists of ash, pyroclastic flow and lava.	Eruptions happen often but they are usually quite gentle . The eruption is mainly lava , with little pyroclastic flow .	
Example	Mount Vesuvius in Naples, Italy. Mount St. Helens, USA	Mauna Loa in Hawaii. La Cumbre, The Galapagos Islands	

Key words and terms:

Magma chamber:

A large underground pool of magma.

Lava:

Magma, once it reaches the surface.

Crater:

A bowl-shaped basin in the top of the volcano.

Vent:

The central tube which magma travels through.

Cone:

A hill produced around a volcano by the eruption of lava and ash.

Pyroclastic flow:

A mass of hot ash, gases and lava fragments which is ejected from a volcano at great speeds.

Active:

Volcanoes which erupt frequently.

Dormant:

Volcanoes which have not recently erupted by which can still erupt.

Extinct:

A volcano which is unlikely to ever erupt again.

YFAR 7- MICHAFIMAS TERM- HISTORY - PRF 1066 AND NORMAN INVASION



ii / — IIICIINEEIIN	S TERM- HISTORY — PRE TOOD AND NORMAN INVASION			Trinity LLM MINU — LOT MO — LITTI
Key Terms			Key people	
Medieval	The period between 1066-1500	1 Edward the Confessor: 1042-1066		Confessor: 1042-1066
Chronology	Putting events in the order that they happened			came king of England in 1042 after his half-brother died. Before this he had
Century	100 years			narried but had no children. It was not clear who Edward wanted to be king
Source	Something from the time which we can use to find out about the past.		after him. For a king to die without an heir was a disaster! • He was made a saint and 'the confessor' means someone that is saint-like but not martyr.	
Celts	The dominant population of Britain before the arrival of the Romans and Anglo-Saxons			
Romans	Group who ruled England after invading from 40AD. They left around 410AD due to invasions in their homeland.	2	Harald Hardrada -Viking King of Norway -Vikings had ruled Britain beforeMost feared warrior in Europe —Hardrada means 'hard ruler' and his nickname w Ruthless'Harald was supported by Tostig, Harold Godwinson's brother who wanted revens	
Anglo-Saxons	People who lived in Britain from the 5th century. They included people from Germanic tribes who migrated to the island from Europe.			
Vikings	Originally from Scandinavia, a vicious warriors group who invaded and settled from around 800AD	3	Harold God	<u>winson</u>
Longboats	The Viking ships that combined oars and sails		-Anglo-Saxon. Earl of Wessex, one of the most powerful men in England -Harold's sister was married to King Edward. Harold was a brave and respected	
Danegeld	A large sum of money, given to Vikings to prevent further invasions.		with a toug	h streak.
Shires	The individual counties that the Anglo-Saxons divided England into		,	wanted Harold to be the next king.
Earl	Noble title used by the Anglo-Saxons use to describe the ruler of a county	4	William of Normandy -Duke of Normandy, France.	
Heir	a person who is legally allowed to take the rank and property of someone who has died.		-Edward's c	me from a fighting family. He was a brave solider. ousin. Edward had lived in Normandy from 1016-1042. Edward had
Witan	Kings Council, made up of powerful Bishops and Earls, helped the king run the country	Key	supposedly promised that William should become King of England Key events	
Normans	People from the Normandy region of France, led by King William	1	Battle of	-The battle where the Anglo-Saxons defeat the Vikings in September 1066.
Bayeux Tapestry	An embroidery telling the story of the Norman Conquest		Stamford Bridge	-It took the Anglo-Saxon army 4 days to march to meet the Vikings, once they had invaded northeast England -Harold Godwinson was betrayed by his brother Tostig by joining the Vikings
Conquest	Taking an area by using force		Pattle of	- The battle took place in October, 1066
Fyrd	Local farmers that fight for Harold Godwinson's army		Hastings	-The winds suddenly changed at the end of September, allowing William's Norman
Housecarls	Paid, experienced soldiers that fought for Harold's army			army to invade -William's heavily armored soldiers on horseback, Knights, were used throughout the
Cavalry	William's soldiers that fought on horses			battlesHarold's army positioned themselves at the start of the battle on top of Senlac Hill
Harrying	To completely destroy			-The Normans carried out a Fake Retreat to tempt the Saxons away from their high ground?
Pope	Head of the Catholic Church			-According to the Bayeux Tapestry, Harold Godwinson died by being shot with an
Villein	A type of peasant.			arrow to the eye -According to the first account, Harold Godwinson died by being disemboweled by
				Norman knights
	erms Medieval Chronology Century Source Celts Romans Anglo-Saxons Vikings Longboats Danegeld Shires Earl Heir Witan Normans Bayeux Tapestry Conquest Fyrd Housecarls Cavalry Harrying Pope	Medieval The period between 1066-1500 Chronology Putting events in the order that they happened Century 100 years Source Something from the time which we can use to find out about the past. Celts The dominant population of Britain before the arrival of the Romans and Anglo-Saxons Romans Group who ruled England after invading from 40AD. They left around 410AD due to invasions in their homeland. Anglo-Saxons People who lived in Britain from the 5th century. They included people from Germanic tribes who migrated to the island from Europe. Vikings Originally from Scandinavia, a vicious warriors group who invaded and settled from around 800AD Longboats The Viking ships that combined oars and sails Danegeld A large sum of money, given to Vikings to prevent further invasions. Shires The individual counties that the Anglo-Saxons divided England into Earl Noble title used by the Anglo-Saxons use to describe the ruler of a county Heir a person who is legally allowed to take the rank and property of someone who has died. Witan Kings Council, made up of powerful Bishops and Earls, helped the king run the country Normans People from the Normandy region of France, led by King William Bayeux Tapestry An embroidery telling the story of the Norman Conquest Conquest Taking an area by using force Fyrd Local farmers that flight for Harold Godwinson's army Housecarls Paid, experienced soldiers that fought for Harold's army William's soldiers that fought on horses Harrying To completely destroy Pope Head of the Catholic Church	Medieval The period between 1066-1500 Chronology Putting events in the order that they happened Century 100 years Source Something from the time which we can use to find out about the past. Celts The dominant population of Britain before the arrival of the Romans and Anglo-Saxons Romans Group who ruled England after invading from 40AD. They left around 410AD due to invasions in their homeland. Anglo-Saxons People who lived in Britain from the 5th century. They included people from Germanic tribes who migrated to the island from Europe. Vikings Originally from Scandinavia, a vicious warriors group who invaded and settled from around 800AD Longboats The Viking ships that combined oars and sails Danegeld A large sum of money, given to Vikings to prevent further invasions. Shires The individual counties that the Anglo-Saxons divided England into Earl Noble title used by the Anglo-Saxons use to describe the ruler of a county Heir a person who is legally allowed to take the rank and property of someone who has died. Witan Kings Council, made up of powerful Bishops and Earls, helped the king run the country Normans People from the Normandy region of France, led by King William Bayeux Tapestry An embroidery telling the story of the Norman Conquest Conquest Taking an area by using force Fyrd Local farmers that fight for Harold Godwinson's army Housecarls Paid, experienced soldiers that fought for Harold's army William's soldiers that fought on horses Harrying To completely destroy Pope Head of the Catholic Church	Medieval The period between 1066-1500 Chronology Putting events in the order that they happened Century 100 years Source Something from the time which we can use to find out about the past. Celts The dominant population of Britain before the arrival of the Romans and Anglo-Saxons Romans Group who ruled England after invading from 40AD. They left around 410AD due to invasions in their homeland. Anglo-Saxons People who lived in Britain from the 5th century. They included people from Germanic tribes who migrated to the island from Europe. Vikings Originally from Scandinavia, a vicious warriors group who invaded and settled from around 800AD Longboats The Viking ships that combined oars and sails Danegeld Alarge sum of money, given to Vikings to prevent further invasions. Shires The individual counties that the Anglo-Saxons divided England into Earl Noble title used by the Anglo-Saxons use to describe the ruler of a county Helir a person who is legally allowed to take the rank and property of someone who has died. Witan Kings Council, made up of powerful Bishops and Earls, helped the king run the country Normans People from the Normandy region of France, led by King William Bayeux Tapestry An embroidery telling the story of the Norman Conquest Taking an area by using force Fyrd Local farmers that fight for Harold Godwinson's army Housecarls Paid, experienced soldiers that fought for Harold's army Cavalry William's soldiers that fought for Harold's army Pope Head of the Catholic Church

	Key people		
1	Edward the Confessor: 1042-1066 -Edward became king of England in 1042 after his half-brother died. Before this he had been living in Normandy. • Edward married but had no children. It was not clear who Edward wanted to be king after him. For a king to die without an heir was a disaster! • He was made a saint and 'the confessor' means someone that is saint-like but not a martyr.		
2	Harald Hardrada -Viking King of Norway -Vikings had ruled Britain beforeMost feared warrior in Europe –Hardrada means 'hard ruler' and his nickname was 'the Ruthless'Harald was supported by Tostig, Harold Godwinson's brother who wanted revenge.		
3	Harold Godwinson -Anglo-Saxon. Earl of Wessex, one of the most powerful men in England -Harold's sister was married to King Edward. Harold was a brave and respected solder with a tough streak. -The Witan, wanted Harold to be the next king.		
4	William of Normandy -Duke of Normandy, FranceWilliam came from a fighting family. He was a brave soliderEdward's cousin. Edward had lived in Normandy from 1016-1042. Edward had supposedly promised that William should become King of England		
Key	events		
1	Battle of Stamford Bridge	-The battle where the Anglo-Saxons defeat the Vikings in September 1066It took the Anglo-Saxon army 4 days to march to meet the Vikings, once they had invaded northeast England -Harold Godwinson was betrayed by his brother Tostig by joining the Vikings	
2	Battle of Hastings	- The battle took place in October, 1066 -The winds suddenly changed at the end of September, allowing William's Norman army to invade -William's heavily armored soldiers on horseback, Knights, were used throughout the battlesHarold's army positioned themselves at the start of the battle on top of Senlac Hill -The Normans carried out a Fake Retreat to tempt the Saxons away from their high	

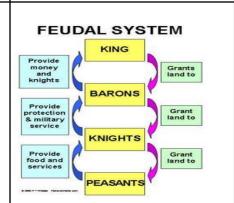


Key Terms				
1	Feudal system	The social structure of Medieval England		
2	Villein	Peasant at the bottom of the Feudal system		
3	Baron	Noble land owner that pledged their loyalty to the King		
4	Normans	People from the Normandy region of France, led by King William		
5	Motte and Bailey	The first type of castle made by William. It was made out of wood and had a higher Motte part and a lower Bailey part		
6	Stone Keep castle	Similar to Motte and Bailey but made of stronger materials such as stone		
7	Taxes	Money collected from people by the King		
8	Pope	Head of the Catholic Church		
9	Hierarchy	Form of social organisation ranks people according to status or power		
10	Loyalty	Giving something to someone in return for something else.		
11	Harrying	To completely destroy		
12	Domesday book	vitally important book did William the Conqueror commission in 1086		
13	Baron	rank came just below the king in the feudal system, and ruled land on his behalf		
14	Vassal	anyone below you in the feudal system		
15	Peasant	usually a farm labourer, was at the bottom of medieval society		
16	Westminster Abbey	Where William the Conqueror was crowned king of England.		

Key changes

The Feudal System

- -William also sets up the **Feudal System**. This forces the English to give William their taxes and promises of **loyalty**, in return for protection and land to farm.
- -It is based on a system of hierarchy
- -William is at the top of the system, as he holds all the land and money, which he gives to the Barons.
- -They promise William their money, soldiers and loyalty. They give the land to the Knights in return for loyalty and military service.
- -Finally the knights give the land to the peasants. The peasants farm the land and give food, money and services to the knights.



2 Harrying of the North

- -Took place in 1069, following an Anglo-Saxon rebellion in Durham. After taking the throne in 1066, William did not trust the English lords, who do not like him. He had to force the English to accept him as King and many of the English are rebelling and fighting against him.
- **-To stop rebellions and show his power,** William crushes the rebellions and took the land away from the English lords and gave it to his supporters instead. William now has his supporters helping him to control the whole country.

3 The Domesday Book

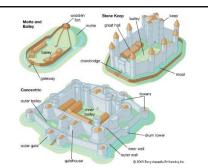
- In 1086, William sent out surveyors to every part of England, with orders to list:
- -How much land was there
- -Who had owned it in 1066 and who owned it now
- -What was the place like, and who lived there
- -How much it was worth in 1066 and how much now
- William did this to allow him to effectively tax the land and earn money. William also needed to have an idea of what could be seized from landowners who did not show him loyalty. All of this was recorded in the Domesday Book.

4 <u>Castles</u>

William also kept control by building castles.

Motte and Bailey – The first castles built to help fight against rebellions. They were built quickly and made out of wood, meaning that they were not very strong, and could be easily destroyed.

Stone Keep – This castle was now made out of stone and had towers as a form of defence. The main part of the castle was the Keep.



YEAR 7— MICHAELMAS TERM- HISTORY — MEDIEVAL CHURCH



Key	Terms	
1	Heaven	A place where those that have lived a pure life or have paid in purgatory can go and live with God.
2	Hell	a place where people go after death if their sins are so terrible.
3	Purgatory	People will pay for their sins here before going to either heaven or hell.
4	Doom painting	A painting that depicted heaven and hell and were used in churches for people who could not understand Latin.
5	Succession	The person that will become King after the current King has died.
6	Crusades	Religious wars in which crusaders from Europe set out to fight Muslim Turks for control over the Holy Lands.
7	Jerusalem	Was the most important city on earth for Christians and Muslims during the period as it was the place where Jesus had lived, been crucified and buried.
8	Holy Land	The area linked to the life of Jesus.
9	Pilgrimage	A religious journey undertaken to clear your sins.
10	Indulgence	A certificate purchased from the church to clear your sins.
11	Pope	Leader of the Catholic church throughout the world. Lives in Rome.
12	Archbishop	Leader of the church in England. They would often be appointed by the monarch and are responsible for church matters across England.
13	Laity/Parishoners	Ordinary people who attend church. They fall at the bottom of the church hierarchy.
14	Monk	A man who devotes his life to serving God.
15	Nun	A woman who devotes her life to serving God.
16	Monastery	a building or buildings occupied by a community of monks living under religious vows.
17	Nunnery/convent	A building or buildings occupied by a community of nuns living under religious vows.
18	Cathedral	Large church.
19	Bishop	The leader of the church in a local area. There were 17 bishops in the Medieval Church, each based at a cathedral.

Key	Key idea— Importance of the Medieval Church			
1	People's lives	Most people in the Middle Ages lived their lives fully believing in the reality of a spiritual realm all around them, and in heaven or hell when they died		
2	Services	The Church provided for people's religious lives – baptism of babies, marriages, confession, the last rites for the dying and burying the dead. The church was much more than a place to go to pray or look for guidance		
2	Care	Monasteries and nunneries looked after the old and sick, provided somewhere for travellers to stay, gave alms to the poor and sometimes looked after people's money for them. Monasteries had running water and good toilet facilities.		
3	Schools	Monks could often read and write, so they copied books and documents and taught children. Monasteries often had libraries. The Church put on processions and 'miracle plays'.		
4	Politics	The Church played a big part in government. Bishops sat in the House of Lords. They could raise an army for the king in times of war		

Cas	Case study – Thomas Beckets Death			
1	Henry II	King in 1154 following the period called 'the anarchy' where many people were competing for the throne.		
2	Thomas Beckett	Appointed by Henry II as chancellor, his role was to look after the church and king's courts. He later was appointed Archbishop and was tasked with making the courts fairer		
2	King vs Church	In the Middle Ages, it was unclear whether the King had more power than the Church. This was demonstrated in the story of Thomas Becket.		
3	Problem 1	Henry wanted Becket to force priests to use the King's Courts, instead of getting away with light punishments in the church courts. He also wanted Becket to help him control the bishops.		
4	Problem 2	Becket refused to do this, the two men fell out. In a rage, Henry shouted "Will no one rid me of this troublesome priest?".		
5	The death	A group of knights overheard him and murdered Becket. Henry was horrified when he heard of Becket's death and ordered monks to whip him to show he was sorry.		



Marri Marri	Manufac	V and W and	
Key Word Religion	Meaning The belief in and worship of a superhuman	<u>Key Word</u> Anointed	Meaning The application of oil in a
Keligion	controlling power, especially a personal God	Anomited	religious ceremony, usually
	or gods.		performed by a religious leader
	0. 80.00.		on a person being blessed
Symbol	A thing that represents or stands for	Yaweh	Hebrew name for God
Syllibol	something else, especially a material object	lawell	Tiebrew Harrie for God
	representing something abstract		
Fact	A fact is verifiable This means that we can	Nature worship	A religious, spiritual and
	determine whether something is true by		devotional practices that focus on
	researching the evidence. This may involve		the worship of the nature spirits.
	numbers, dates or testimonies.		то постория
Opinion	An opinion is a judgment based on facts, an	Baal	A god worshipped in many
	honest attempt to draw a reasonable		ancient Middle Eastern
	conclusion from factual evidence. An		communities, especially among
	opinion can change depending on how the		Canaanites.
	evidence is interpreted.		
Belief	A belief is a conviction based on cultural or	Pagan	A person holding religious beliefs
	personal faith, morality or values. Belief is		other than those of the main
	thinking that something is true without		world religions
- 11	having actual proof or evidence.	n1 1	
Faith	Faith is a strong belief in the principles of a	Pilgrimage	Religious journey
	religion, based on spiritual conviction rather		
Monotheist	than scientific proof. A religion which believes in one God	Successor	A person following (succeeding)
ic	A religion which believes in one dou	346663301	another
	A branch of the Christian Church	Theological	Relating to the study of the
on			nature of God and religious belief
Prophet	A person who speaks in the name of God.	Divinity	The state or quality of being
	·		divine (like God)
Sin	Any action against God	Transcendent	Beyond or above normal or
	, •		physical human experience
Original sin	First sin in the world committed by Adam	Transfiguration	A complete change of form or
	and Eve which means all humans are born		appearance into a more beautiful
	with this in them.		or spiritual state
Patriarchs	Biblical figures regarded as fathers of the	Repent	feel or express sincere regret or
	human race		remorse about one's wrongdoing
			or sin.
Gentile	Not Jewish	Omnipotent	All powerful
Covenant	An agreement between two parties	Missionary	A person sent on a religious
			mission, especially one sent to
			promote Christianity in a foreign
			country

BOX 1 – What is religion and Religious Education?

Religion is the experience and expression of faith. Religious Education is about finding out about other people's beliefs. Religious Education is about understanding our own thoughts about the world and how we act.

Why is it important to learn about religion?

- It helps us understand the meaning of religious stories, symbols, events and pictures
- It shows us how religion *influences* individuals, families, communities and cultures
- It helps us understand the political and social impact of religion
- It helps us reflect on issues of justice and truth
- It provokes questions about the meaning of life
- It offers opportunities for personal reflection
- It helps us tackle extremism and religious discrimination

It gives you the time to reflect on your own faith and grow and develop your own beliefs and values	90% of the people in the world are still religious, and RE can help us understand what's important to them	R.E can help us answer "BIG" questions about the world
R.E can teach me about self-REspect and REspecting others	The U.K has become a multicultural society, and R.E helps us understand other cultures	R.E can help us understand what it means to be 'British' in the 21st century
R.E is both an academic and 'hands on' subject, with a worthwhile qualification at the end	R.E gives me the opportunity to share my opinions in a meaningful way	R.E can help me understand global issues, and become more involved as a global citizen



The Bible

- The Christian holy book is the <u>Bible</u> and this is the most important <u>source of authority</u> for Christians, as it contains the teachings of God and <u>Jesus Christ</u>.
- All Christians, regardless of <u>denomination</u>, regard the Bible as the starting point for guidance about their faith. For Catholics it contains 73 books and is split into the **Old Testament** and the **New Testament**.

The Old Testament also contains examples of:

- other people that Christians can learn from, eg Job
- prayers and songs that are used in worship eg psalms (<u>Song of</u>
 Solomon is a type of love poetry and part of the Wisdom tradition)
- passages that are regarded as <u>prophecies</u> of the Messiah, such as Isaiah chapter 53

BOX 2 - Source of authority

Most people have *sources of authority* they go to for **help** or **guidance** when making a decisions about what to do. The **Christian Bible** is a source of authority for Christians where Christians seek guidance and help.

Sources of authority - The Bible

Christianity is a **monotheistic** religion and for all Christians, the basis of all authority is God. Christian leaders seek guidance from the Bible and their understanding of Biblical teachings which derive from the **word of God**. The Bible is the **most important** source of authority for Christians since it contains the teachings of God and Jesus Christ.

BOX 4 - Why is the Old Testament important to the writers of the New Testament?

The Old Testament is important to the writers of the New Testament because:

- The New Testament is built on the foundation of the Old Testament, they form one complete story, the story of God's deep love for mankind and his plan for humanity.
- Jesus saw his own passion, death and resurrection predicted in the Old Testament, he said "everything that is written by the Prophets about the Son of man is to come true." (Luke 18:31-32)
- To understand Jesus who was a Jew, we also need to understand his Jewish past.
- The Old Testament was Jesus' Bible, the New Testament had not yet been written. Jesus found fuel for his mission, ministry and prayer.
- Jesus prayer book was the book of the Psalms.
 Knowing that the Old Testament was the source for much of Jesus' prayer leads Christian to want to discover the riches of those Scriptures which nourished Jesus spiritually.

BOX 3 - The Old Testament (OT)

The Old Testament is a collection of books written before the life of Jesus. It contains the rules which Christians should live by. It is believed by most Christians and religious Jews to be the sacred **Word of God**.

Importance to Christians

- It reveals God, that there is a Creator and that God is in control of everything
- It reveals the character of God, what God is like
- Christians learn that God is a God of love
- The Ten Commandments show Christians how to live God's way. This helps Christians understand how to act according to God's will.
- It reveals that humanity is created in God's image to be like him
- Christians learn that sin brings suffering but also that God is forgiving if we repent and ask for forgiveness
- Christians learn about God's plan, about the coming savior, Jesus, which gives Christians hope.



BOX 5 - Creation according to Genesis 1.1-2.3:

In the beginning - God started creation

Day 1 - light was created

Day 2 - the sky was created

Day 3 - dry land, seas, plants and trees were created

Day 4 - the Sun, Moon and stars were created

Day 5 - creatures that live in the sea and creatures that fly were created

Day 6 - animals that live on the land and finally humans, made in the image of God were created

Day 7 - God finished his work of creation and rested, making the seventh day a special holy day

BOX 6 - Different Christian beliefs about Creation

Literalist believe that the Genesis story is literally true, that the world was created in 6 24 hour days exactly as it is told in the Bile.

Non-literalists don't understand the Creation literally. They believe it was six periods of time — not six 24 hour periods of time. Non-literalists can believe in the Big Bang and Evolution and that God made this happen.

BOX 7 - Genesis 2 - how God created man, Adam from dust and Eve from Adam's rib. This is an important part of Genesis; this is why Christians recognise man and wife, through Adam and Eve's union: "they shall be one flesh".

<u>Genesis 3 - The Fall</u> The fall describes how the first man and woman change from innocent obedience to God to a state of guilty disobedience. They were tempted by the Devil to eat the forbidden fruit. This links to the **original sin**, the fall brought sin into the world so all humans are born into original sin, a state from which they cannot attain eternal life without the grace of God.

BOX 8 – Important people in the Old Testament

Noah: The survivor of God's great flood. Noah is important because he built the large ark that saved the human race and the animal kingdom from destruction. Noah is important because he is the forerunner to Abraham, because Noah represents the first instance of God's attempt to form a covenant with humanity through one person.

Abraham - The patriarch of the Hebrew people, traditionally called "Father Abraham" because the Israelite people and their religion descend from him. God established his covenant with Abraham, and God develops an ongoing relationship with the Israelites through Abraham's descendants. Abraham is important because he practiced the monotheistic worship of God, and his resilient faith in God set the pattern for the Israelite religion's view of righteousness.

Moses – Moses is important because he is the saviour of Israel in its migration from Egyptian to the promised land. Moses mediates between God and the people, transforming the Israelites from an oppressed ethnic group into a nation founded on religious laws. Moses is the only man ever to know God "face to face."

David - The king of Israel and the founder of Jerusalem. David's reign marks the high point of Israel in the Bible. Although David's claim to the throne is threatened by Saul and by David's own son, Absalom, David maintains his power by blending smart political maneuvering with a generous and forgiving treatment of his enemies. David brought the Ark of the Covenant—Israel's symbol of God—to the capital of Jerusalem.

Elijah – A prophet who opposed the worship of the god Baal in Israel. After the division of Israel into two kingdoms, Elijah and his successor Elisha represent the last great spiritual heroes before Israel's exile.

Jonah - a prophet of the northern kingdom of Israel in about the 8th century BCE. Jonah was an Israelite whom God had called to be a prophet but who refused to accept his divine mission to encourage people of Nineveh to repent their sins. The story teaches Christians about ability to repent and be forgiven by God.

Isaiah - a Hebrew prophet born in Jerusalem, Israel who prophesised the coming of the Messiah Jesus Christ.



BOX 1 - Christian Beliefs about God.

- 1. Christians base their beliefs about God on the Bible, the official teachings of the Church, the views of Christian leaders and their personal experience.
- 2. Christianity is a **monotheistic** religion which is a belief that there is only one God.
- 3. Christianity teaches that God is transcendent which means that God is above and beyond anything else that exists on Earth.
- 4. God is seen as a supreme being who has supernatural powers that defy the physical laws of the universe; he is therefor considered divine.
- 5. God is referred to as holy and sacred which means he is extremely special and set apart from human beings and worthy of upmost respect.
- 6. Christians believe God has no gender as male and female are human and not divine.

BOX 2 PART 1 - The Trinity (1)

- 7. One of the ways Christians explain the different characteristics and qualities of God is through a teaching known as the **Doctrine of Trinity**. It is unique and fundamental to Christian belief.
- 8. Christians believe that God has appeared in the world in three ways; the Father, Son and Holy Spirit.
- 9. Christians do NOT believe there are three Gods but believe that all three are equal but distinct persons within the **Oneness of one God** which is called the Trinity.

BOX 2 PART 2:

The Son:

God the Son was sent to Earth in human form to save humans. His death on the cross was a sacrifice for the sins of humanity which allows them to be reunited with God. Jesus Christ is the incarnation of God on Earth: "The Word became flesh and made his dwelling among us"

The Holy Spirit

- Some of the evidence which suggests Jesus was a divine figure comes from the many passages in the Bible where the Holy Spirit is connected to Jesus in some way. Christians believe that:
- Jesus was conceived by the Holy Spirit
- the dove at the baptism of Jesus was the Holy Spirit
- Jesus was able to heal through the power of the Holy Spirit

"So God so loved the world that he gave his one and only Son, that whoever believes in him shall not perish but have eternal life"

BOX 3 - The Trinity (2)

10. Christians believe that each part of the Trinity performs a special function.

- God as the Father created Heaven and Earth.
- God as the Son, Jesus is the saviour of the World. He is believed to be the Messiah promised in Jewish scripture.
- God as the Holy Spirit is an invisible spiritual power, which guides, helps and inspires human beings.

BOX 4 - The Nicene Creed

- 12. Christian belief in the Trinity is set out in a statement or profession of faith called the Nicene Creed. The word Creed comes from the Latin credo, which means "I believe".
- 13. Christian leaders thought it was important that everyone knew and agreed on the same basic beliefs on which Christianity is founded so during the 4th Century that produced the Nicene Creed stated this basic beliefs. In some churches the creed is still recited during services. Another way it is recited is through prayer.

BOX 5 - Sources of Authority.

We believe in God, The Father, the Almighty, Maker if heaven and earth..... We believe in one Lord, Jesus Christ, The only Son of God...... We believe in the Holy Spirit, The Lord, the giver of life..... Who with the Father and the Son is worshipped and

(Nicene Creed)

Glorified.



BASIC RULES TEACHING POINTS FOR PASSING 1. How do you start a football match? The football game is started by a kick off in 8. What are the teaching points for the SHORT PASS? the centre of the pitch. • Non kicking foot next to the ball • Use the side of the kicking foot to contact the ball following a short back swing 2. What's the number of players on each side during a professional match? In a full • Keep head over the ball to improve accuracy and ensure ball stays on the ground sided game each team consists of 11 players. • Follow foot through to generate more power 3. What happen when the ball goes off at the side of the pitch? If the ball goes off 9. What are the teaching points for the LONG PASS? the side of the pitch it is a throw in to the team that didn't touch the ball last. • Non kicking foot next to the ball • use the front (laces) of the kicking foot to contact the ball following a bigger back swing (flexion of the knee) 4. What happen if the ball goes off at the end of the pitch? • keep head over the ball to improve accuracy of the pass If the ball goes off the end of the pitch it is a corner or a goal kick depending who • lean back slightly to help generate height if required on the pass the ball touched last. • follow foot/leg through to generate more power. 10. What are the teaching points for a HEADER? **KEY TERMINOLOGY** • Keep eyes focused on the ball when preparing to header • use the forehead to contact the ball 4. What is meant by the term offside? • move feet to ensure body is slightly behind the ball before heading If a player is past the opponent's last defender and in the opposition half when • use neck to generate more power on the header the ball is passed they are offside and an indirect free kick is awarded to the opposition team. • defensive headers are normally headed high with increased distance whereas attacking headers on goal are normally headed down to make it 5. What is meant by the term free-kick? more difficult for the goal keeper to save The referee stops the game and place the ball where a foul or infringement • Perform a jump before the header to increase power and give yourself occurred, either direct, from which a goal may be scored, or indirect, from which more chance of beating the opponent to the header. the ball must be touched by at least one other player for a goal to be allowed **FULL FOOTBALL POSITIONS** 6. What is meant by the term marking? POSITIONS EXPLAINED This is where you mark someone on the other team when they have the ball in 1. Goalkeeper order to make it harder for them to make a pass or to get free into a space to Wing-Back FULL-BACK Full-back receive the ball. Sweeper Centre-back 7. What is meant by the term VAR? CENTRE-BACK Defensive midfielder The video assistant referee (VAR) is a match official in association football who 7. Winger GOALKEEPER Central Midfielder reviews decisions made by the head referee with the use of video footage and a 9. Striker headset for communication. SWEEPER Attacking Midfielder Forward



What is the aim of a rugby game? - The aim of the game is very simple.

- Use the ball to score more points than the other team.
- You can run with the ball, kick it and pass it, but passing forwards is not allowed.
- Rugby is a contact sport, so you can tackle an opponent in order to get the ball, as long as you stay within the rules.

Can you tackle in rugby?

- Tackling is the only way of legally bringing down your opponent in rugby union.
- There are certain laws on how to tackle and if these are not adhered to, penalties will follow.

What is a maul in rugby?

The maul is about physical strength and power.

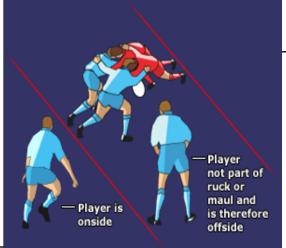
The maul is when at least three players from either side are in contact together, challenging the player with the ball, moving towards a goal line. But what makes the maul different to the ruck is the ball is not on the ground but in hand.

What is the job of the wing?

Like in football or netball the wing Plays out wide on the side of the pitch, the winger is a team's finisher in attack. A winger is also often the last line of defence when they don't have the ball and as such, pace is their major resource. How can you score points? - There are several ways to score points.

- A try five points are awarded for touching the ball down in your opponent's goal area.
- A conversion two points are added for a successful kick through the goalposts after a try





. How long does a rugby match take? - A game of rugby has two periods of 40 minutes each.

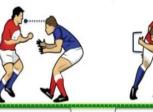
• The game is started by a place kick or a drop kick from the middle of the halfway line.

Head up, forward and facing the ball-carrier

Pre Contact

Target shoulder (shoulder tackle) at the mid-torso of the ball-carrier

Counteract the ball-carrier fend (for example, push the ball-carrier arm and hand down)



Contact

Leg drive through contact and use arms to wrap or pull ball-carrier towards you



Post Contact

Hendricks et al. 2014 European Journal of Sport Science

What is the role of a flanker in rugby?

Each team of 15 players includes two **flankers**, who play in the forwards, and are generally classified as either blindside or open side **flankers**, numbers 6 and 7 respectively. The name comes from their position in a scrum in which they 'flank' each set of forwards.

How do you dropkick a Rugby ball?

Hold the ball in two hands, pointing downwards.

As you step forward with your non-kicking foot, strike the ball on the bounce.



GK

WD

Key skills:

Passing and receiving: Different types of pass include bounce pass, chest pass, shoulder pass and overhead.



Attacking: Getting free from an opponent in order to receive the ball includes the skills of **sprinting**, **dodging and changing direction**.

Shooting: With one hand under the ball and the other steadying It at the side, keep your eyes on the hoop, bend your knees and push. The power comes from your fingers.



Defending: Marking your opponent player both with and without the ball. There are 3 stages of defense in netball; man marking, marking the ball and marking the space.

Footwork: You must land with a 1-2 landing or land with 2 feet. You must move the landing foot until you have released the ball.

Rules:

- 1. The game starts with a Centre pass and the ball must be received in the Centre third. **Teams take it in turns for a center pass.**
- 2. You must comply with the footwork rule.
- 3. You only have 3 seconds to release the ball.
- 4. When defending you must be 1 meter away from the player.
- 5. It is a non contact game so no contact to be made with an opposing player.
- 6. The ball must be touched in each third of the court.
- 7. You cannot catch the ball, drop it or fumble it and re catch it. This is know as repossession. When shooting the ball must touch the ring or net or it is counted as throwing the ball to yourself (repossession).

What happens if you break a rule? If a player breaks a minor rule the opposition is awarded a free pass, which is a pass taken from the same spot where the rule was broken. If a player breaks a major rule the opposing team is awarded a penalty pass. A penalty pass is similar to a free pass, except the player who broke the rule must stand out of the way until the pass is taken. If a player gives away a penalty pass in the goal circle then the shooter can take a free shot at goal.

Netball court set up: WA WD C GK GGA GD GS



GS

Netball court positions:

Goal shooter (GS): attack and score goals!

GA

Goal attack (GA): feed the ball into the shooter.

Wing attack (WA): create goal scoring passes.

Centre (C): attack the D and feed the shooters.

Wing defence (WD): stop the ball reaching opposition.

Goal defence (GD): as WD but defence in the D.

Goal keeper (GK): last line of defence! Ball should not get to GK.

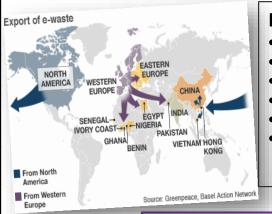
Key terms:

- ✓ Passing and receiving
- ✓ Attacking
- ✓ Defending
- ✓ Footwork
- ✓ Contact
- ✓ Shooting
- ✓ Dodging
- ✓ Penalty✓ Obstruction
- ✓ Held ball
- ✓ Goal third / centre third / defensive third
- ✓ Centre pass





1	Algorithms	Understand what an algorithm is, what algorithms are
	~	used
		for and be able to interpret algorithms (flowcharts,
		pseudocode, written descriptions, program code)
2	Flowcharts	Understand how to create an algorithm to solve a
		particular
		problem, making use of programming constructs
		(sequence, selection, iteration) and using appropriate
		conventions (flowchart, pseudocode, written description,
		draft program code)
3	Pseudo	Understand the purpose of a given algorithm and how an
	code	algorithm works
4	Interpreting	Understand how to determine the correct output of an
	Algorithms	algorithm for a given set of data
5	Errors in	Understand how to identify and correct errors in
	algorithms	algorithms
6	Python	Understand how to code an algorithm in a high-level
	,	language



Privacy and Security

- Location monitoring
- Mobile Phone providers
- Surveillance Cameras
 - Encrypted messaging
- Data Protection Act
- Cybersecurity
 - Threats and Defences

Emerging Technologies

- Robotics, AI
- Internet of Things. Quantum Computing.

Environmental Issues

- Negative Impacts
 - Energy Consumption
 - E-Waste and health →
- Recycling and Sustainability
- Positive Impacts
 - Climate monitoring
 - Teleworking
 - Reduced printing

Cor

Types of Software

- Proprietary
 - o e.g. Windows, iOS and MacOS
 - Microsoft Office, Adobe Photoshop
- Open Source
 - e.g. Linux and Android
 - o LibreOffice, The GIMP
- Cost versus support model

Legislation

- Copyrights, Designs & Patents Act 1988
 - Intellectual Property
 - Hardware patents
- Computer Misuse Act
 - Hacking / viruses
- Data Protection Act 1998
 - Protects Personal data
 - o 8 principles
 - Privacy, accuracy, security
- Software Licensing
 - Volume Licensing
 - Personal use licensing

Ethical Impact

- Inclusion / Accessibility
- The Digital Divide
- Professionalism
- Codes of Conduct

Use Quizlet study sets 06... to learn the definitions associated with this



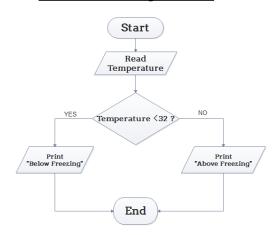
YEAR 7— MICHAELMAS TERM — COMPUTING — PROBLEM SOLVING

1	Algorithm interpretation	Understand what an algorithm is, what algorithms are used for and be able to interpret algorithms (flowcharts, pseudo-code, written descriptions, program code)
2	Sequence, Selection and Iteration	Understand how to create an algorithm to solve a particular problem, making use of programming constructs (sequence, selection, iteration) and using appropriate conventions (flowchart, pseudo-code, written description, draft program code)
3	Algorithm Purpose	Understand the purpose of a given algorithm and how an algorithm works
4	Algorithm errors	Understand how to identify and correct errors in algorithms
5	Algorithm types	Understand how standard algorithms (bubble sort, merge

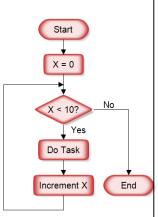
sort, linear search, binary search) work

LEARNING — LOVING — LIVING

Flowchart Showing Selection

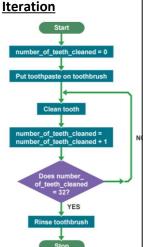


Flowchart Showing Sequence



When designing algorithms, there are many steps where decisions must be made. draw a 3 cm line turn left 90 degrees draw a 3 cm line turn left 90 degrees draw a 3 cm line turn left 90 degrees draw a 3 cm line turn left 90 degrees draw a 3 cm line turn left 90 degrees draw a 3 cm line

Flowchart Showing



Iteration Pseudo-code

When designing algorithms, there may be some steps that need repeating.

INPUT – indicates a user will be inputting something OUTPUT – indicates that an output will appear on the screen

WHILE —
a loop (iteration that has
a condition at the
beginning)

FOR – a counting loop (iteration)

REPEAT – UNTIL – a loop (iteration) that has a condition at the end

Selection Pseudo-code

When designing algorithms, it is important to make sure that all the steps are presented in the correct order.

IF represents the **question**

THEN points to what to do if the answer to the question is **true**

ELSE points to what to do if the answer to the question is **false**



Algorithms

- Sequence, Selection, Iteration →
- Flowcharts
 - Interpreting
 - Creating your own
 - Using symbols correctly

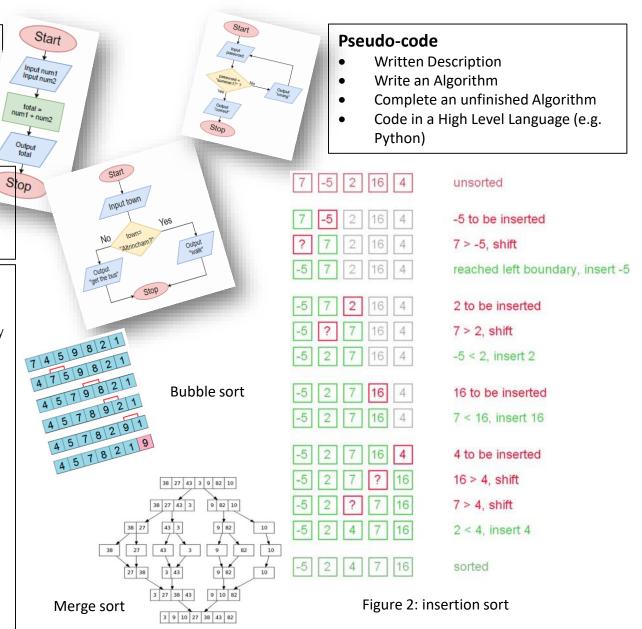
Evaluating Algorithms

- Importance of data structure
- Fitness for purpose
- Efficiency (Big "O" Notation)

Bubble sort Works by repeatedly going through the list to be sorted, comparing each pair of adjacent elements. If the elements are in the wrong order they are swapped, else they are left in position.

Insertion sort Sorts data one element at a time. The algorithm takes one data item from the list and places it in the correct location in the list. This process is repeated until there are no more unsorted items in the list. More efficient than bubble sort.

Merge sort This is a two-stage sort. Firstly the list is split in half into sub lists repeatedly. The algorithm stops splitting the lists when each list has only 1 element in it. The second stage involves repeatedly merging the lists in order until there is only one sub list remaining.





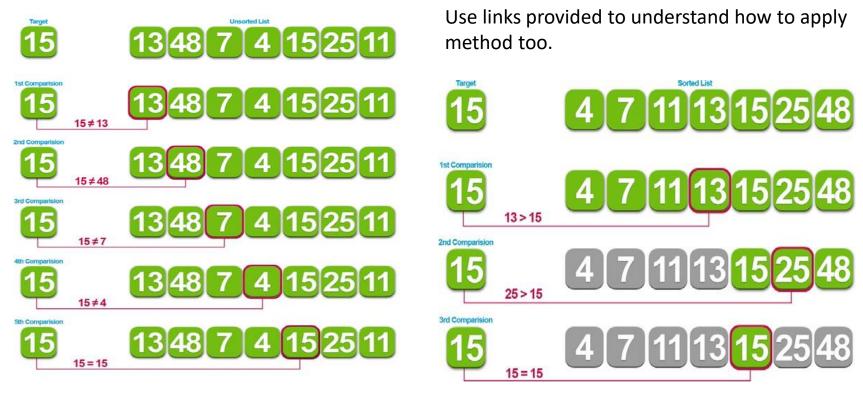


Figure 1 - Linear search example

Figure 2 - Binary search example

Key vocabulary	
Linear Search	Data may be in any order to complete a linear search. Each item is inspected in turn to see whether it is what is being searched for. If an item is found, then True is returned, else the next element is inspected until all items have been searched. If nothing is found by the end of the algorithm then False is returned.
Binary Search	If a list is sorted (numerical or alphabetical order) then a more efficient algorithm can be used. It works by repeatedly dividing the list into half and searching in the appropriate half.





Knowledge Organiser: Drama Foundation

Characterisation

The act of changing voice, body language, movement, gesture etc. when in role is called characterisation. All people are different. The actor must use their skills to portray a character consistently throughout their performance. When creating characters, you need to consider **voice**, **body language**, **facial expression** and **gesture**.

Characterisation: Voice

Does your character have an accent? What is the tone of their voice like? How quickly do they speak? Do they have any vocal mannerisms that are particular to them?

Key Words

Volume: Loud to quiet
Crescendo: Increasing volume
Pitch: Deep or squeaky
Pace/Tempo: Fast or slow
Rhythm: Fluctuations in pace
Pause: Breaks in speech
Inflection: Emphasis on a word
Articulation: Emphasis on letters.

Tone: Emotion Clarity: Clearly say words

Accent: A way of speaking that denotes where you are from



their shoulders hunched up tight to indicate tension.

Key Words
Movement: e.g. rushing in or
stamping their foot excitedly.
Stance: How the character stands.
Gait: The way the character walks.
Posture: How the character stands or
sits e.g. slouch or straight.
Proxemics: The space between the
characters creates meaning. e.g.
distance may mean enemies and

distance may mean enemies and contact may mean intimacy
Levels: Suggest status e.g. a dominant character may be higher up
Use of space: The character can

Characterisation: Body Language

This is what your character's movements and way of

using their body says about them. A character who is

very nervous and stressed may fidget a lot or have

demand a lot of space or hide in a small corner.

Characterisation: Gesture

A gesture is a movement expresses meaning. For example, the wagging admonitory finger accompanying words like 'I have told you time and time again that this behaviour is unacceptable' is probably among the most familiar of all gestures. They tend to work as emphasis.

However, gestures can also amplify a question, such as pointing in a particular direction as you say 'Do you mean this way?' They can also convey a mood, such as a shrug of the shoulders to convey indifference.



Rehearsal Techniques These are exercises that the a

These are exercises that the actors engage in BEFORE they perform live to an audience. They help the actors to understand their characters and realise their intentions. They also help to develop the plot and structure of a devised play.

Understand your character

The rehearsal techniques below help the actor to deepen their understanding of the character they are playing and become more familiar with their intentions.

Hot-Seating

An actor sits in the hot-seat and is questioned in role. They spontaneously answer questions.

Role on the Wall

Draw an outline of your character. Annotate it to reflect the character's thoughts, feelings, fears, circumstances etc.

Inner Thoughts

Whilst rehearsing a scene, one person will shout "Freeze, inner thoughts". The actor should freeze and spontaneously say out loud what the **character** is thinking.

Conscience Corridor

Performers make two lines facing each other. The **protagonist** poses a question such as "Should I put Grandad in a basket and leave him by the side of the road"? Actors on each side of the corridor give reasons for and against.

Improve how you play your character

These rehearsal techniques improve how you perform physically on stage.

Bigger Bigger Bigger

Rehearse one scene several times increasing the energy in gesture/movement, exaggeration of facial expression and volume

Non-Verbal Body Language

Perform a scene without speaking. Create meaning through mime.

Foundation Skills

Foundation skills are the drama strategies that can be used to help improve the way that you reveal your **plot** to your **audience**.

Always remember, it's not just the story you tell that is important, but also how you tell it!

Role Play

Pretending to be somebody else.

Improvisation

Performing a scene spontaneously without rehearsal.

Marking the Moment

This is a way of highlighting the most important moment in a scene in order to draw the audience's attention to its significance.

Still Image

This is a frozen picture which communicates meaning. It's sometimes called a **freeze frame** or **tableau**.

Narration

A narrator is like a storyteller informing the audience about the plot.

Thoughts in the Head

This is when a character steps out of a scene to address the audience about how they're feeling.

Alter Ego

Allowing the audience to hear/see the positive and negative thoughts of a character. It is sometimes called **Angels and Devils.**

Chorus

A group on stage say the same words and gestures.

Flashback

A performance of a scene from the past.

Soundscape

Performers make sounds to create an atmosphere.

Slow Motion

Acting as if time has slowed down. Often used to highlight an important movement.

Mime

 $\label{thm:continuous} Telling \ a \ story \ through \ movement. \ Creating \ characters \\ and \ objects \ without \ spoken \ word.$

Diaries & Letters

Allowing the audience to hear or see the content of a diary or letter on stage.



Characterisation: Facial Expression

Does your character move their face a lot? What

they try not to give much of themselves away?

Performing in a large theatre auditorium might

mean that many of the audience are a long way

away. It's the actors' job to communicate their role

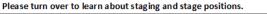
to fit the space effectively. Facial expressions, like

body language, may be heightened or exaggerated

so that the character's intentions are clear for all.

character? Do they have a very expressive face or do

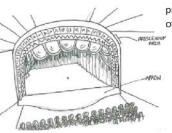
does their facial expression say about their



LEARNING — LOVING — LIVING

Staging Configurations and Stage Positions

Proscenium Arch



Proscenium Arch is a common form of theatre. The proscenium is the frame around the stage. The area in front of the arch is called an **apron**.

- Advantages: Backdrops and large scenery can be used without blocking sightlines. There may be fly space and wing space to store scenery. The frame around the stage adds to the effect of a fourth wall.
- Disadvantages: Audience members may feel distant from the stage. Audience interaction is more difficult. It can feel very formal and rigid.

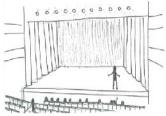
Thrust Staging



In a Thrust Stage, there is audience on three sides of the stage. This is one of the oldest theatre types of stage.

- Advantage: As there is no audience on one side of the stage, backdrops, flats, cycloramas or large scenery can be used. The audience may feel closer to the action as there are three front rows (one on each of the stages three sides).
- ➤ Disadvantage: Sight lines for those on extreme sides may be limited. The audience on the right and left have each other in view. Box sets (three sides of the room are constructed) cannot be used as this would block audience views.

End on Staging



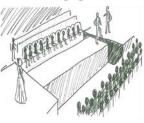
End on Staging is similar to a Proscenium stage as the audience sit on one side of the stage directly facing it. However it doesn't have the large proscenium frame.

- Advantages: The audience all have a similar view. Stage pictures are easy to create. Large backdrops or projections onto a cyclorama may be used.
- Disadvantages: Audience members in the back rows may feel distant from the stage. It may not have wing or fly areas.

Theatre in the Round is a staging conficuration when the audience are seated in a circle all around the stage.

- Advantages: Intimate space for a performance. It engages the audience because the actors enter and exit the stage through the audience. There is also no 'forth wall'
- Disadvantages: One cannot use backdrops or flats. Stage furniture needs to be small so as not to obstruct sightlines. Actors have to be carefully blocked so that they do not always have their back to one section of the audience.

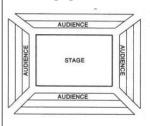
Traverse Staging



On a Traverse Stage the acting area is a long central space with audience seated on either side facing each other. Like a catwalk.

- Advantages: Audience feel very close to the stage. They can see the reaction of the other side who are facing them which can work well for interaction. Sometimes extreme ends of the stage can be used to create extra acting space.
- Disadvantages: Big scenery, backdrops and sets block sightlines. The long and thin acting area makes blocking difficult. Does not have wing or fly areas.

Arena Staging



Arena Staging is a similar configuration to Theatre in the Round. The audience sit on all sides of the stage, however they tend to sit in straight lighes. This type of staging is often used in sporting venues.

- Advantages: Intimate space for a performance. It engages the audience because the actors enter and exit the stage through the audience. There is also no 'forth wall'
- Disadvantages: One cannot use backdrops or flats. Stage furniture needs to be small so as not to obstruct sightlines. Actors have to be carefully blocked so that they do not always have their back to one section of the audience.

Promenade Theatre

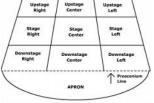
Theatre in the Round



Promenade Theatre is where the audience stand or follow the actors through a performance. This can happen in a theatre, but more often happens in a **site specific** show.

- Advantage: It is an interactive and exciting type of theatre where the audience feel involved.
- Disadvantage: Audience may get tired standing and walking. Actors or crew need to be skilled at moving the audience around. There can be health and safety risks.

Stage Positions

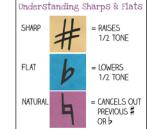


In order to discuss theatre, you need to be able to explain quickly and simply where you want something to occur. To do this, theatre makers divide the stage up into a grid.

Points to Remember

- Some stages are raked which means they are higher at the back. Therefore upstage is at the back and downstage at the front.
- The direction of stage is always seen from the perspective of the actor. This can be confusing as you will need to swap your left and right if looking at the stage from an audience perspective.





2: Accidentals: symbols applied to notes which change the normal pitch of that note:

KEYWORDS

1-Pitch: how high or low a note is.

2-Notation: any system used to visually represent music played with instruments or sung through the use of written, printed, or otherwise-produced symbols.

3-Stave: a set of five horizontal lines and four spaces that each represent a different musical pitch.

4-Grand Stave: two **staves** are joined by a brace, or is intended to be played at once by a single performer (usually a keyboard instrument or harp). Typically, the upper stave uses a treble clef and the lower stave has a bass clef.

5-Treble Clef: A symbol indicating that the second line from the bottom of a staff represents the pitch of G above middle C. Also called G clef.

6-Alto Clef: the clef that establishes F a fifth below middle C on the fourth line of the staff. Also called C clef – typically used by the Viola.

7-Bass Clef: the clef that establishes F a fifth below middle C on the fourth line of the staff. Also called F clef.

8-Ledger line: used in notation to notate pitches above or below the lines and spaces of the regular stave.

9-Octave: an interval whose higher note has a sound-wave frequency of vibration twice that of its lower note; the octave is an interval of eight notes.

10-Accidental: a note of a pitch that is not a member of the scale indicated by the key signature. The sharp (\sharp) , flat (\flat) , and natural (\Box) symbols mark such notes—those symbols are also called accidentals.

11-Sharp (#): an accidental that indicates a slight increase in pitch.

12-Flat (b): an accidental that indicates a slight decrease in pitch.

13-Natural (□): an accidental, which cancels previous accidentals and represents the unaltered pitch of a note.

14-Bar: Each bar usually has the same number of beats in it. Music that feels like 1-2-3-4 will be divided into bars with four beats worth of music in each bar.

15-Barline: The bar line is a vertical line written in the music which separates the **bars**.

16-Time Signature: to specify how many beats are to be contained in each bar and which note value is equivalent to one beat.

17-Semibreve: a note, which lasts for 4 beats.

18-Minim: a note, which lasts for 2 beats.

19-Crotchet: a note, which lasts for 1 beat.

20-Quaver: a note, which lasts for $\frac{1}{2}$ a beat. It is commonly 'beamed' to another quaver to equal 1 whole beat.

21-Semi quaver: a note, which lasts for ¼ of a beat. It is commonly 'beamed' to another 3 semiquavers to equal 1 whole beat.

22-Rest: an interval of silence in a piece of music, marked by a symbol that corresponds to a particular note value.

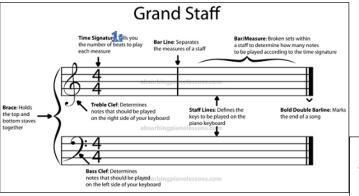
- KEY QUESTIONS -

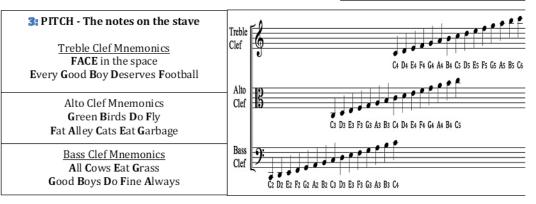
Q1: What is the mnemonic for the lines on each clef?

Every Good Boy Deserves Football (Treble clef) Fat Alley Cats Eat Garbage (Alto clef) Good Boys Do Fine Always (Bass clef)

Q2: What is the mnemonic for the spaces on each clef?

FACE in the space (Treble clef)
Green Birds Do Fly (Alto clef)
All Cows Eat Grass (Bass clef)





4: Durations: the lengths of the notes you play.
These are combined to create rhythms.

Note	Name	Beats	Rest	Note	Name	Beats	Rest
0	Semibreve, Whole Note	4 beats	-	0.	Dotted Semibreve, Dotted Whole Note	6 beats	_
d	Minim, Half Note	2 beats	_	d.	Dotted Minim, Dotted Half Note	3 beats	_
	Crotchet, Quarter Note	1 beat	٤	₫.	Dotted Crotchet, Dotted Quarter Note	1% beats	٤.
1	Quaver, Elighth Note	1/2 beat	7	J.	Dotted Quaver, Dotted Eighth Note	3/4 beat	7.
	Semiquaver, Sixteenth Note	1/4 beat	7	J.	Dotted Semiquaver, Dotted Sixteenth Note	3/8 beat	₹.



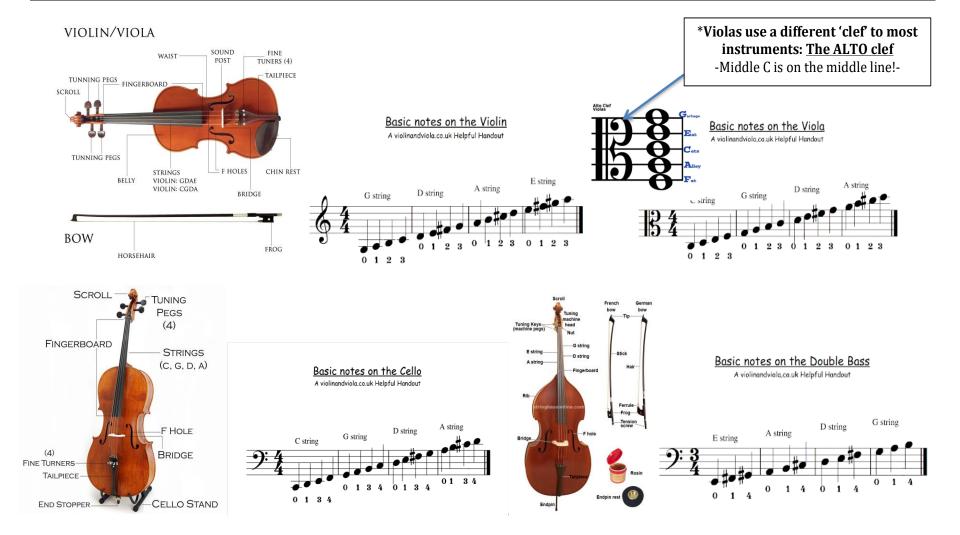
Strings (Violin, Viola, Cello, Double Bass)

To play a string instrument, your left hand presses down on the strings to change the pitch while your right hand moves the bow or plucks the strings.

How to Practice

IDENTIFY THE PROBLEM AREAS: Practice the parts you can't play (not the parts you can) first:

- Use a metronome
- Play it slowly, then speed it up
- Try the part in different rhythms so that you get the pitches accurate
- Aim to play it correctly **three time in a row** if you make a mistake, start again!



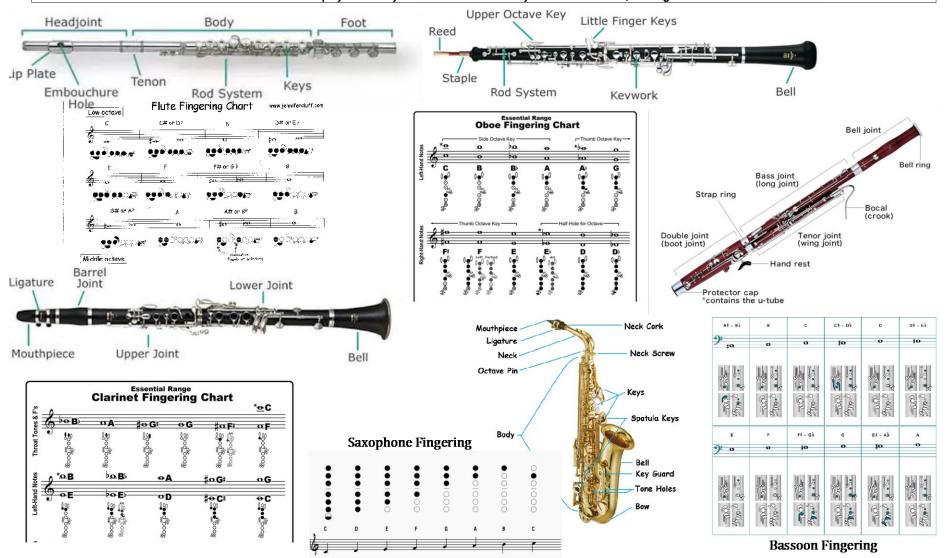


Woodwind (Flute, Oboe, Clarinet, Saxophone, Bassoon)

In woodwind instruments the player either: causes a reed to vibrate, which agitates the column of air (as in a clarinet, oboe or bassoon) or blows across the edge of an open hole (as in a flute).

How to Practice: IDENTIFY THE PROBLEM AREAS: Practice the parts you can't play (not the parts you can) first:

- Use a metronome Play it slowly, then speed it up Try the part in different rhythms so that you get the pitches accurate
 - Aim to play it correctly three time in a row if you make a mistake, start again!

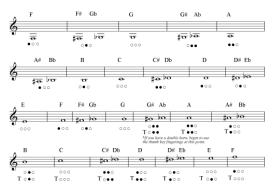


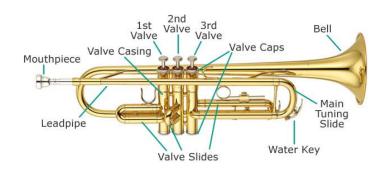


Brass (Trumpet, French Horn, Trombone)



Chromatic Fingering Chart for French Horn





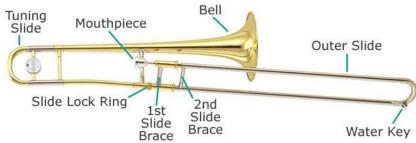
Modern **brass instruments** produce sound through a metal mouthpiece. The mouthpiece is similar on most **brass instruments**, usually varying only in size. Sound is produced by placing the lips on the mouthpiece and blowing while vibrating the lips. The larger the mouthpiece, the lower the sound of the **instrument**.

How to Practice:

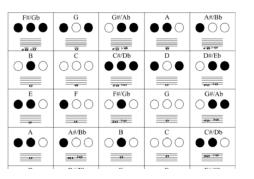
IDENTIFY THE PROBLEM AREAS

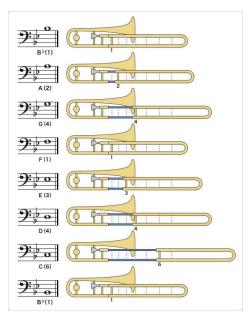
Practice the parts you can't play (not the parts you can) first:

- Use a metronome
- Play it slowly, then speed it up
- Try the part in different rhythms so that you get the pitches accurate
- Aim to play it correctly **three time in a row** if you make a mistake, start again!



Trumpet Fingering Chart







A. Key Terms

7 tt <u>10 7 10 11 11 0</u>	
Keyword	Description
1. Line	Line is the path left by a moving point. For example, a pencil or a brush dipped in paint. A line can be horizontal, diagonal or curved and can also change length.
2. Shape	A shape is an area enclosed by a line. It could be just an outline or it could be shaded in. Shapes can be geometric or irregular.
3. Form	Form is a three dimensional shape, such as a cube, sphere or cone. Sculpture and 3D design are about creating forms.
4. Colour	Red, yellow and blue are primary colours, which means they can't be mixed using any other colours. In theory, all other colours can be mixed from these three colours.
5. Tertiary Colours	Tertiary colours are created by mixing a primary colour and the secondary colour next to it on the colour wheel.
6. Complementary Colours	Complementary colours are colours that are opposite each other on the colour wheel. When complementary colours are used together they create contrast. Adding a colour's complimentary colour will usually make a darker shade. This is often preferable to adding black.
7. Pattern	A design that is created by repeating lines, shapes, tones or colours. The design used to create a pattern is often referred to as a motif. Motifs can be simple shapes or complex arrangements

Keyword	Description
8. Apply	To use knowledge, skills and understanding and to employ appropriate techniques when developing and progressing ideas.
9. Develop	To take forward, change, improve or build on an idea, theme or starting point.
10. Investigate	To enquire into, examine in depth, and/or analyse the relevance of a chosen subject and associated sources.
11. Realise	To achieve, attain and/or accomplish your intentions.

C. Art Styles



- 16. Ndebele art originates from the Ndebele tribe in South Africa
- 17. Traditionally Ndebele women would paint their houses in this style to celebrate events in their family
- 18. Traditionally locally available materials such as clay and dung were used.
- 19. Today acrylic paint is used
- 20. Esther Mahlangu is a famous Ndebele
- 21. Esther Mahlangu was born in 1935 and is still alive.

C. Colour Theory

Key terms 4 – 6 refer to the colour wheel.

- 13. Warm colours are colours on the red side of the wheel. These are red and include orange, yellow and browns.
- 14. Cool colours are colours on the blue side of the wheel. These are blue and include green, purple and most greys.

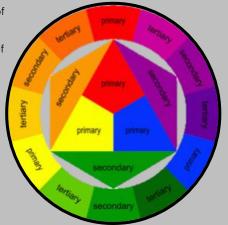
Primary Secondary

red + yellow = orange

red + blue = purple

blue + yellow = green

12. This is called a **Colour Wheel.**



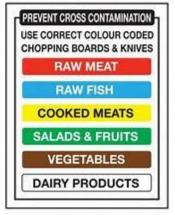


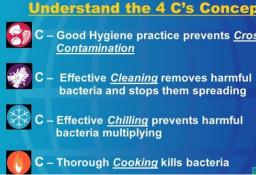
Key words: Food hygiene and safety

- **1. Bacteria** single celled organisms. Some can be harmful to humans.
- 2. Pathogenic harmful or causing disease
- **3. Equipment** the tools used in practical lessons
- **4. Personal hygiene** routines that should be followed by people handling food to avoid contaminating food. E.g. Contaminated hands will spread bacteria around a kitchen very quickly, so having good personal hygiene is important
- **5. Food hygiene** routines that should be followed to avoid potential health hazards in food.
- **6.** The four C's Essential for maintaining food safety. They are Cross contamination, Cleaning, Chilling, Cooking,
- **7. Cross contamination** transferring bacteria that should not be in food from one place to another. E.g. bacteria on unwashed hands will contaminate food.
- **8. Potential** The possibility of something happening in the future
- 9. Hazard anything that can cause harm or danger
- **10. Recipe** A plan used to inform the cook or chef how to make a 'dish'.
- **11.** Ingredients the raw food used to make a recipe
- **12. Food poisoning** An illness caused by eating contaminated food.

	Key routines for Food H		
Personal Hygiene	Why?	Safety rules W	/hy?
P1. Wash hands in hot soapy water	To kill bacteria on your hands to stop contamination	S1. Use oven gloves	To stop injury – burns from baking trays
P2. Tie long hair back	To prevent hair going into the products you cook	S2. Wash up in hot soapy water	To stop cross contamination and kill bacteria
P3. Wear an apron	To protect your uniform and to prevent bacteria from your clothes contaminating your food	S3. Bags, blazers and coats on hooks at all times	To prevent injury – tripping up or falling over
P4. Roll sleeves up	To prevent bacteria contaminating your food	S4. Pan handles in 'safe' position	To prevent a fire and injuring from burns
P5. Remove jewellery	To prevent contamination of food by bacteria that live on jewellery.	S5 Chairs under the desk or stacked	To prevent injury – tripping up or falling over

Keywords : Knife skills, equipment and safety					
Skills	How	 /?		Equipment	Function?
SK1. Claw grip		U	l in a claw shape eady while slicing	E1. vegetable Knife	A small knife mainly used for slicing and dicing
SK2. Bridge hold		Use thumb and grip either side Use knife unde	of the ingredient.	E2. Cooks knife	A large knife with a deep blade used for cutting chopping, slicing and dicing
				E3. Vegetable peeler	Peeling the skin from fruit or vegetables
Hygiene practice prevents <u>Cross</u>				E4. Palette knife	Spreading icing, lifting food





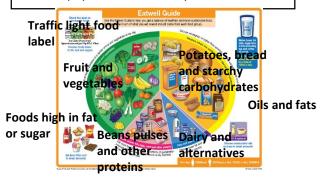
8 guidelines for a healthy diet

- 1. Base your meals on starchy carbohydrates
- 2. Eat lots of fruit and vegetables (5-7 portions per day)
- 3. Eat plenty of fish
- 4. Cut down on sugar and saturated fats
- 5. Have no more than 6gs of salt a day
- 6. Be active and be a healthy weight7. Drink 6-8 glasses of water a day
- 8. Don't skip breakfast



Key words: fruits and vegetables, eatwell

- **1. fruit & vegetables** are parts of a wide variety of cultivated plants eaten for their flavour and because they provide essential vitamins, minerals and fibre.
- 2. vegetables harmful or causing disease
- **3. 5-a-day campaign** a government campaign to encourage us to eat five servings of vegetables/fruit per day
- **4.** The Eatwell Guide shows how eating different foods can make a healthy balanced diet.
- 5. diet the foods you choose to eat
- **6. balanced diet** a diet that contains all the nutrients in the correct amounts
- **7. healthy diet** a diet that is low in fat, salt and sugar, and high in fibre
- **8.** traffic light food label a colour coded food label which helps you to choose healthy foods.



8 guidelines for a healthy diet

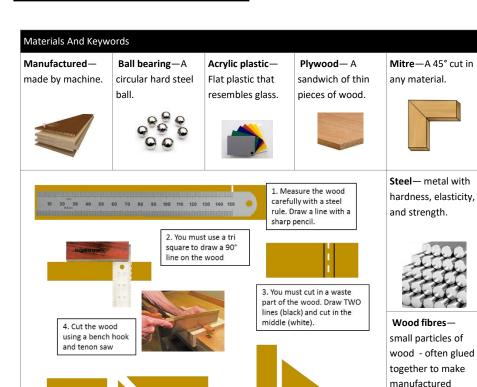
- Base your meals on starchy carbohydrates
- 2. Eat lots of fruit and vegetables (5-7 portions per day)
- 3. Eat plenty of fish
- 4. Cut down on **sugar** and **saturated fats**
- 5. Have no more than 6gs of salt a day
- 6. Be active and be a healthy weight
- 7. Drink **6-8 glasses of water** a day
- 8. Don't skip breakfast

Prep	Preparing fruit and vegetable skills			
Skills	How?			
SK3. Using a masher or fork to r Mash food soft				
SK4. shred	To slice into long thin strips.			
SK5. grate	To make coarse or fine shreds by rubbing over one side of a grater			
SK6. peel	To remove the very thin layer of skin of fruit and vegetables			
SK7. pipe	To press a soft food through a piping bag fitted with a shaped nozzle to make the food into an interesting shape.			
SK8. blend	To mix two or more ingredients together; this can be done by hand or special equipment.			
SK9: To squeeze the juice from fru Juice or vegetables				

	Using equipment				
Equipmer	nt Function?				
E5. Wooden spoon	Mixing food together, stirring food on the hob.				
E6. balloon whisk	Whisking; adding air to a mixture.				
E7. cooling rack	Cooling food				
E8. chopping board	Chopping and cutting food.				
E9. saucepan	Boiling or simmering foods				
E10. sieve	Adding air to mixtures; removing lumps				
E11: mixing bowl	Mixing food				
E12. colander	Draining liquid				

Equipment used to weigh and measure				
Equipmen	t Function?	Equipment	Function?	
Kitchen scales	Weighing ingredients	Measuring cups	Some American/Australian recipes use cups for dried ingredients	
Measuring jug	Measuring liquids, the side is usually marked with millilitres (ml)	Measuring spoons	Measure an accurate teaspoon or tablespoon. One teaspoon is 5ml; one tablespoon is 15ml	





Mitre joint -

5. The point where two

pieces of wood meet is

Tenon Saw - cutting straight

Pillar drill – making holes

called a joint.

Butt joint -

90°

Tools And Equipment

Hand file - rapid filing

Coping saw – cutting curves

Types Of Wood

Softwood—noun The wood from a conifer (such as pine, fir, or spruce) as distinguished from that of broadleaved trees.



Hardwood—noun
The hard,
compact wood or
timber of various
trees, as the oak,
cherry, maple, or
mahogany.



			3
			4
	Bench hook – holding wood	Glass paper – file filing	5
	942		
			ı
_	Steel rule – accurate measure	Disc sander – rapid sanding	Н
			S
			Α

board.

6. If you have a

join that is not

90° you must

cut it so it fits

perfectly.

Properties a	and characteristics o	f materials
*	Absorbency	To be able to soak up liquid easily.
	Strength	The capacity of an object or substance to withstand great force or pressure.
Q	Elasticity	The ability of an object or material to resume its normal shape after being stretched or compressed; stretchiness.
	Plasticity	The quality of being easily shaped or moulded.
	Malleability	To be able to be hammered or pressed into shape without breaking or cracking.
	Density	The quantity of mass per unit volume of a substance
	Effectiveness	The degree to which something is successful in producing a desired result; success.
1	Durability	The ability to withstand wear, pressure, or damage.

U	Understand the making Process				
1	Preparation Drawing, CAD, sketches, plans.				
2	Marking Out	Pencil, scribe, steel rule, tri square, marking gauge, calipers, centre punch.			
3	Modification	Saw, jigsaw, scroll saw, laser cutter, pliers, hammer, drill, file, glass paper.			
4	Joining	Riveting gun, spanner, screwdriver, hot glue, gun, soldering iron, nail gun.			
5	Finishing	Hand sander, glass paper, disc sander, buffing wheel, polish, spray paint, varnish.			

Health & Safety Legislation					
Health and Safety at work Act	Personal Protective Equipment	Manual Handling Operations	Control of Substances Hazardous to Health	Reporting of Injuries RIDDOR	



. — — — —	
Semaine 1 On se renco	ntre •
(Meeting ped	pple)
Bonjour! Hi!	Sal
Comment t'appelles-tu? What is your name	? Bo
Je m'appelle my name is	Bo
Comment ca s'ecrit ? How do you spell th	nat? Bo
Ca s'ecrit It is spelt	■ Bo
Ca va ? how are you?	• Bo
Oui, ca va bien, merci Yes, I am OK, thank	s. Au
Pas mal. Not bad.	A b
* Comme ci, comme ca so-so	_ A p
Non ca ne va pas No, i am OK.	АС
L	
	J SE

I — — —	Les salutations
1	(Greetings)
Salut	Hi
Bonne après-midi	Good afternoon
■ Bon weekend	Have a nice weekend
Bonne journee	Have a nice day
Bon appetit	Have a nice meal
Bonsoir	Good evening
_ Au revoir!	Good Bye
A bientôt!	See you soon
A plus tard!	See you later
A Dieu!	Farewell
Semaine 2	Les nombre 1 -10

Semain	e 3	Les nombre 11-31 (Numbers 11-31)	
onze	11	vingt-et-un	21
douze	12	vingt-deux	22
treize	13	vingt-trois	23
quatorze	14	vingt-quatre	24
quinze	15	vingt-cinq	25
seize	16	vingt-six	26
dix-sept	17	vingt-sept	27
dix-huit	18	vingt-huit	28
dix-neuf	19	vingt-neuf	29
vingt	20	trente	30

Semaine 4

■ Zero

Deux

Trois

Cinq

Quatre

Un

Les affaires pour le collège (School subjects)

Six

Sept

Huit

Neuf

Dix

Les nombre 1 -10 (Numbers 1-10)

6

7

8

9

10

Les jours de la semaine (The days of the week) lundi Monday Tuesday mardi Wednesday mercredi Thursday jeudi vendredi Friday samedi

31

Saturday Sunday

dimanche Stratégie 1

trente-et-un

Look, say, cover, write, check Use the five steps below to learn how to spell any word.

- 1. LOOK Look carefully at the word for at least 10 seconds.
- 2. SAY Say the word to yourself or out loud to practise pronunciation.
- 3. COVER Cover up the word when you feel you have learned it.
- 4. WRITE Write the word from memory. 5. CHECK Check your word against the original. Did you get it right? If not, what did you get wrong? Spend time learning that bit of the word. Go through the steps again until you get it

Qu'est-ce que c'est ?	What is this?
C'est	it is
Un cahier	an exercise book
Un carnet de textes	a homework diary
Un crayon	a pencil
Un sac	a bag
Un stylo	a pen
Un livre	a book
Un portable	a mobile phone
Un porte-monnaie	a purse
Une gomme	a rubber
Une règle	a ruler
Une calculatrice	a calculator
Une trousse	a pencil case
Une gomme	a rubber
Une règle	a ruler
Une calculatrice a calculator	
Une trousse	a pencil case
Une cle USB	a USB drive
Ce sont	these are
Des ciseaux	scisors
Des feutres	markers
Des feuilles	(line) papers
Des jeux	games

Semaine 5		Les	ages et les anniversaires (Ages and birthdays)
Quel age as-tu? J'ai ans Quelle est la date o Mon anniversaire e	de ton anniversaire? est le	How old are you? am years old When is your birthday? My birthday is on the	(- g

Janvier Février Mars Avril	January February March April	Juillet Aout Septembre Octobre	Les mois de l'annee July (The months of the year) August September October
Mai	Мау	Novembre	November
Juin	June	Decembre	December

	S	Semaine 6	Ma famille (my family)
1	nave		
Je n'ai pas de… I d			
Tu as? do	•		
As-tu? do	you have?		
un frère A I	brother	une sœur a sister	
un frère qui s'app	elle a brother cal	led	
deux sœurs qui s'	appellent two sisters co	alled	
un/mon ami(e)	a/my friend		
un/mon demi-fre un/mon grand-pe un/mon oncle	a/my father I am the only	une/ma demi-sœur une/ma grand-mère une/ma tante une/ma famille	a/my friend a/my sister-in-law a/my grandmother a/my aunt a/my family

Semaine 7		Les anima	ux domestiques (Pets)
As-tu un animal?	Do you have a pet?	Une araignée	a spider
J'ai	I have	Une souris	a moiuse
C'est	It is	Une girafe	a giraffe
Un animal domestiqu	e a pet	Une tortue	a turtoise
Un chat	a cat	Une vache	a cow
Un chien	a dog	Une sirène	a mermaid
Un cheval	a horse	Une fée	a fairy
Un rat	a rat		i
Un serpent	a snake	Ce sont	these are
Un hamster	a hamster	Des chevaux	horses
Un cochon d'inde	a guinea-pig	Des animaux	animals
Un lapin	a rabbit	Des oiseaux	birds
Un oiseau	a bird	Des dragons	dragons
Un poisson	a fish		
Je n'ai pas d'animal		I don't have an an	y pets.

YEAR 7— MICHAELMAS TERM- FRENCH- STUDIO 1 - BIENVENUE

LEARNING — LOVING — LIVING

Mon autoportrait • My self-portrait

les animaux (m pl) animals les araignées (f pl) spiders a Brazilian dance la capoeira les chats (m pl) cats les chiens (mpl) dogs le cinéma cinema les consoles de jeux (f pl) games consoles la danse dancing le foot football cakes les gâteaux (m pl) le hard rock hard rock l'injustice (f) injustice les insectes (mpl) insects les jeux vidéo (m pl) video games les livres (mpl) books la musique music

mangas

maths

pizzas

Semaine 2

Semaine 1

la poésie poetry le racisme racism le rap rap le reggae reggae les reptiles (m pl) reptiles le roller roller-skating le rugby rugby le skate skateboarding les spaghettis (m pl) spaghetti sport le sport tecktonik (dance) la tecktonik la télé TV le tennis tennis le théâtre theatre, drama les voyages (m pl) journeys la violence violence

Les opinions • Opinions

les mangas (m pl)

les maths (f pl)

les pizzas (f pl)

important

Ce n'est pas bien.

i'aime 1 like je n'aime pas I don't like Tu aimes ...? Do you like ...? il/elle aime he/she likes Oui, j'aime ça. Yes, I like that. Non, je n'aime pas ca. No, I don't like that. Tu es d'accord? Do you agree? Je suis d'accord. I agree. I don't agree. Je ne suis pas d'accord. C'est... It's ... génial great cool cool bien good boring ennuyeux nul rubbish essential essentiel

important

It's not good.

Semaine 3

Mon kit de survie • My survival kit

j'ai I have je n'ai pas de I don't have tu as you have il/elle a he/she has un appareil photo a camera une barre de céréales a cereal bar un bâton de colle a gluestick des chips (f pl) crisps des clés (f pl) keys une clé USB a memory stick une gourde a water bottle des kleenex (m pl) tissues des lunettes de soleil (f pl) sunglasses un magazine a magazine un miroir a mirror un portable a mobile phone un portemonnaie a purse un paquet de mouchoirs a packet of tissues un sac a bag des surligneurs fluo (m pl) fluorescent highlighters a pencil case une trousse

Semaine 4

Moi et les autres • Me and other people

je suis I am je ne suis pas I am not tu es you are il/elle s'appelle he/she is called il/elle est he/she is beau/belle good-looking branché(e) trendy charmant(e) charming cool cool curieux/curieuse curious de taille movenne average height drôle funny généreux/généreuse generous gentil(le) nice grand(e) tall impatient(e) impatient intelligent(e) intelligent modeste modest petit(e) small

Semaine 5

Les yeux et les cheveux • Eyes and hair

i'ai *I have* tu as you have il/elle a he/she has mon ami(e) a my friend has J'ai les yeux bleus/verts/ I have blue/green/grey/ gris/marron. brown eyes. J'ai les cheveux ... I have ... hair. longs/courts/mi-longs long/short/ medium-length frisés/raides curly/straight blonds/bruns/noirs/roux blond/brown/black/rea

Les musiciens • Musicians

poli(e)

II/Elle joue ... He/She plays. de la batterie the drums de la guitare the guitar II/Elle chante. He/she sings. II/Elle a beaucoup He/She has a lot de talent. of talent.

polite

+ vocabulary learnt in the half term

Semaine 6

High-frequency words et and also aussi but mais très very assez quite toujours always Qu'est-ce que ...? What...? Who ... ?

Stratégie 1

Look, say, cover, write, check Use the five steps below to learn how to spell any word.

- 1. LOOK Look carefully at the word for at least 10 seconds.
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Semana 1

Saludos Greetings			
iHola!	Hello!	¿Cómo te llamas?	What are you called?
¿Qué tal?	How are you?	Me llamo	I am called
Bien, gracias.	Fine, thanks.	¿Dónde vives?	Where do you live?
fenomenal	great	Vivo en	Hive in
regular	not bad	iHasta luego!	See you later!
fatal	awful	iAdiós!	Goodbye!

Semana 2

¿Qué tipo de persona eres? What sort of person are you?

Soy	lam	listo/a	clever
divertido/a	amusing	serio/a	serious
estupendo/a	brilliant	simpático/a	nice, kind
fenomenal	fantastic	sincero/a	sincere
generoso/a	generous	tímido/a	shy
genial	great	tonto/a	silly
guay	cool	tranquilo/a	quiet, calm

Semana 3

Mi pasión	My passion
-----------	------------

Mi pasión es	My passion is	el fútbol	football
Mi héroe es	My hero is	la música	music
el deporte	sport	el tenis	tennis

¿Tienes hermanos? Do you have any brothers or sisters?

Tengo	Thave	un hermanastro	a half- brother/stepbrother
una hermana	a sister	No tengo hermanos.	I don't have any brothers
un hermano	a brother		or sisters.
una hermanastra	a half-sister/stepsister	Soy hijo único/hija única	a. I am an only child. (male/

Semana 4

Los números 1	- 31 Numbers 1 - 31		
uno	1	seis	6
dos	2	siete	7
tres	3	ocho	8
cuatro	4	nueve	9
cinco	5	diez	10

Semana 5

once	11	diecisiete	17
doce	12	dieciocho	18
trece	13	diecinueve	19
catorce	14	• •	
quince	15	veinte	20
•		veintiuno	21
dieciséis	16	ventualo	21
		treinta	30

¿Cuántos años tienes?	How old are you?		
Tengo años.	I am years old.	mayo	May
¿Cuándo es tu	When is your birthday?	junio	June
cumpleaños?		julio	July
Mi cumpleaños es el de	My birthday is the of	agosto	August
enero	January	septiembre	September
febrero	February	octubre	October
marzo	March	noviembre	November
abril	April	diciembre	December
abril	April		

Semana 6				
Los colores Col	ours			
blanco/a	white	gris	grey	
amarillo/a	yellow	marrón	brown	
negro/a	black	azul	blue	
rojo/a	red	rosa	pink	
verde	green	naranja	orange	
¿Tienes mascotas?	Do you have pets?			
Tengo	Ihave	un pez	a fish	
un caballo	a horse	un ratón	a mouse	
una cobaya	a guinea pig	una serpiente	a snake	
un conejo	a rabbit	No tengo mascotas.	I don't have any pets.	
un gato	a cat	¿Cómo es?	What is it like?	
un perro	a dog	¿Cómo son?	What are they like?	

Palabras muy frequency words High-frequency words			
bastante	quite	también	also, too
no	no/not	tu/tus	your
mi/mis	my	un poco	a bit
muy	very	У	and
pero	but		

E3	iraiccii	aV
Lo	ok, say,	cover, write, check
Use	e the five	steps below to learn how to spell any word.
1	LOOK	Look carefully at the word for at least 10 seconds.
2	SAY	Say the word to yourself or out loud to practise pronunciation.
3	COVER	Cover up the word when you feel you have learned it.
4	WRITE	Write the word from memory.
	CHECK	Check your word against the original Did you got it right? If not what did you got wrong?

Spend time learning that bit of the word. Go through the steps again until you get it right.

YEAR 7- MICHAELMAS TERM- SPANISH - MICHAELMAS 2 -MI FAMILIA Y MIS AMIGOS



Semana 2

Los números 20 - 100 Numbers 20 - 100				
veinte	20	setenta	70	
treinta	30	ochenta	80	
cuarenta	40	noventa	90	
cincuenta	50	cien	100	
sesenta	60			

¿De qué color tienes los ojos? What colour are your eyes?

Tengo los ojos	I have eyes.	marrones	brown	
azules	blue	verdes	green	
grises	grey	Llevo gafas.	I wear glasses.	

Semana 3

¿Cómo tienes el pelo?	What's your hair like	?	
Tengo el pelo	I have hair.	rizado	curly
castaño	brown	largo	long
negro	black	corto	short
rubio	blond	Soy pelirrojo/a.	I am a redhead.
azul	blue	Soy calvo.	I am bald.
liso	straight		

Semana 4

¿Cómo es?	What is he/she like?		
Es	He/She is	joven	young
No es muy	He/She isn't very	viejo/a	old
alto/a	tall	Tiene pecas.	He/She has freckles.
bajo/a	short	Tiene barba.	He has a beard.
delgado/a	slim	mis amigos	my friends
gordo/a	fat	mi mejor amigo/a	my best friend
guapo/a	good-looking	su mejor amigo/a	his/her best friend
inteligente	intelligent		



Semana 5

¿Cómo es tu casa o tu piso? What is your house or flat like?			
Vivo en	Hive in	cómodo/a	comfortable
una casa	a house	grande	big
un piso	a flat	moderno/a	modern
antiguo/a	old	pequeño/a	small
bonito/a	nice		

Semana 6

ċDónde está?	Where is it?		
Está en	It is in	un pueblo	a village
el campo	the countryside	elnorte	the north
la costa	the coast	elsur	the south
una ciudad	a town	el este	the east
el desierto	the desert	eloeste	the west
la montaña	the mountains	el centro	the centre

Palabras muy frequency words High-frequency words			
además	also, in addition	un poco	a bit
bastante	quite	mi/mis	my
porque	because	tu/tus	your
muy	very	su/sus	his/her
¿Quién?	Who?		

YEAR 7— MICHAELMAS TERM — PSHE— DIET AND FITNESS

TERM /— ITICITALLITA TEMIT — POILE— VIET MINUTITIVESS		
Key term	Definition	
1. body mass index (or BMI)	a weight-to-height ratio that shows if you're overweight, underweight or at a healthy weight	
2. calorie	a unit for measuring the amount of energy we get from food	
3. carbohydrate	a substance in foods such as bread and potatoes that is a major source of energy or calories	
4. cholesterol	a substance in body cells that can cause heart disease if levels in the blood are too high	
5. diabetes	a serious illness in which your body cannot regulate the amount of sugar in the blood	
6. malnutrition	a condition of weakness or illness caused by eating too much food, not enough food or unhealthy food	
7. nutrient	a substance in food that is necessary for good health	
8. obesity	the state of being very overweight, or the medical condition related to this	
9. pescetarian	(of a diet) including vegetarian food and fish, but no other meat	
10. vegan	(of a diet) with plant foods only; without animal products, including meat, fish, seafood, eggs, milk, cheese, etc	
11. vegetarian	(of a diet) with plant foods and sometimes dairy products, but without meat, fish, or seafood	
12. preservative	a chemical substance used for preventing food from spoiling or wood from decaying	
13. process	to add chemicals or other substances to food to make it last longer or look or taste better	
14. saturated fat	a type of fat that's found in butter, cheese, red meat, etc.	



8 Tips For Healthy Eating

- 1. Base your meals on higher fibre starchy carbohydrates
- 2. Eat lots of fruit and veg
- 3. Eat more fish, including a portion of oily fish
- 4. Cut down on saturated fat and sugar
- 5. Eat less salt: no more than 6g a day for children 11+
- 6. Get active and be a healthy weight
- 7. Do not get thirsty
- 8. Do not skip breakfast

The eatwell plate

Use the eatwell plate to help you get the balance right. It shows how much of what you eat should come from each food group.

Fruit and Vegetables

Meat, fish, eggs, beans & other non-dairy protein

Food & drinks high in fat and/or sugar

15. trans fat (or trans fatty acid)

an artificial fat that makes food last longer and taste better but is very bad for health

YEAR 7— MICHAELMAS TERM — PSHE— DIET AND FITNESS

TERM T HILLIAN LEGIT - YOU - VIET MAN TITALS		
<u>Fitness</u> Key term	Definition	
1. Aerobic fitness	A measure of how well your blood transports oxygen around the body, and how well your muscles utilize the oxygen.	
2. Aerobic	Meaning with oxygen. Aerobic training is at a lower intensity, with the purpose of stimulating aerobic metabolism to improve.	
3. Anaerobic	Anaerobic processes occur in the cells of the body without the presence of oxygen. Anaerobic training is of high intensity and short duration, with the aim of the efficiency of the body's anaerobic energy-producing systems.	
4. Body composition	Body composition refers to the components of the body. It is usually divided into two components: the amount of fat mass (weight) and the amount of fat-free mass (muscle, bone, skin and organs) in the body.	
5. Cardiovascular	Concerning the heart and blood vessels.	
6. Endurance	The body's ability to exercise with minimal fatigue. Often used with other terms such as; endurance training, muscular endurance and cardiorespiratory endurance.	
7. Glycogen	The form in which carbohydrates are stored in the body. Primary sites for storage are the muscles and the liver.	
8. obesity	the state of being very overweight, or the medical condition related to this	
9. Interval training	A training session that involves repeated bouts of exercise, separated by rest intervals. Depending of the length of exercise and rest periods, it may be anaerobic or aerobic training.	
10. Lactic acid	Anaerobic exercise produces lactic acid, which quickly forms lactate in the muscles. because of this, the terms "lactate" and "lactic acid" are often used interchangeably.	
11. Resistance training	Training designed to increase the body's strength, power, and muscular endurance through resistance exercise. The most common form of which is weight training.	





How much physical activity should children and young people aged 5 to 18 do to keep healthy?

Children and young people need to do **2 types of physical activity** each week:

- aerobic exercise
- exercises to strengthen their muscles and bones

Children and young people aged 5 to 18 should:

- 1. aim for an average of at least 60 minutes of moderate intensity physical activity a day across the week
- 2. take part in a variety of types and intensities of physical activity across the week to develop movement skills, muscles and bones
- 3. reduce the time spent sitting or lying down and break up long periods of not moving with some activity. Aim to spread activity throughout the day. All activities should make you breathe faster and feel warmer