



YEAR 7 KNOWLEDGE ORGANISER

TRINITY TERM 2020/21

Name:

Family Group:



LEARNING - LOVING - LIVING



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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.

3 subjects per night x 20 minutes per subject = 1 hour. 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 checked in Family Group time 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 <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.

MICROSOFT TEAMS

Remember to check TEAMS regularly for updates and additional home learning files including copies of your mastery booklets.

You can also ask your teachers questions on teams and view videos of 'how to use your knowledge organiser'.



HOMEWORK TIMETABLE

Year 7	Subject 1	Subject 2	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 6

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.

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4 Methods of Retrieval Practice

@ImpactWales

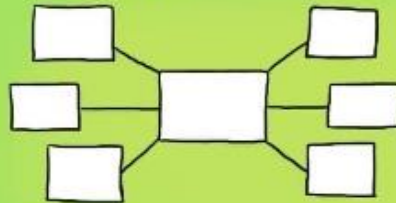
Before you start put away all your books & classroom materials.

Retrieval Practice Examples

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

BRAIN DUMP

Write, draw a picture, create a mind-map on everything you know about a topic.



Give yourself a time limit, say 3 minutes, then have a look at your books & add a few things you forgot.

QUIZZING

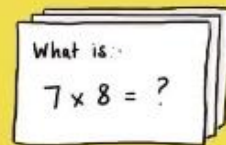
Create practice questions on a topic. Swap your questions with a partner & answer.

Question - What is a metaphor?

- ☐ A comparison using 'like, as, than'.
- ☐ A comparison where one thing is another.
- ☐ A comparison with a human attribute.

FLASHCARDS

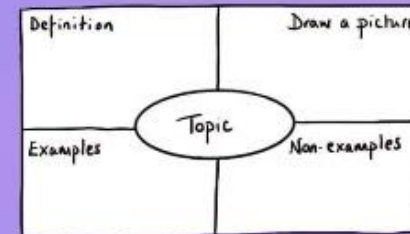
Create your own flashcards, question on one side answer on the other. Can you make links between the cards?



You need to repeat the Q&A process for flashcards you fail on more frequently & less frequently for those you answer correctly

KNOWLEDGE ORGANISERS

Complete a knowledge organiser template for key information about a topic.



You can use knowledge organisers to learn new vocab & make links in between subjects or ideas.

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

CONCRETE EXAMPLES

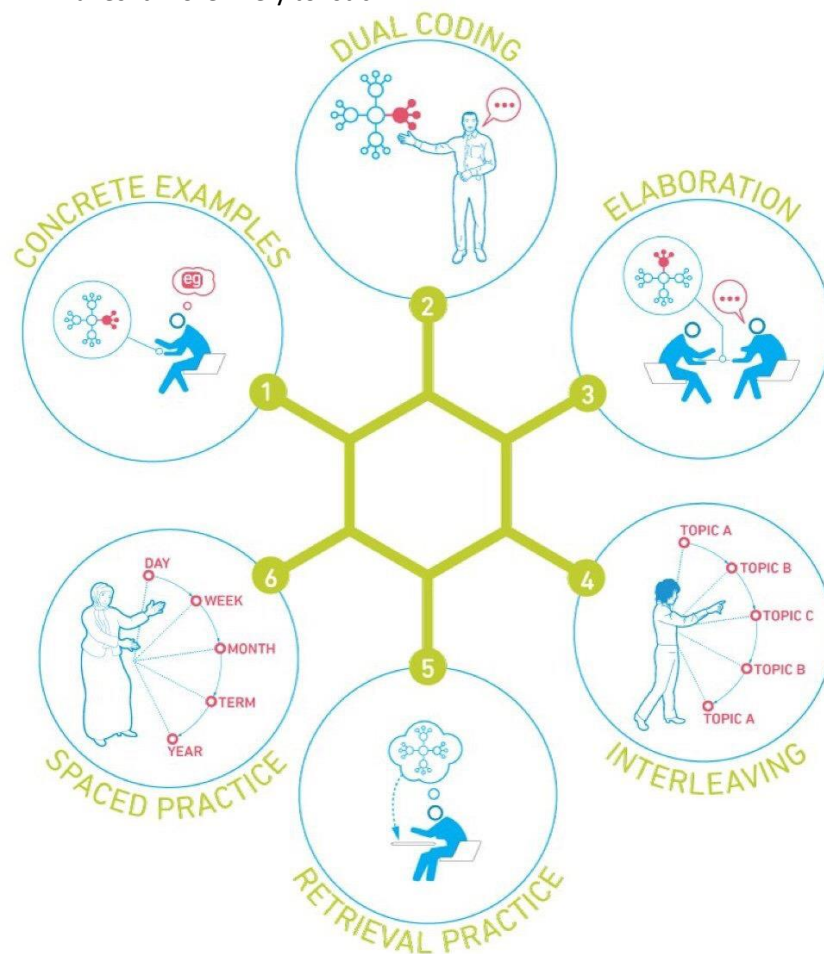
When you're studying, try to think about how you can turn ideas you're learning into concrete examples. Making a link between the idea you're studying and a real life example, concrete example, can help students understand abstract ideas and make it 'stick'.

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.

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. Combining images with words or explaining an image makes it more likely to 'stick'.



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.

INTERLEAVING

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

Context		Definition		Key Characters	
1) Sophocles	Ancient Greek dramatist	1) Antigone	The tragic heroine of the play. The daughter of Oedipus		
2) Thebes	A Greek city state in which the events of Antigone occur.	2) Creon	Antigone's uncle. The ruler of Thebes.		
3) Polis	Greek city states	3) Eurydice	Creon's wife.		
4) Patriarchy	A system of society or government in which men hold power	4) Ismene	Antigone's sister.		
5) Great Dionysia	Ancient dramatic festival held in Athens in honour of Dionysus, the god of wine. Tragic and comic drama originated here.	5) Haemon	Son of Creon and Eurydice, betrothed to Antigone. His name means blood.		
6) Theban Plays	Three plays concerning the fate of Thebes	6) Polynices	Antigone's brother. Killed by Eteocles before the play starts. Creon decrees that Polynices is not to be buried or mourned. Viewed as a traitor to the state.		
7) Oedipus Rex	The story of Oedipus as king. He accidentally fulfils the prophecy made at his birth that he would kill his father and marry his mother.	7) Eteocles	Brother of Polynices. Killed by Polynices but is given proper burial rites.		
8) Oedipus at Colonus	The banished Oedipus and his daughter Antigone arrive at the town of Colonus. Oedipus dies.	8) Teiresias	Blind prophet of Apollo.		
9) Antigone	Story of Antigone's defiance against Creon's decree that Polynices is not to be buried.	9) Oedipus	The father of Antigone. Tragic hero who fulfilled a prophecy that he would kill his father and marry his mother.		
Structure of Tragedy		Definition		Elements of Tragedy	
1) Hamartia	Tragic flaw	1) Tragedy	A play dealing with tragic events, especially one concerning the downfall of the main character.		
2) Anagnorisis	Protagonists undergo a process of recognition in which they see their nature and destiny more clearly than before.	2) Antithesis	Direct opposites.		
3) Peripeteia	Sudden reversal of fortune or change in circumstances	3) Chorus	Group of actors who described and commented on the main action of a play.		
4) Catastrophe	Final event of dramatic action	4) Dramatic Irony	The full significance of a character's words or actions is clear to the audience but not to the character.		
5) Resolution	Problem of the story is resolved or worked out	5) Protagonist	Main character in a story		
6) Catharsis	Release of powerful, healing emotions.	6) Antagonist	A person who actively opposes or is hostile to someone.		
Themes		Definition		Themes	
1) Hubris	Excessive pride or self-confidence	7) Sacrilege	Violation or misuse of what is regarded as sacred		
2) Tyranny	Cruel and oppressive government or rule	8) Loyalty	Strong feeling of support or allegiance		
3) Divine Law	Rule that is believed to come from God or the gods.	9) Ostracism	Exclusion from a society or a group.		
4) Civil authority	Power of command which a State exercises over its members.	10) Patricide	Murder of one's father		
5) Anarchy	State of disorder due to absence or non-recognition of authority	11) Fate	Destined to happen		
6) Patriot	Person who vigorously supports their country	12) Natural Rights	Rights that are universal and inalienable		
		13) Edict	An official order issued by a person in authority.		

Key Vocabulary		Definition	
1) Inhibiting	Hinder, restrain	23) Microcosm	A representation of something on a much smaller scale
2) Overbear	Overwhelm, bring down with superior weight or force	24) Insolence	Rude and disrespectful behaviour
3) Legitimate	Conforming to law or rules	25) Obstinate	Stubbornly refusing to change one's opinion or chosen course of action
4) Vindication	Proof that something is right, reasonable	26) Impudent	Not showing due respect for another person; impertinent
5) Antinomies	A contradiction between two beliefs that are, in themselves, reasonable	27) Proclamation	A public announcement or declaration
6) Authoritarian	Favouring strict obedience	28) Annihilate	Utterly destroy
7) Fundamental	Of central importance	29) Treachery	Betrayal of trust
8) Dichotomy	A contrast between two things which are entirely different	30) Revere	Feel deep respect or admiration for
9) Audacity	Showing a willingness to take surprisingly bold risks	31) Deity	A god
10) Dogmatic	Inclined to lay down principles as undeniably true		
11) Solipsism	Quality of being self-centered or selfish	32) Subversive	Someone who undermines and challenges power, authority and order
12) Nihilism	Belief that life is meaningless	33) Prolifically	Producing a lot of something
13) Subvert	Undermine the power of authority	34) Innovative	Introducing new ideas, creative in thinking
14) Martyr	A person who is killed because of their religious or other beliefs	35) Radical	Innovative, not traditional
15) Pious	Deeply religious	36) Tyranny	Cruel government
16) Sacrilegious	Showing disrespect to something holy	37) Oligarchy	When a country is ruled by a small group of people. Government by the few
17) Fallible	Capable of making mistakes or being wrong	38) Usurp	To take illegally or by force
18) Admonish	To firmly reprimand, tell off	39) Scholar	A specialist in a particular branch of study, especially the humanities
19) Ramification	An unwelcome consequence of an action	40) Misogyny	Dislike of, or prejudice against women
20) Alluded	To refer to casually or indirectly	41) Erroneous	Wrong
21) Analogy	Comparison between one thing and another	42) Desecration	Damage or treat with disrespect
22) Impious	Showing a lack of respect for religion	43) Chastise	To rebuke or tell off seriously

Key vocabulary	
1. Crucible (n)	A severe test or trial; a test designed to bring about change or reveal an individual's true character.
2. Overture (n)	An introduction, opening, prelude, prologue.
3. Autocracy (n) Autocratic (adj)	A government in which one person has absolute power, dictatorship; despotism.
4. Paradox (n)	A statement that seem contradictory.
5. Deviant (n) Deviancy (n) Deviation (n)	Departure from a standard or norms.
6. Conjure (v)	To raise spirits from the dead.
7. Hypocrisy (n) Hypocrite (n) Hypocritical (adj)	A pretence of having a virtuous character, moral or religious beliefs or principles that one does not really possess.
8. Defamation (n) Defame (v)	The act of saying false things in order to make people have a bad opinion of someone or something.
9. Accusatory (adj) Accusation (n)	Containing an accusation.

10. Ideology (n) Ideological (adj)	The body of doctrine, myth, belief, that guides an individual..
11. Predilection (n)	A tendency to think favourably of something particular; partiality; preference.
12. Defile (v)	To make foul, dirty or unclean, taint, debase
13. Steadfast (adj)	Firm in purpose, resolution, faith, attachment.
14. Conviction (n)	A fixed or firm belief in something without need for proof ; unshakeable belief
15.Exaltation (n)	The elevation of a person, as to the status of a God.
16. Punitive (adj)	Serving for, concerned with or inflicting punishment.

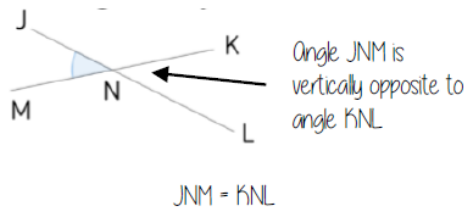
Key Terms	
17. Allegory	Figurative treatment of one subject under the guise of another.
18. Stage directions	An instruction written into the script of a play, indicating stage actions, movements of performers, or production requirements.
19. Subtext	The underlying and implicit meaning, as of a literary work.
20. Symbolism	The practice of representing things by symbols, or investing things with a symbolic meaning.
21. Dramatic irony	Situations of drama that is understood by the audience and not grasped by the characters in the play.
22. Motif	A recurring subject, theme, idea.
23. Denotation	Explicit or direct meaning of a word or expression.
24. Connotation	Something suggested or implied by a word or thing.
25. Hysteria	An uncontrollable outburst of emotion or fear, often characterized by irrational behavior.
26. Theocracy	A form of government in which God or a deity is recognized as the supreme civil ruler, the God's or deity's laws being interpreted by the ecclesiastical authorities.
27. Puritan	A person who is strict in moral and religious matters, often excessively so.
28. McCarthyism	The practice of making accusations of subversion or treason, without proper regard for evidence
29. Parochial	Very limited or narrow in scope or outlook; or provincial.

Keywords

- Polygon: A 2D shape made with straight lines
- Scalene triangle: a triangle with all different sides and angles
- Isosceles triangle: a triangle with two angles the same size and two angles the same size
- Right-angled triangle: a triangle with a right angle
- Frequency: the number of times a data value occurs
- Sector: part of a circle made by two radii touching the centre
- Rotation: turn in a given direction
- Protractor: equipment used to measure angles
- Compass: equipment used to draw arcs and circles

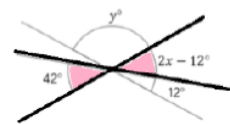
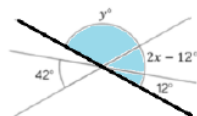
A **line** in Maths is infinitely thin and infinitely long. A **segment** is the part of a line between two points. An **angle** is a measure of rotation and is often shown as the amount of rotation required to turn one line segment onto another where the two line segments meet at a point (insert diagram). A **circle** is the set of all points in a plane which are at a fixed distance (the radius) from a fixed point (the centre) also in the plane

Vertically opposite angles



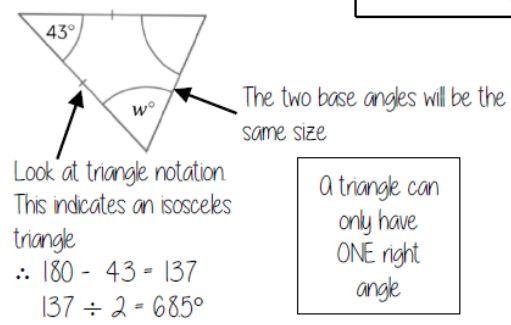
Vertically opposite angles are the same

Other angle rules still apply
Look for straight line sums and angles around a point



Form equations with information from diagrams:
 $2x - 12 = 42$
 $2x = 54$
 $x = 27^\circ$

Sum of angles in triangles

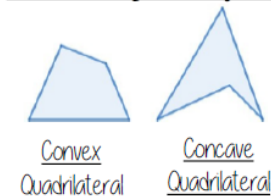


Sum of interior angles in a triangle = 180°



Have a go!
Tearing the corners from triangles forms a straight line which is therefore 180°

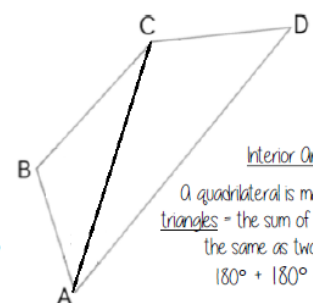
Sum of angles in quadrilaterals



Sum of interior angles in a quadrilateral = 360°

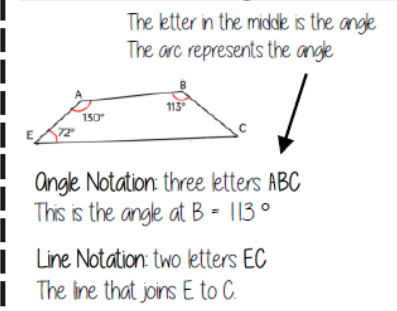


Interior angles are those that make up the perimeter (outline) of the shape



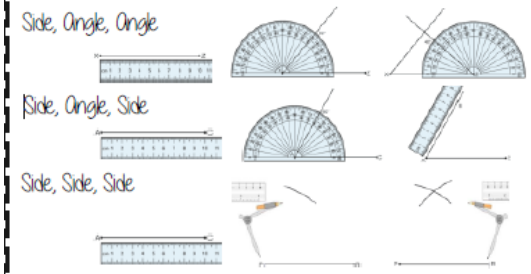
Interior Angles
A quadrilateral is made up of two triangles = the sum of interior angles is the same as two triangles
 $180^\circ + 180^\circ = 360^\circ$

Letter and labelling convention



Angle Notation: three letters ABC
This is the angle at B = 113°
Line Notation: two letters EC
The line that joins E to C.

SAS, SSS, ASA constructions



Keywords

Variable: a quantity that may change within the context of the problem.
Relationship: the link between two variables (items). E.g. Between sunny days and ice cream sales.
Correlation: the mathematical definition for the type of relationship.
Origin: where two axes meet on a graph.
Line of best fit: a straight line on a graph that represents the data on a scatter graph.
Outlier: a point that lies outside the trend of graph.
Quantitative: numerical data.
Qualitative: descriptive information, colours, genders, names, emotions etc.
Continuous: quantitative data that has an infinite number of possible values within its range.
Discrete: quantitative or qualitative data that only takes certain values.
Frequency: the number of times a particular data value occurs.

Keywords

Outcomes: the result of an event that depends on probability.
Probability: the chance that something will happen.
Set: a collection of objects.
Chance: the likelihood of a particular outcome.
Event: the outcome of a probability — a set of possible outcomes.
Biased: a built in error that makes all values wrong by a certain amount.
Union: Notation 'U' meaning the set made by comparing the elements of two sets.
Intersection: Notation '∩' the elements common to the two sets.

Sum to 1



Probability is always a value between 0 and 1

The probability of getting a blue ball is $\frac{1}{5}$

∴ The probability of NOT getting a blue ball is $\frac{4}{5}$

The sum of the probabilities is 1

Likelihood of a probability

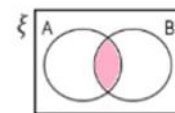
Impossible
0 or 0%

Even chance
 $0.5, \frac{1}{2}$ or 50%

Certain
1 or 100%

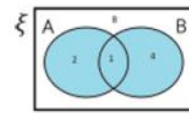
The more likely an event the further up the probability it will be in comparison to another event. (It will have a probability closer to 1)

Venn diagram



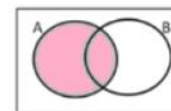
in set A AND set B

$$P(A \cap B)$$



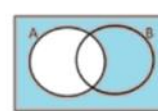
in set A OR set B

$$P(A \cup B)$$



in set A

$$P(A)$$



NOT in set A

$$P(A')$$

Mean, Median, Mode

The Mean

A measure of average to find the central tendency...
 a typical value that represents the data

24, 8, 4, 11, 8

Find the sum of the data (add the values) 55

Divide the overall total by how many pieces of data you have $55 \div 5$

$$\text{Mean} = 11$$

The Median

The value in the center (in the middle) of the data

24, 8, 4, 11, 8

Put the data in order

4, 8, 8, 11, 24

Find the value in the middle

4, 8, 8, 11, 24

$$\text{Median} = 8$$

NOTE: If there is no single middle value find the mean of the two numbers left

The Mode (The modal value)

This is the number OR the item that occurs the most (it does not have to be numerical)

24, 8, 4, 11, 8

This can still be easier if the data is ordered first

4, 8, 8, 11, 24

$$\text{Mode} = 8$$

Populations of a Species Change over Time

Populations change by **natural selection**, like this:

1. In a population of a **species**, the individuals vary: they have different **adaptations**.
2. All individuals are constantly in **competition** with each other to survive.
3. The individuals with adaptations that help them compete in their environment do survive. The individuals with adaptations that don't help them compete die.
4. The surviving individuals have the chance to **reproduce**.
5. When they have offspring, they pass on the useful adaptations in their genes.

When the environment changes, the adaptations that help survival might be different. This can cause adaptations that once helped survival to become less useful, so individuals with them can die. These changes could be:

- climate change;
- natural disaster like an asteroid striking Earth;
- new diseases in the environment;
- a new predator in the environment;
- new competing species in the environment.

If a large change to conditions in the environment happens, it could be that NO individuals have suitable adaptations for survival. In this case, all the individuals can die: this is called **extinction**.

Maintaining Biodiversity

High **biodiversity** is very important for keeping **ecosystems** going. An ecosystem with only one species won't last long. For humans, maintaining (keeping) biodiversity is important for a number of reasons:

1. All life in ecosystems and across the Earth is connected. Extinction of one species can cause the ecosystem to become unbalanced.
2. Humans use plants as a resource for new medicines.
3. Humans have rather a lot of control over nature, so we are responsible for looking after it.
4. Nature is beautiful and great to experience – we should look after it for future generations of people.

Two ways to maintain biodiversity:

1. Conserve the environment to protect ecosystems.
2. Conserve the genetic material of organisms that might be endangered using a **gene bank**.

Key Terms	Definitions
Species	One type of living organism
Population	All the individuals of a species in an area
Individual	One of a species (e.g. one lion, one beech tree)
Adaptation	A feature of an organism that allows it to survive in its environment. Adaptations are the result of natural selection.
Competition	The battle for survival in nature: individuals in a population compete for the limited resources (e.g. food) available.
Natural selection	The natural process in which useful adaptations keep individuals alive to reproduce, and adaptations that don't help survival are filtered out. This is how evolution happens.
Extinction	The complete destruction of all individuals of a species
Endangered	Describes species at risk of becoming extinct
Reproduction	Making offspring (babies).
Ecosystem	A group of populations of different species and their environment, linked by feeding relationships
Biodiversity	A measure of how many different species of organism live on Earth, or in a certain ecosystem. High biodiversity means there are many different species present.
Conserve	Keep an environment as it is.
Gene bank	A store of genetic material in case the organisms die out.

Gene Banks

Scientists worried that species might become extinct can preserve them for the future using a gene bank. There are different types of gene bank:

1. Frozen seeds of plants that could be used in the future
2. Plant tissue bank – where small parts of plants are kept alive in containers of nutrients
3. Frozen sperm cells and egg cells from animals, or pollen and ova from plants, that can be used to produce offspring in the future
4. A field gene bank: land is used to grow many species of plants and keep them alive for the future.

The Periodic Table

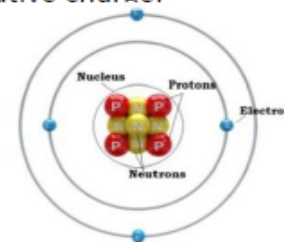
All the different elements are arranged on the Periodic Table. The elements are arranged in order of increasing atomic number. On the Periodic Table, the metal elements are on the left and non metal elements are on the right.

Metals Non-metals

Key Terms	Definitions
Atom	What all matter is made up off
Atomic number	The number of protons in an atom
Mass Number	The total number of protons + neutrons in the nucleus

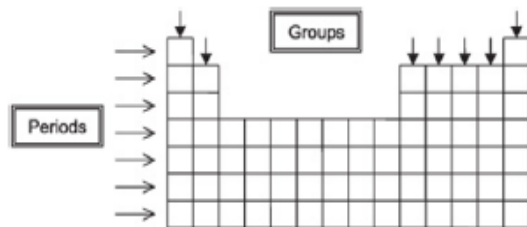
Structure of the Atom

- 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.



Groups and Periods

Elements are arranged on the periodic table in groups and periods. Horizontal rows are called periods and vertical columns are called groups.



Group Number – tells us the number of electrons on the outer shell.
Period Number – tells us the number of shells an atom has.

Groups are labelled 1-7 from left to right, with last group being called either group 8 or 0. Elements in the same group have similar properties.

Atomic Number and Mass Number

This is the total of protons + neutrons

Mass Number 23

Na

Sodium

This is the number of protons

Atomic Number 11

Electrons are not included in the mass number because they have hardly any mass.

To calculate the number of:

- Protons – look at the atomic number e.g. Na has 11 protons
- Electrons – must be equal to the number of protons e.g. Na has 11 electrons
- Neutrons – take away the atomic number from the mass number e.g. Na has 12 neutrons

Speed

The speed of an object is a compound measure, which shows the rate of change in distance with respect to a unit for time.

The standard unit for speed is m/s (metres per second).

Miles per hour and kilometres per hour are also commonly used.

Speed is calculated by **dividing distance by the time** (see equation in the box). The distance and time can be read from a distance-time graph.

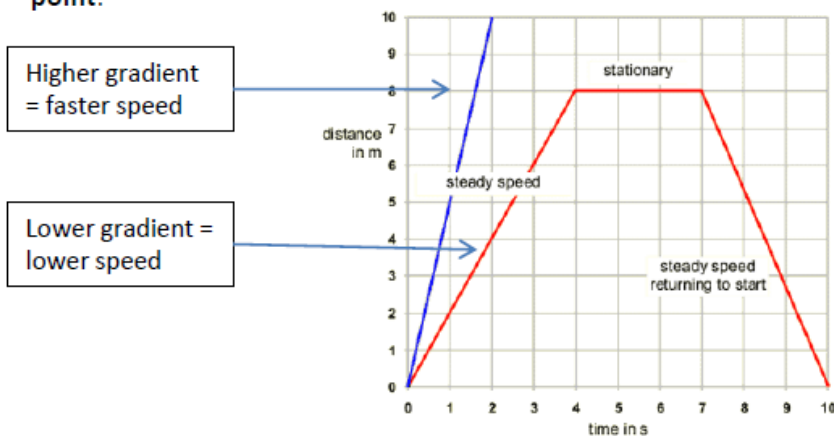
If the speed of an object is increasing, then it is **accelerating**. If the speed is decreasing it is **decelerating**.

Speed	Acceleration
$speed = \frac{distance}{time}$	$acceleration = \frac{change\ in\ speed}{time}$

Distance-Time Graphs

A distance time graph shows the time on the horizontal axis and the distance on the vertical axis.

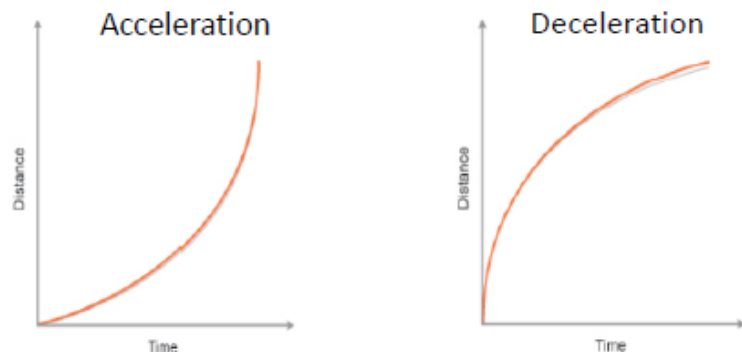
- If an object is stationary (not moving) the line **will be horizontal**.
- If the line has a diagonal slope the object is moving at a **constant** speed. The steepness (gradient) of the line shows the speed.
- If the line is going back towards the x axis it is **returning to its starting point**.



Key terms	Definitions
speed	The rate of change in distance with respect to time
gradient	How steep the line on a graph is; gradient represents the change in the y-variable with respect to the x-variable
stationary	Not moving
constant speed	A speed that is not changing, so the same distance is covered every second
axes	The horizontal and vertical lines used when plotting a graph
acceleration	The measure of how rapidly the speed of an object is changing
deceleration	The measure of how rapidly an object is slowing down

Acceleration and Deceleration

- When an object is accelerating, the line on a distance time graph will **curve upwards**, because the gradient gets steeper.
- When an object is slowing down the line will **curve towards the horizontal**, because the gradient gets less steep.



A force can be a **push** or a **pull**. You can not see forces, you can only see what the changes to objects that they cause.

When a force is applied to an object it can lead to:

- A **change in speed (acceleration)**
- A **change in the object's direction of movement**
- A **change in the object's shape (squash or stretch the object).**

Forces can also be divided into 2 types, contact forces and non contact forces.

1. **Contact forces** act between objects that are touching. Examples: friction, normal contact force, thrust, upthrust, air resistance (drag). Friction acts whenever an object is moving through a fluid (a fluid is a liquid or gas), or when one solid surface is moving along another solid surface.
2. **Non-contact forces** act between objects even if they are NOT touching. Examples: gravity, weight, magnetic force.

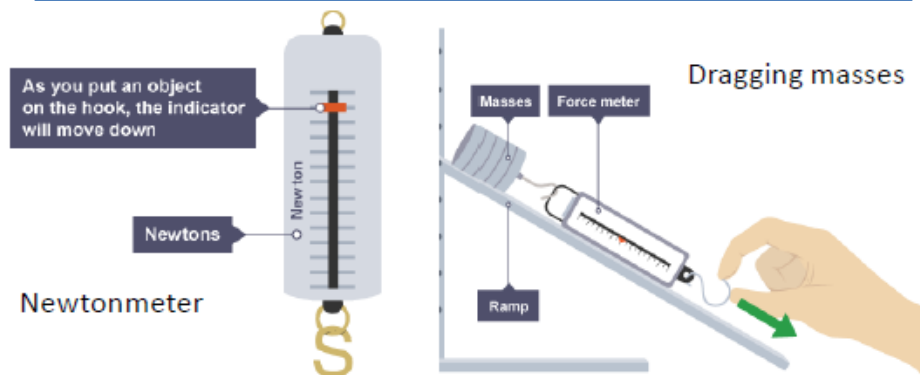
The unit of force is the **newton (N)**. This is named after Sir Isaac Newton, who developed a theory of gravity and showed how forces affect objects.

Measuring the size of forces

The laboratory equipment for measuring forces is also named after Sir Isaac Newton: the newtonmeter (see diagram).

To measure the size of frictional forces on different surfaces you can drag masses along the different surfaces and record how much force is required. For this experiment :

- Independent variable: Type of surface
- Dependent variable: Force
- Control variable: Mass



Key Term	Definitions
Force	An interaction between objects that causes changes to objects or how objects are moving
Newton	The unit of force
Newtonmeter	A piece of equipment that can be used to measure the size of the force
Contact force	A force acting between objects that are physically touching
Non-contact force	A force acting between objects that are not physically touching

Key Term	Definitions
Weight	The force pulling objects towards the centre of the Earth due to gravity
Gravity	The force between any two objects. We only notice gravity's pull if the objects are very large, like the Earth
Upthrust	The upward force produced by objects pushing down on fluids (liquids and gases).
Normal contact force	The push force produced on objects when they push on something solid. Also called 'reaction'.

Force Arrows

Forces have a **size** and a **direction**. This means we show forces with arrows.

- The length of the arrows shows how large the force is.
- The direction the arrow points shows the direction the force pushes or pulls.

Diagrams that show the forces acting on objects, using arrows, are called **free body force diagrams**.

Resultant force

The **resultant** force acting on an object is the single force *resulting* from all the separate forces acting on it. In other words, the resultant force is the single overall force.

To find resultant force:

- Add up forces acting in the same direction
- Subtract forces acting in opposite directions.

If the forces are equal in size and opposite in direction, the forces are **balanced** and the resultant force is 0 N. In all the free body force diagrams to the right, the forces are balanced. If the forces are not equal in size, they are **unbalanced** and the resultant force is NOT 0 N.

Resultant forces cause the **changes** to objects described on the last page.

We will focus on changes to speed:

1. If the resultant force on an object is 0 N, the object's speed does not change. This means it is stationary (still) OR keeps going at a constant speed.
2. If there is a resultant force on an object, its speed will change. It will **accelerate** or **decelerate**.
3. Knowing the resultant force does not tell you which way an object is moving. It just tells you that the speed will change.
4. A LARGER resultant force is needed to accelerate an object at a higher acceleration. Also, a larger resultant force is needed to accelerate heavier objects.

Newton's second law

Point 4. above is shown in Newton's second law: this equation –

$$F_R = m \times a$$

Where F_R is the **resultant force** measured in newtons,

m is the **mass** of the object measured in kilograms,

a is the **acceleration** of the object measured in metres per second per second (m/s/s).

Forces and Energy

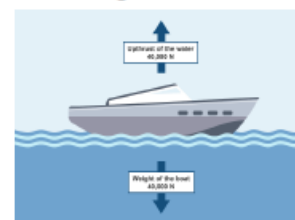
When forces are acting on an object, it causes a transfer in the store of energy.

Example to know: when a push force is applied to a moving object, the energy changes store from kinetic energy to thermal energy. This is because the push force is working against friction, and friction causes objects to warm up.

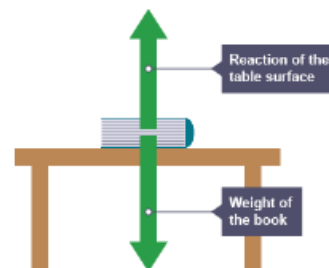
Free Body Force Diagrams

Learn the forces and their directions for each force on these free body force diagrams:

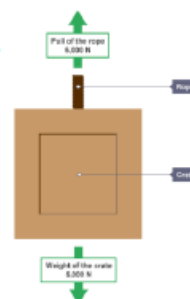
A boat floating



A book on a desk



A crate held up by a rope

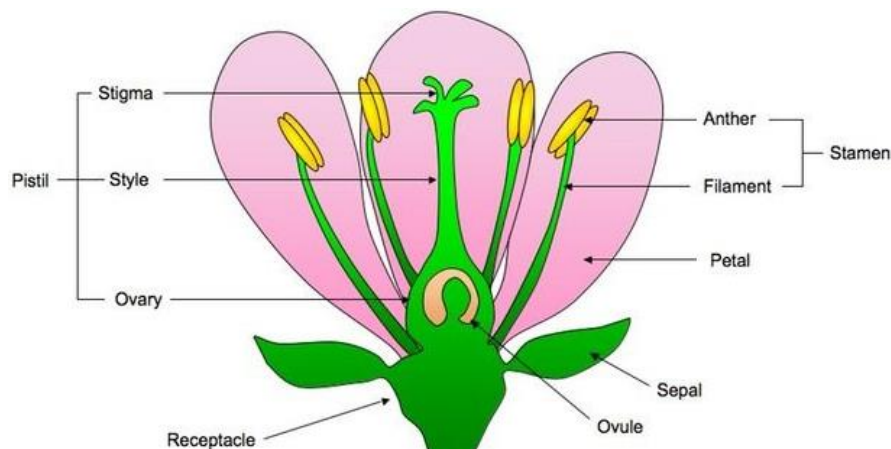


Pollination

Pollination is the transfer of pollen from the anthers of one flower to the stigma of another flower (of the same species).

- In **wind pollination**, the wind carries the pollen from the anthers of one flower to the stigma of another.
- In **insect pollination**, insects carry pollen from anthers to stigmas. Insects (e.g. bees) go to flowers to get nectar for food; the pollen sticks to them, and is carried on to the next flower.

Flowers of insect-pollinated plants tend to be adapted to attract pollinating insects, sometimes having stripes to guide the insects toward the nectar and pollen.

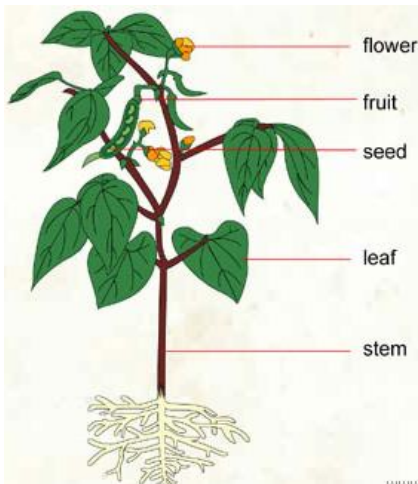


Plant Structures

There are three main plant tissues:

1. Dermal tissue – outer covering of the plant.
2. Vascular tissue – used for transport in the plant.
3. Ground tissue – for photosynthesis, storage and support.

These tissues work together in the organs (roots, stems, leaves and flowers) and the organs work together in two organ systems:



Shoot system

Stem, leaves, fruit, flowers (if present)

Root system

One or more separate roots

Plant Reproductive System

Anthers produce pollen, the male gametes. They are joined to the flower by a filament.

Female gametes, ovules, are produced and stored in the ovary. Above this is a stalk-like structure called a style that ends in a sticky surface called the stigma. The stigma will accept incoming pollen to allow fertilisation.

Fertilisation

After pollination, the pollen makes a pollen tube down the style to the ovary. The nucleus of the pollen cell travels down the tube to get to the ovum (egg cell) – when the cells join, this is fertilisation.

The cell made when the pollen and ovum fuse will become a seed, which can become a new plant. Plants then form fruits, often from the ovary walls.

Seed Dispersal

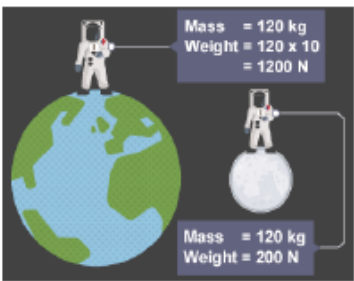
Plants spread their seeds out – this is called dispersal – so that the offspring don't compete with them for light or soil nutrients. Dispersal can be via:

- Animals – eating the fruit and releasing seeds in waste (e.g. mistletoe).
- Wind – carrying seeds away (e.g. sycamore or dandelion).
- Water – tides or currents carrying away fruit (e.g. coconuts).

Mass and Weight

Mass measures how much material there is (in kg), whereas weight measures the **force** acting on an object due to a **gravitational field**. Therefore the mass of an object **never changes**.

The weight of an object depends on **the gravitational force** that is acting on it and can therefore change. The diagram below shows the difference between mass and weight, not how the astronaut's mass remains constant but their weight is much lower on the Moon.



Key Terms	Definitions
Mass	Mass measures the amount of material in an object, and is measured in kilograms (kg).
Weight	Weight is a force , caused by gravity acting on a mass. Since it is a force, it is measured in Newtons.
Gravitational Field Strength	The measure of how strong the gravitational field of a large object is. For instance, the gravitational field strength on Earth is about 10 N/kg. This means that a weight of 10 N acts on each kg of mass on Earth.

Weight on different planets

All planets have a gravitational field strength. This is a measure of how much force another object will experience. Weight is a force produced by a gravitational field acting on an object with mass and is calculated using the formula:

Weight (N) = mass (kg) x gravity (N/kg)

Below is an example of how much a 50kg mass would weigh in different parts of the solar system. When an object is in space we say it is weightless as the force of gravity felt by the object is very small.

Planet	Weight of 50kg mass
Mercury	180N
Venus	440N
Earth	500N
Jupiter	1245N
Pluto	14.5N

Gravitational forces

There is a gravitational force of attraction between all objects. However this force only becomes important when the objects are very large. For example planets, stars and moons. The size of the gravitational force between objects depend on two things:

- 1. How large the objects are
- 2. How far away the objects are from each other

For example all the planets are attracted to the Sun by a force of gravitational attraction, this keeps them in orbit and prevents them from flying off into space. The Moon is also kept in orbit with the Earth due to gravitational attraction. As the Earth is much smaller than the Sun it can only keep the Moon in orbit as it is very close to the Earth.

The seasons

The Earth’s axis (the imaginary line between the North and South poles) is tilted slightly. The angle of the tilt is approximately 23°: this means that different parts of the Earth are tilted toward or away from the sun at different times of year.

- When the northern hemisphere is tilted toward the sun, we get summer in the UK (longer days and warmer temperatures). It will be winter in the southern hemisphere.
- When the northern hemisphere is tilted away from the sun, we get winter in the UK (shorter days and colder temperatures). It will be summer in the southern hemisphere.
- During the summer, the Sun appears higher in the sky and the day is longer. During the winter, the Sun appears lower in the sky and the day is shorter.



Day and Night and Years

The Earth takes 365 ¼ days to orbit the Sun, we call this **a year**. The length of a year is different on other planets. If the planet is further from the Sun the length of a year is longer, for example Jupiter takes 12 Earth years to orbit the Sun. This is because Jupiter has to travel much further in its orbit.

The Earth is constantly rotating on its axis (the imaginary line between the North and South pole). It rotates once every 24 hours, we call this **a day**. During this time, half of the Earth will be facing the Sun, this half of the Earth will be in daylight, the side not facing the Earth will be in night.

Key Terms	Definitions
Axis	The imaginary line in the Earth between North and South pole
Day	The time taken for a planet to rotate once on its axis. On Earth this is 24 hours.
Year	The time taken for a planet to completely orbit the Sun. It takes Earth 365.25 days.

Our solar system

Our solar system consists of:

- One star: the Sun (the Sun is about 100 times larger than Earth);
- Eight planets, which orbit the Sun;
- Dwarf planets, such as Pluto, which also orbit the Sun;
- Natural satellites: the moons that orbit some of the planets;
- Other objects like asteroids and comets.

Our solar system is a very small part of the Milky Way galaxy. Galaxies consist of millions of stars, held together by their gravitational attraction to one another.

The order of the objects in terms of size is:

asteroid → moon → planet → star → solar system → galaxy



Key Terms	Definitions
Star	A huge (compared to Earth) sphere of superhot gas (plasma).
Planet	A spherical object much smaller than a star, made of rocky or gaseous material, which orbits a star.
Dwarf planet	Small planets that have not cleared their orbit of other material. Like planets, they orbit a star.
Galaxy	A huge number of stars held together by their gravitational attraction to one another. Our galaxy is called the Milky Way.
Astronomical Unit	Distance between the Earth and the Sun
The Universe	Is all of space and time
Light year	The distance travelled by light in one year.

Light Years

The distance between objects in the Universe are so large that we do not use units like kilometres: instead, we use the **light year**.

A light year is a measure of distance equal to the distance light travels in one year (9400000000000km).

The distance between the Sun and our nearest other star Alpha Centauri is 4.22 light years.

The distance between the Milky Way and our nearest other galaxy Andromeda is 2.5 million light years.

In our solar system, the **astronomical unit (AU)** is often used as a unit of measurement. 1AU is the distance from the Earth to the Sun, or 149597870km. The distance between Mars and the Sun is approximately 1.52 AU.

Theories on the formation of the Solar System

Human's understanding of the Solar System has developed. The Greek astronomer Ptolemy proposed the **geocentric model**, which placed the Earth at the centre of the Solar System, with other stars and planets orbiting the Earth, while the Earth remained stationary.

In the 17th century Galileo invented the refracting telescope, with this he observed Jupiter and observed that Jupiter had Moons. This showed that not everything orbited the Earth. This led to the development of the **heliocentric model** of the Solar System, this time the Sun was stationary and at the centre, whilst the planets orbited the Sun. This was proposed by the scientist Copernicus.

The heliocentric model was an improvement but using modern telescopes we now know much more about the Universe and have discovered that our Solar System is also rotating as part of the Milky Way Galaxy.

No.	Key Term	Definition
1	Ice Age	A time when Earth's average temperature was lower than usual and glaciers spread.
2	Tundra	A cold region where the ground is deeply frozen; only the surface thaws in the summer
3	Pleistocene	The Pleistocene Epoch is typically defined as the time period that began about 2.6 million years ago and lasted until about 11,700 years ago. The most recent Ice Age occurred then, as glaciers covered huge parts of the planet Earth
4	Holocene	From about the last 12 000 years till now- end of the last major ice age until now.
5	Glacier	A river of ice
6	Glacial	To do with glaciers
7	Glaciated	Covered by glaciers, now or in the past
8	Geology	Types of rocks
9	Erode	The breaking down of material
10	Transport	The movement of material
11	Deposit	The dropping of material
12	Ice Shelf	A sheet of ice that is attached to land, but floats on the ocean
13	Icebergs	Chunk of ice that has broken off an ice shelf.

	Glacial erosion and transportation processes	
14	Abrasion	The plucked rocks scrape bits off the glacial bed.
15	Plucks	The ice freezes around the stones and pulls it out.
16	Freeze-Thaw weathering	Water under the glacier freezes in cracks in the rocks. As it freezes it expands and so the crack gets bigger/ It thaws, fills with more water and freezes again and so on.
17	Crevasses	Deep scars in the landscape created by glaciers
18	Striations	Deep scratches in the rock as a result of abrasion caused by glaciers
19	Glacial Till	Rocks, stones, clay and sands deposited by glaciers
20	Meltwater	Water from melting glacial ice
21	Snout	The end of the glacier.
22	Glacial landform	Landforms created by glaciers

	Glacial Landforms	
23	U Shaped Valley	Abrasion and plucking widens the valley creating a U shape.
24	Misfit river	A river that doesn't fit the size of the valley
25	Ribbon Lake	Long thin lakes caused by a glacier scraping the valley floor.
26	Hanging Valley	A small valley that hangs above a larger one.
27	Moraines	Where a glacier melts it deposits its load of rocks, sands, clays and stones= everything falls as till. This deposited till is called a moraine.

No.	Key Term	Definition
1	A superpower	A country that has some or all of the following qualities 1) A large landmass 2) A large population 3) A strong military 4) lots of political influence 5) A high GDP 6) Cultural dominance
2	A plain	A landmass that is flat or has gentle rolling hills- over many kilometres
3	Peninsula	Surrounded by water on three sides
4	A continental climate	Characterised by two main seasons; long, dark cold winters with brief warm summers
5	Taiga Biome	A biome characterized by coniferous forests, consisting mostly of pines, spruces and larches. The taiga is the world's largest biome (apart from oceans)
6	Tundra Biome	Comes from the Finnish word "tunturia" meaning "treeless plain". It is the coldest of all the biomes and is too cold for trees to grow.
7	Permafrost	Permanently frozen soils
8	Choropleth Map	A map that uses different colours to show variations in data.
9	Densely populated	Crowded places
10	Sparsely populated	Few people living there.
11	Population density	Total population / area= population density shown as people per km ²
12	GIS	Geographical Information System
13	EEZ	Exclusive Economic Zone

	Russia key facts	
14	Size	Biggest country in the world; occupies one-tenth of all the land on Earth
15	Size compared to the UK	70 times the size of the UK
16	Continent	Mostly in Asia but partly in Europe
17	Lake Baikal	Is the world's deepest and oldest lake, holds 20% of the world's unfrozen water
18	Forests	Accounts for 20% of the world's forests
19	Mountains	The Ural mountains separate Asia and Europe
20	Record low temperature	-71°C recorded in Siberia in 1974
21	Number of neighbouring countries	14
22	Natural Gas	Produces 20% of the world's natural gas.
23	Population	142 million (only twice that of the UK).

	Energy Key terms	
24	Non-renewables	These are being used up and cannot be replaced- coal, oil and gas.
25	Renewables	These will never run out and can be used over and over again i.e. solar and wind power.
26	Recyclable	They provide energy from sources that can be recycled or reused i.e. biofuels.
27	Peak Oil	The theoretical point at which half of the known reserves of oil in the world have been used.
28	Shale Gas	Natural gas trapped in shale rock.



YEAR 7- TRINITY TERM — HISTORY- THE STUARTS AND THE ENGLISH CIVIL WAR

Key Words		
1	Civil War	A war between different groups within the same country
2	Divine Right of Kings	A belief that the Monarch was chosen by God, that their power and authority was derived from God and they had to answer to no one except God
3	Puritans	Strict Puritans who thought the Church of England had not gone far enough in removing popish elements; they wanted a purified Church
4	Laudian reforms	Changes made by William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, introducing more ceremony, decorations and music; to Puritans it looked popish (Roman Catholic)
5	Ship money	A tax traditionally only imposed on coastal towns in times of war, to pay for the navy; Charles imposed the tax during peace and across the country
6	Court of Star Chamber	A special, medieval, law court which sat in secret and needed no evidence or witnesses; Charles used it to prosecute opponents
7	Impeach	To put a member of the government on trial for crimes; the trial is heard by Parliament
8	Cavaliers	The insulting nickname given to the Royalists, who fought for the King; it literally meant "horsemen" but also suggested arrogance and conceit
9	Roundheads	The insulting nickname given to those who fought for Parliament; many Puritans wore their hair very short / closely cropped
10	New Model Army	Fulltime, highly disciplined, professional army set up by Thomas Fairfax and Oliver Cromwell; Puritan in makeup; vital in defeating Charles
11	Regicide	Literally "kingkillers";

The Gunpowder Plot 1605

12	Who: A group of Catholics including Guy Fawkes, Robert Catesby, Thomas Winter, Thomas Percy, and John Wright.
13	What: Plotted to kill the King of England (James I) by blowing Parliament up
14	Where: A cellar under the House of Lords, Parliament, Westminster, London
15	When: 5th November 1605. This was State Opening day, when the King, Lords and Commons would all be present in the Lords Chamber to open parliament.
16	Why: Guy Fawkes was one of a small group of Catholics who felt that the government was treating Roman Catholics unfairly. They hoped that King James would change the laws, but he didn't. Catholics had to practise their religion in secret. There were even fines for people who didn't attend the Protestant church on Sunday or on holy days. James passed more laws against the Catholics when he became king. These Catholics wanted to get rid of Protestant ideas.

17	Charles' Problems		
Money	Religion	Power	
-Charles had a lavish lifestyle and was running out of money, he was bankrupt. -Raising taxes without consulting Parliament -Ship Tax collect	-Charles married a Catholic in 1625, Henrietta Maria of France. Charles forced the Scottish Church to look more Catholic. -He introduced a new prayer book in 1637. Charles allied Protestant England with Catholic Spain.	-Charles believed in Divine Right, he did not want Parliament telling him what to do. -In 1640 Charles lost a war against the Scottish which made him look weak. -In 1642 Charles took control of the army without Parliament's permission	

Key People

18	James I	King of England and Scotland from 1603-1625
19	Charles I	Ruled from 1625-1649
20	Henrietta Maria	Daughter of Henri IV of France; Catholic
21	William Laud	Archbishop of Canterbury; Protestant; initiated reforms in the Church which were hated by Puritans
22	Thomas Fairfax	Parliamentarian General and creator of the New Model Army
23	Oliver Cromwell	Ruled England as Lord Protector from 1653-1658
24	Richard Cromwell	Ruled England as Lord Protector from 1658-1659
25	Charles II	Charles I's son. Ruled from 1660-1685

Key events

1642	22nd August: Charles raises the royal standard at Nottingham Castle, starting the civil war. 23rd October: Battle of Edgehill – a draw between Charles and Parliament
1644	2nd July: Battle of Marston Moor – Charles defeated by Parliament
1645	February: New Model Army created by Thomas Fairfax and Oliver Cromwell 14th June: Battle of Naseby. Charles devastatingly defeated by Parliament
1646	End of the First Civil War, when Charles surrendered to the Scots who handed him over to Parliament, in return for money
1648	Second Civil War, when Charles persuaded the Scots to invade England on his behalf; rebellions in support of Charles in Wales and Kent 19th August: Battle of Preston- Decisive victory for Parliament
1649	Trial of Charles on charges of being a "tyrant, traitor, murderer and public enemy"; execution of Charles I "I go from a corruptible to an incorruptible Crown"
1649	Charles I executed in London. Commonwealth of England (England becomes a Republic) under Oliver Cromwell and Parliament.
1650	Cromwell appointed as Lord General, effectively commander in chief, of the parliamentary armed forces
1653	Cromwell became Lord Protector – ruling over England like a King.
1658	3rd September – Oliver Cromwell dies. He is succeeded by his son Richard Cromwell as Lord Protector

YEAR 7- TRINITY TERM — HISTORY- THE BRITISH EMPIRE

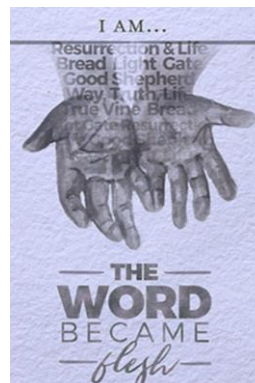
1	Empire	A group of countries, people or land controlled and ruled by one single powerful country.
2	New world	A name given to the Americas during colonization by Europeans in the 16 th century.
3	Governor	Most British colonies had a Governor who would be responsible for ruling on behalf of the monarchy.
4	Privateer	A naval captain who has permission from their government to attack and rob the ships of another country.
5	Tariff	Tax paid on goods that are imported.
6	Mughal Empire	The Empire that ruled India in the 1500's which, at its height, ruled four million square kilometers.
7	Colony	A country that is part of an Empire.
8	Penal Colony	An area of land or country used to house prisoners
9	Native	A person that has been in a country or region from earliest times.
10	Commonwealth	A group of nations with a shared loyalty or government
11	East India Company	a powerful English company that had trading rights throughout India.
12	Nawab	An Indian prince or ruler
13	Puppet ruler	An official ruler who has little political power because they are controlled by someone else.
14	Garrison	A base for soldiers
15	Governor-General	The chief representative of Britain in its colonies.
16	Mutiny	A revolt by members of the military
17	Missionary	A person sent on a religious mission, often to convert people to Christianity.
18	Cash crop	Crop grown and sold for profit rather than grown for the local people.

The British Empire	
19	-At its largest, covered 13 million miles or 22% of the world! -It controlled over 450 million people or 1/5 of the world's population. -Began in the 16th Century, with British forces establishing trading posts overseas and grew all the way through to the 20th Century.
Colonies of the British Empire	
20	Australia - Australia was used as a <u>location for criminals</u> . Criminals would be shipped to Australia, where they would be used as a workforce. It also gave people an opportunity to <u>escape poverty and gain wealth</u> in Australia. It was also an important naval base, helping Britain control the seas.
21	The Caribbean – Because of the warm climate, the Caribbean <u>grew important crops</u> that Britain could not. Therefore sugar, cocoa and coffee were all grown in the Caribbean and taken to Britain. In the middle of the 1800's however, bad weather and the growth of sugar in America, led to less money being made from the area.
22	Africa – Britain used the people of Africa <u>as slaves</u> and made a lot of money selling them at auctions. <u>The Gold Coast was important</u> because it held lots of gold, ivory and silver, which were traded for fortunes.
23	India – India was an important producer of spices and of materials that were traded across the Empire.
How did the British Control its Empire?	
24	Military Force – Britain's weaponry developed throughout this period, inventing weapons such as the Maxim gun – one of the <u>first machine guns invented</u> . They also stopped guns coming into the hands of those in the Empire. The Africans had poor quality weaponry, they made their own bullets which broke their guns.
25	Use of Locals – The British went on a <u>charm offensive</u> , making the local rich people feel wanted and gave them more money and power. Local people ran the police, law courts and prisons, making them feel in charge of their country and less likely to break laws.
26	Communication – The British <u>could easily communicate</u> between the countries of their empire using methods such as telegraphs, radios and ships.
27	Gradual Change – The British didn't try to change everything at once, <u>they gradually changed</u> and developed areas of countries.
28	Dealing with Resistance – The British were <u>efficient in stopping</u> anyone who opposed the Empire. Protestors were immediately jailed and local armies broken up .
Fall of the Empire	
29	Actions by people in the colonies – There were demonstrations against British rule in the 1920's for failing to honour promises <u>to Egypt and Iraq</u> . Britain <u>allowed Ireland partition</u> (splitting into Northern Ireland and Ireland), it sent out a message to others in the Empire that they could leave. In 1948 there was violence in <u>Palestine</u> aimed at the British. There were <u>strikes in India</u> , Egypt and Kenya against British Rule.
30	Actions by people in Britain – In the 1960's people in Britain were <u>more interested in freedom</u> , rather than using force to keep people under control.
31	World Events – In 1931, Canada, Australia and New Zealand formed a new Commonwealth. The domination of the USA and Russia after WW2 showed that you didn't need to have an empire to be a world leader.
32	Trade and Economics - India became less important to the British Empire. The cost of keeping a large number of soldiers to defend the empire was too much
Wars of the Empire	
33	India - Britain started to occupy India in the 18th Century. As Britain gained control over India there were revolts against the British rule. At the <u>Battle of Plassey in 1757</u> , 3000 British soldiers defeated a 40,000 strong Indian and French Army.
34	Australia – Britain claimed Australia in 1770, the aborigines who already lived there were not happy about their land being taken. The <u>British killed huge numbers</u> . The same thing happened in New Zealand, where the <u>Maori people</u> were reduced from 100,000 to 35,000.
35	South Africa: In 1879 Britain wanted to control more of Africa and started a war against Zululand. Britain sent 16,000 soldiers and an easy victory was expected against <u>the Zulus</u> who were armed with shields and spears, however, British soldiers were defeated by 20,000 Zulu warriors.

**What evidence do we have that Jesus existed, and was the Son of God?**

For Christians, the Bible is the Word of God. It was written by many different people and it was put together over hundreds of years. Within the books in the Bible, there are different types of information. Some of it is poetry, some of it is prophecy, some of it laws and some of it is historical accounts.

Much of the New Testament is understood by Christians to be historical accounts, from which we can gain an accurate understanding of who Jesus was and what he was like. In the same way that we might refer to the Magna Carta to learn about what life was like in England in 1215.

**Jesus: the incarnation**

Christians believe that the birth of Jesus in Bethlehem just over 2,000 years ago was the entrance of God into His world as a human being. He was born into a Jewish family (Mary and Joseph) because Old Testament prophets had foretold that the Messiah would be born to a descendant of King David, the King of Israel.

At his birth, He was given the name 'Jesus' which means 'God saves'. This was to show why He came down to earth.

Christian beliefs concerning God

- There is only one God, but Christians believe that God has revealed Himself in three persons: God the Father, God the Son, and God the Holy Spirit. This belief is known as the Trinity.
- God is eternal (beyond time): God has always existed, and God will always exist.
- God created the universe without help.
- God is omnipresent (God is everywhere, all the time), God is omnipotent (God can do anything at all), God is omniscient (God knows everything).
- God is just, but God is also merciful. God punishes the bad and rewards the good.
- God is forgiving towards those who mess things up. All people have sinned, but God has made a way through Jesus for everyone to be restored to a right relationship with God, have eternal life and go to heaven.
- God the Father: the creator, source of life and ultimate authority in the universe.
- God the Son: God who lived on earth as Jesus, both fully God and fully human.
- God the Holy Spirit: God who is active in the world today—continues to guide, comfort and encourage Christians in their journey through life.

**Important Biblical Quotes**

"I and the Father are one." - John 10:30

"And when Jesus was baptized, immediately he went up from the water, and behold, the heavens were opened to him, and he saw the Spirit of God descending like a dove and coming to rest on him; and behold, a voice from heaven said, This is my beloved Son, with whom I am well pleased." - Matthew 3:16-17

"yet for us there is one God, the Father, from whom are all things and for whom we exist, and one Lord, Jesus Christ, through whom are all things and through whom we exist." - 1 Corinthians 8:6

"For a child will be born to us, a son will be given to us; And the government will rest on His shoulders; And His name will be called Wonderful Counselor, Mighty God, Eternal Father, Prince of Peace." - Isaiah 9:6

"And the Word became flesh, and dwelt among us, and we saw His glory, glory as of the only begotten from the Father, full of grace and truth." - John 1:14

"By common confession, great is the mystery of godliness: He who was revealed in the flesh, Was vindicated in the Spirit, Seen by angels, Proclaimed among the nations, Believed on in the world, Taken up in glory." - 1 Timothy 3:16

"The angel answered and said to her, "The Holy Spirit will come upon you, and the power of the Most High will overshadow you; and for that reason the holy Child shall be called the Son of God." - Luke 1:35



Hindu Beliefs

Brahman and the Gods

-Hindus believe in one supreme God called Brahman. He can be found in everyone and everything, including the other Gods.

-Some of the important other Gods include 'Brahma' (the creator), 'Shiva', (the destroyer) and 'Vishnu' (the protector). These three together form the 'Trimurti' (trinity).

-Other gods include Ganesh (remover of obstacles), Hanuman (the monkey God), Lakshmi (the Goddess of wealth and good fortune, and Vishnu (the God who preserves life and stands up to evil).

Karma and Reincarnation

-Hindus believe that people are born again after they die, as another living thing (reincarnation).

-In each life the person is rewarded or punished for the things that they have said and done in their last life – this is called karma.

-Hindus believe that if they live a perfect life, they will be freed from birth and death to join the Gods (Moksha).

Festivals

-Hindus enjoy many festivals as a part of their religion. Holi festival marks the beginning of spring.

-Diwali, or the Festival of Lights, is held in the Hindu month of Ashwin (September or October in the western calendar). This event marks the Hindu New Year. Oil lamps are lit and floated down rivers to welcome the Goddess of Wealth. Fireworks are set off in order to ward off evil spirits.

-Hindu people also go on pilgrimages, for example to the River Ganges, which is sacred to Hindus.

Answers to important questions

Where and how do Hindus worship? Why?



-Many Hindus worship at home in their own shrine – this could be anything from a room, an altar, or simply pictures or statues.

-The Hindu building for communal worship is called a Mandir (Hindu temple). The temples are dedicated to different gods and are the focus of religious life.

-At Mandirs, Hindu people often recite the names of Gods and Goddesses. They also offer water, fruit and flowers to the Gods.

What are the Hindu holy books?



-There are many different types of holy texts in Hinduism. Perhaps the most sacred are called the Vedas. The Vedas guide people in their daily lives. They are written into the Sanskrit language.

Where do most Hindus live in the world?



-About 15% of the world's population are Hindus.
-India has the most Hindus by far – about 1 billion Indians are Hindus – this is around 80% of all Indians.
-However, Nepal has the highest proportion of Hindus – about 83% of its population are Hindus. There are also lots of Hindus in Bangladesh, Indonesia, Malaysia, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.
-Most of the populous countries in the world contain a population of Hindu people.

How many different types of Hindus are there?



-There are many, many different forms of Hinduism, as different types have developed over the thousands of years since it was founded.
-There are four main forms – Vaishnavism, Shaivism, Shaktism and Smartism. These four types can be broken down many more times!
-Although they have small differences, each of the different forms follows the same rough principles.

Hindu Timeline

2500BCE:
Evidence of Indus Valley Hindus.

1500 BCE: The oldest Hindu scriptures were created.

1300 BCE: The oldest Hindu hymns were composed.

800 BCE: The sacred text of the Mahabharata begins to be composed.

100 BCE: The Ramayana is written.

600CE: Hinduism begins to grow and flourish – prayers and songs written.

950-1050CE: A 'City of Temples' is built in India at Khajuraho – 80 still stand.

c. 1600 CE: The Hindu Renaissance begins. Many modern versions of sacred texts are found, translated and used.

Vocabulary

Guru	A religious teacher or guide who leads a follower from spiritual ignorance ('gu', 'darkness') into spiritual enlightenment ('ru', 'light') There are 10 human gurus in Sikhism.
Sikh	A follower of Sikhism. Sikhism began approximately 500 years ago. There are 25 million Sikhs in the world. 19 million live in India and over 700,000 live in the UK making it the country with the second highest Sikh population in the world.
Revelation	A message revealed by God to humans.
Adi Granth	A collection of hymns and writings of the early Sikh Gurus compiled by Guru Arjan; it means 'first book'.
khanda	The symbol of Sikhism, made up of two double-edged swords, one sword in the middle and a circle.
Amrit	Sugar that is mixed into water using a sword; it is drunk at the Amrit ceremony where people become part of the Sikh Khalsa.
Initiated	Made a member of a particular group through a special ceremony.
Khalsa	The community of Sikhs founded by the tenth Guru, Gobind Singh.
Panj Pyare	'The blessed ones' – the first five men who volunteered to join the Khalsa
The Five Ks	Five articles of faith worn by the Khalsa: kesh (uncut hair), kangha (a wooden comb), kara (a steel bracelet), kachera (special cotton underwear) and kirpan (a short sword).
Singh	'Lion' – the title given to a male Khalsa Sikh.
Kaur	'Princess' – the title given to a female Khalsa Sikh.

The Five Ks

The Five Ks are five items that Guru Gobind Singh commanded Khalsa Sikhs to wear at all times. These aren't just symbols but are articles of faith.

Kesh	Uncut long hair and beard in the case of men that shows a sign of spiritual devotion as well as a respect for the perfection of God's creation.
Kangha	A small wooden comb used twice a day that is worn in the hair at all times and covered by a turban.
Kara	An iron bracelet that is circular to symbolise that God is never ending.
Kachera	A shalwar-undergarment with a tie knot worn by baptised Sikhs. They must not come below the knee and were originally made as part of a Sikh soldier's uniform.
Kirpan	A dagger or sword of any size and shape which symbolises a Sikh's duty to come to the defence of others in peril. It should be worn at all times and is often covered in a sheath. The single cutting edge may be sharp or blunt.



Key Terms



Khanda - This is the symbol of the Sikh faith.



Guru Granth Sahib - The Guru Granth Sahib is the holy scripture for Sikhs and is regarded as the living Guru.



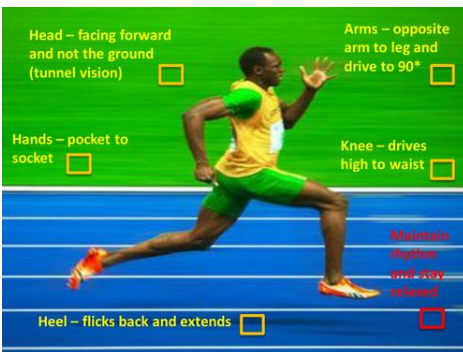


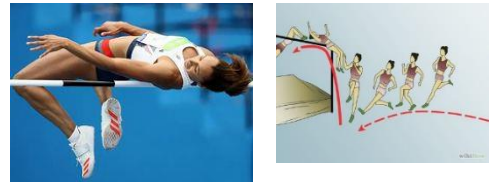


Gurdwara - A place of assembly and worship for Sikhs. People from all faiths are welcome.



Khalsa - To be pure, clear and free from. It formulates an initiation ceremony and rules of conduct for Khalsa warriors. Upon initiation, male Khalsa Sikhs are given the title Singh and females Kaur.

Guru Nanak Founded - 1539	Guru Angad 1539-1552	Guru Amar Das 1552-1574	Guru Ram Das 1574-1581	Guru Arjan 1581-1606	Guru Har Gobind 1606-1644	Guru Har Rai 1644-1661	Guru Har Krishan 1661-1664	Guru Tegh Bahadur 1665-1675	Guru Gobind Singh 1675-1708	Guru Granth Sahib 1708 - onwards
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Sprinting:	Hold up body straight and vertical. Hold head still, face and neck relaxed. Bend elbows at 90 degrees and pump and drive arms forward. Shoulders steady. With each stride lift front knee high. ALL THE ENERGY YOU PUT IN WANTS TO DRIVE YOU FORWARD.	A false start is called when the feet of a runner leave the starting blocks before the starter's gun. The sprint start is an important element of a sprint event.	Shot put:	Use a standing throw, Rest the shot into your palm and push into your neck, Ensure chin, knee and toe are inline, Punch shot away from the neck, Keep elbow high.	
100m, 200, 4x100m relay			Shot placed close to the neck and resting on the shoulder. Keeping it in that position until release. Shot must be released above the height of the shoulder with one handed push.		
Middle and long distance running:	The most important thing is to pace yourself DO NOT go off and sprinting and have to walk at the end! Cardiovascular fitness is very important.	For the 800m the athletes run the first curve in separate lanes and can then 'break' into the middle lane. This is avoid crowding.	Javelin:	Use a standing throw, Place javelin in the crease of your hand, Straighten your arm, keeping javelin close to your head and parallel to your arm, Ensure chin, knee and toe are in line, Transfer weight back to front leg as release.	
800m, 1500m			For a valid throw the javelin must land within the specified zone and its tip should hit the ground first.		
					
			Discus:	Use a standing throw, spread your fingers on top, chin, knee and toe in line, weight forward pivoting at hips, arm at 35 degree and release discus, disk should leave at shoulder height. Arm follows through.	
			Discus is thrown from a circular cage. Must not touch ground after throw (i.e to balance self).		
High jump:	Take off must be with one foot only. If the competitor fails to jump the required height in the three consecutive attempts then they will be disqualified.	Athletes run on a curve to lean away from the bar by creating pressure against the ground. Most athletes use between 6 and 12 steps on the approach (usually an even number so the first step is taken with the non jumping foot). On take off the foot should be pointing to the far corner of the landing area. The fosbury flop lands with the athlete landing on their upper back.			

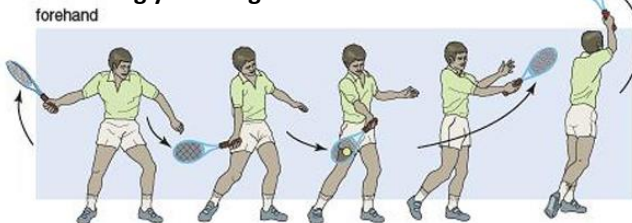
YEAR 7- TRINITY TERM — PHYSICAL EDUCATION- STRIKING AND FIELDING

- Striking and fielding includes; **tennis, cricket, rounders, softball** (games where you are hitting (striking) the ball).
- Fielding is the role of the team out in the field trying to stop the striker / runner scoring points by getting them out.
- This varies among different sports but essentially they are 'stumped out'.

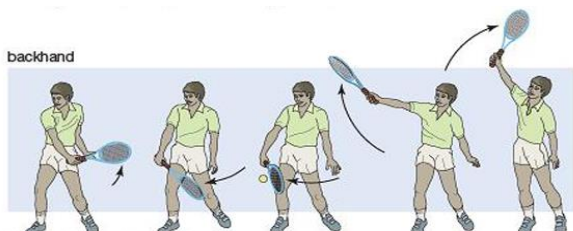
Tennis 1:

- A game played on a rectangular court either singles or doubles.
- Players stand on opposite sides of a net and use a racket to hit a ball back and forth to each other.
- Maximum of one bounce after it has been hit by their opponent to return the ball over the net and within the boundaries of the court – if a player fails to do any of these three things, the opponent wins a point.
- Game – set – match.

Tennis 2: A **forehand** in tennis is a simple way to return the ball. It is played on your **strong side**, standing side on to the ball and the racket swings back to front **transferring your weight** at the same time.



Tennis 3: A **backhand** in tennis is more technical than a forehand and is played on your weaker side. You should swing the racket to your weak side, make connection with the ball and the racket comes back across the body.



Cricket:

- The aim of cricket is simple - score more than the opposition.
- Two teams, both with 11 players, take it in turns to bat and bowl.
- When one team is batting, they try and score as many runs as they can by hitting the ball around an oval field.
- The other team must get them out by bowling the ball overarm at the stumps, which are at either end of a 22-yard area called a wicket.
- The bowling team can get the batsmen out by hitting the stumps or catching the ball.
- Once the batting team is all out, the teams swap over and they then become the bowling side.

Rounders:

- Two teams with a maximum of 15 players and a minimum of 6 with no more than 9 on the field at one time.
- The ball must be bowled below the shoulder but above the knee.
- A rounder is scored if 4th post is reached and half a rounder is scored if 2nd base is reached.
- You can get the batter out by catching them out or stumping the post they're running to.
- Softball** consists of a **pitcher, catcher, four infielders, and three outfielders.**
- A strike is called when the batter swings at a pitch whether it is deemed to be in the strike zone or not.

Catching skills:

- Hands should be ready at chest height in a *bucket*.
- Eye on the ball.
- Step back as you receive and keep the body balanced.



Fielding is an important part of all striking and **fielding** games. Effective fielding is going to prevent the batting / striking team from scoring points by getting players **out**. Good fielders need to be able to throw and catch well and also stop the ball not always with their hands (long and short barrier).

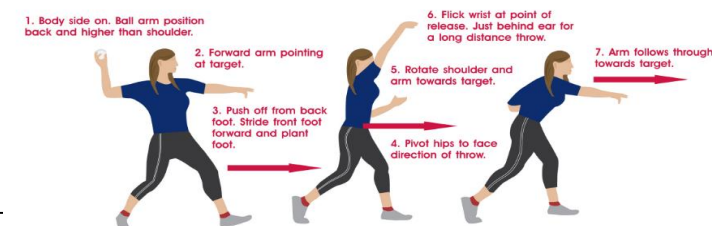
The Long Barrier



The **long barrier** is used in all fielding games if the ball is coming to you along the ground i.e rolling. You kneel down, making a barrier from your leg and foot, cup your hands together, keeping your eye on the ball.

Throwing technique:

- Stand side on, weight on back foot, pull strong arm back, above shoulder height, other arm pointing to target.
- Transfer weight from back foot, push arm forward, pivot hips to face direction of throw, rotate shoulder / arm towards target.
- Flick wrist at point of release (at ear) and follow through.



Questions:

- Name four sports that are striking and fielding?
- Explain the long barrier technique in your own words.
- Explain the throwing technique above in your own words.
- How do you *get people out* in striking and fielding games?
- How do you score points in rounders and cricket?
- Name 2 movements in tennis.

Comparative operators	
==	Equal to
!=	Not equal to (or different to)
>	Greater than
<	Less than
>=	Greater than or equal to
<=	Less than or equal to

MOD	Modulus e.g. 12MOD5 gives 2
DIV	Quotient e.g. 17DIV5 gives 3
^	Exponentiation e.g. 3^4 gives 81

Python -> English	
<code>print("hello!")</code>	Prints a value on screen (in this case, hello!)
<code>input("")</code>	Inputs a value into the computer.
<code>x = input("")</code>	Inputs a value and stores it into the variable x.
<code>x = int(input(""))</code>	Inputs a value into x, whilst also making it into an integer.
<code>answer = x + y</code>	Saves the result of x and y added together in a variable named answer.
<code>print(str(x))</code>	Prints the variable x, but converts it into a string first.
<code>print("Hello", "World")</code>	Prints the two strings concatenated with a space between. This code would output "Hello World".
<code>age = 12</code> <code>print("Age: " + str(age))</code>	The + joins together two variables when printing. Str has to be used to cast age to be a string. This code will output "Age: 12".
<code>if name == "Fred":</code>	Decides whether the variable 'name' has a value which is equal to 'Fred'.
<code>else:</code>	The other option if the conditions for an if statement are not met (eg. name = 'Bob' when it should be Fred)
<code>elif name == "Tim":</code>	elif (short for else if) is for when the first if condition is not met, but you want to specify another option.
<code># COMMENT</code>	# is used to make comments in code – any line which starts with a # will be ignored when the program runs. They are used to describe the code to a programmer.
<code>for i in range(0,10):</code> <code># WRITE CODE HERE</code>	Repeats any code indented after this line a set number of times, in this case, 10.
<code>while x < 10:</code> <code># WRITE CODE HERE</code>	Repeats any code indented after this line until a condition is met, in this case x becoming equal to or greater than 10.
<code>list = ["", ""]</code>	Creates a variable and makes it an array – a list which can store many values.

A **procedure** is a small section of a program that performs a specific task. Procedures can be used repeatedly throughout a program.

A **function** is also a small section of a program that performs a specific task that can be used repeatedly throughout a program, *but the task is usually a calculation. Functions perform the task and return a value to the main program.*

Stored Procedure	Function
Supports in, out and in-out parameters, i.e., input and output parameters	Supports only input parameters, no output parameters.
Stored procedures can call functions as needed	The function cannot call a stored procedure
There is no provision to call procedures from select/having and where statements	You can call functions from a select statement
Transactions can be used in stored procedures	No transactions are allowed
Can do exception handling by inserting try/catch blocks	No provision for explicit exception handling
Need not return any value	Must return a result or value to the caller
All the database operations like insert, update, delete can be performed	Only select is allowed

```
def get_capital(country):
    if country == 'India':
        return 'New Delhi'
    elif country == 'France':
        return 'Paris'
    elif country == 'UK':
        return 'London'
    else:
        return None
```

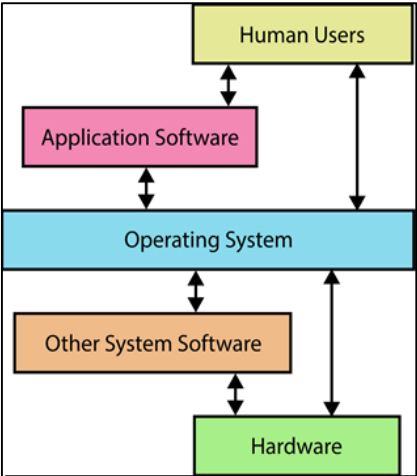
MOD	Modulus e.g. 12MOD5 gives 2
DIV	Quotient e.g. 17DIV5 gives 3
^	Exponentiation e.g. 3^4 gives 81

```
num1 = float(input("Enter the first number: "))
num2 = float(input("Enter the second number: "))
if num1 > num2:
    print(num1, "is greater than", num2)
if num1 < num2:
    print(num2, "is greater than", num1)
if num1 == num2:
    print(num1, "is equal to", num2)
```

Validation Type	Where	Reason
Presence check	Sales	To make sure that each time the number of sales for each month is entered rather than having blank entries.
Presence check	Name	To make sure that a staff member's name is entered
Format check	Sales	To make sure that the sales are a numerical value

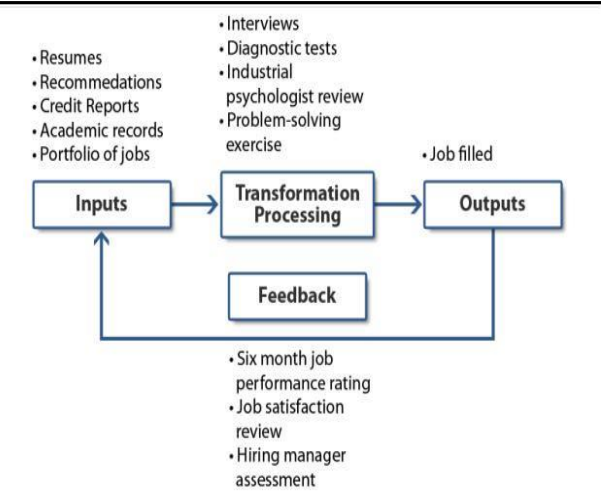
1	Hardware
2	CPU
3	Memory
4	Secondary storage
5	Input process output
6	Von-Newmann Model
7	Software
8	Logic gates

Understand the hardware and software components that make up computer systems, and how they communicate with one another and with other systems



System software

- Software that controls the hardware: What is an OS and a Driver



Computer Systems

The Input-Process-Output model

Different systems, pros & cons:

- Input-Process-Output model:

Secondary storage (list facts about them)

Magnetic hard disk
Optical disk - Flash memory - Cloud Storage
Non-volatile (disappears after shutting down)
Internal/Removable: *Considerations for selecting storage:* Capacity / Speed / Portability / Durability / Reliability

Types of Software

Applications: Software for the End-User

Word processor
Spreadsheets
Image Editor
SIMS
Ticket booking system

Find out about Utilities, what do each of the following do?

Antivirus
Firewall
System clean up
Defragmentation
Task Manager

General-purpose systems: Personal computers, including desktops, notebooks, smartphones and tablets,
Embedded systems: **embedded systems** are MP3 players, mobile phones, video game consoles, digital cameras, DVD players, and GPS.
Household appliances, such as microwave ovens, washing machines and dishwashers, include **embedded systems** to provide flexibility and efficiency
Expert systems: MYCIN: It was based on backward chaining and could identify various bacteria that could cause acute infections. ...
DENDRAL: **Expert system** used for chemical analysis to predict molecular structure.

Memory

The computer will have memory that can hold both data and also the program processing that data. In modern computers this memory is RAM.

Control Unit

The control unit will manage the process of moving data and program into and out of memory and also deal with carrying out (executing) program instructions - one at a time. This includes the idea of a 'register' to hold intermediate values. In the illustration above, the 'accumulator' is one such register. The 'one-at-a-time' phrase means that the Von Neumann architecture is a **sequential processing machine**.

Input - Output

This architecture allows for the idea that a person needs to interact with the machine. Whatever values that are passed to and forth are stored once again in some internal registers.

Arithmetic Logic Unit

This part of the architecture is solely involved with carrying out calculations upon the data. All the usual Add, Multiply, Divide and Subtract calculations will be available but also data comparisons such as 'Greater Than', 'Less Than', 'Equal To' will be available.

Memory: Find out the purpose

Effect on Performance of

Random Access Memory (RAM) (Volatile)

Faster **RAM** can improve communication speed with the processor and decrease load times.

Read Only Memory (ROM)(Non-volatile)

Increasing the amount of **ROM** in a system could reduce the amount of a program that is installed on a slower disk or other external memory device. It could also be used to store lookup tables that might otherwise be created in RAM which can slow down a program's execution.

Virtual memory: The operating system makes part of the storage drive available to use as **RAM**.

... It copies the data back into **RAM** when the process is needed again. Using **virtual memory** slows the **computer** down because copying to a hard disk takes much longer than reading and writing **RAM**.

Flash memory: Flash memory, also known as flash storage, is a type of **nonvolatile memory** that erases data in units called **blocks** and rewrites data at the byte level. Flash memory is widely used for storage and data transfer in consumer devices, enterprise systems and industrial applications. Flash memory retains data for an extended period of time, regardless of whether a flash-equipped device is powered on or off.

Read/Write operations: **Write** caching lets your **computer** store data in a cache before it is written to the hard drive. Because a **computer** can **write** data to a cache much more quickly than to a hard drive, the overall **read/write performance** of the hard drive is improved. Remember, however, that data in a cache is only temporary.

Features affecting performance:: Clock speed (MHz, GHz)

A PC **clock speed** is normally in the gigahertz region. That is a billion cycles per second. Typical **speeds** are two to four gigahertz. The faster the **clock speed**, the faster the instructions can be processed by the **processor**(like a little person collecting parcels and passing them an at a speed.

Cache Memory



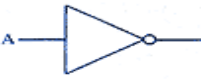
Cache plays the greatest part in improving the **performance** of the processors. The larger the **cache** size, the faster the data transfer and the better the CPU **performance**. Small space, close to CPU, where instructions are called from, executed faster.

Multiple cores

This means that a **processor** can be up to **two** or four times faster than a normal **processor** . However the actual speed of the **processor** is dependent on the software that's being run. Not **all** software will take advantage of the quad and dual **cores**.

(Machine code) Binary logic

- Why binary? (transistors) Computers use **binary** - the digits 0 and 1 - to store data. ... The circuits in a computer's processor are made up of billions of **transistors** . A **transistor** is a tiny switch that is activated by the electronic signals it receives. The digits 1 and 0 used in **binary** reflect the on and off states of a **transistor**.

Name	Graphic Symbol	Algebraic Function	Truth Table															
AND		$F = A \cdot B$ or $F = AB$	<table><tr><th>A</th><th>B</th><th>F</th></tr><tr><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td></tr><tr><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td></tr><tr><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td></tr><tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td></tr></table>	A	B	F	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1
A	B	F																
0	0	0																
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1	0	0																
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OR		$F = A + B$	<table><tr><th>A</th><th>B</th><th>F</th></tr><tr><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td></tr><tr><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>1</td></tr><tr><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td></tr><tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td></tr></table>	A	B	F	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1
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NOT		$F = \bar{A}$ or $F = A'$	<table><tr><th>A</th><th>F</th></tr><tr><td>0</td><td>1</td></tr><tr><td>1</td><td>0</td></tr></table>	A	F	0	1	1	0									
A	F																	
0	1																	
1	0																	

Central processing unit (CPU) – what are the following?

Arithmetic & logic unit: An arithmetic-logic unit (ALU) is the part of a computer **processor** (CPU) that carries out arithmetic and logic operations on the **operands** in computer **instruction words**. In some processors, the ALU is divided into two units, an arithmetic unit (AU) and a logic unit (LU).

Control Unit (CU): A control unit (CU) handles all **processor** control signals. It directs all input and output flow, fetches code for instructions from micro-programs and directs other units and models by providing control and timing signals. A CU component is considered the processor brain because it issues orders to just about everything and ensures correct instruction execution.

Registers (Memory Unit): A register may hold an **instruction**, a storage address, or any kind of data (such as a bit sequence or individual characters). Some instructions specify registers as part of the instruction. For example, an instruction may specify that the contents of two defined registers be added together and then placed in a specified register.






Fetch-Decode-Execute: The **fetch execute cycle** is the basic operation (instruction) cycle of a computer (also known as the fetch decode execute cycle).

During the fetch execute cycle, the computer retrieves a program instruction from its memory. It then establishes and carries out the actions that are required for that instruction.

The cycle of fetching, decoding, and executing an instruction is continually repeated by the **CPU** whilst the computer is turned on.

Buses and their Purposes: The **CPU** sits on the motherboard (also called the logic board). **Buses** are circuits on the motherboard that connect the **CPU** to other components. There are many **buses** on the motherboard. A **bus** moves instructions and data around the system.

The Boot Sequence: **Boot sequence** is the **order** in which a computer searches for nonvolatile data storage devices containing program code to load the operating system (OS).

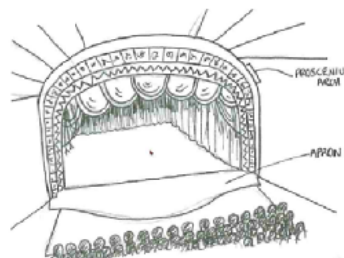
Characterisation	
The act of changing voice, body language, movement, gesture etc. when in role is called characterisation. All people are different. The actor must use their skills to portray a character consistently throughout their performance. When creating characters, you need to consider voice , body language , facial expression and gesture .	
Characterisation: Voice	Characterisation: Body Language
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 Silence: The absence of sound Echo: Repeated layered sound	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 contact may mean intimacy Levels: Suggest status e.g. a dominant character may be higher up Use of space: demand a lot of space or hide in a small corner. Stillness: When the actors remain motionless Energy: high energy to deliberately sluggish Eye Focus: Where the actors eyes are focused Head position: Up, down, to the side, tilted Connection: Contact between the performers. Gesture: A movement that expresses meaning(see below)
	 
Characterisation: Facial Expression	Characterisation: Gesture
<p>Does your character move their face a lot? What does their facial expression say about their character? Do they have a very expressive face or do they try not to give much of themselves away?</p> <p>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.</p>	<p>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.</p> <p>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.</p>
	

Rehearsal Techniques
<p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 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. <p>Improve how you play your character These rehearsal techniques improve how you perform physically on stage.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 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
<p>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!</p> <p>Role Play Pretending to be somebody else.</p> <p>Improvisation Performing a scene spontaneously without rehearsal.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Still Image This is a frozen picture which communicates meaning. It's sometimes called a freeze frame or tableau.</p> <p>Narration A narrator is like a storyteller informing the audience about the plot.</p> <p>Thoughts in the Head This is when a character steps out of a scene to address the audience about how they're feeling.</p> <p>Alter Ego Allowing the audience to hear/see the positive and negative thoughts of a character. It is sometimes called Angels and Devils.</p> <p>Chorus A group on stage say the same words and gestures.</p> <p>Flashback A performance of a scene from the past.</p> <p>Soundscape Performers make sounds to create an atmosphere.</p> <p>Slow Motion Acting as if time has slowed down. Often used to highlight an important movement.</p> <p>Mime Telling a story through movement. Creating characters and objects without spoken word.</p> <p>Diaries & Letters Allowing the audience to hear or see the content of a diary or letter on stage.</p>

Staging Configurations and Stage Positions

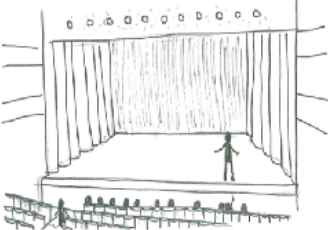
Proscenium Arch



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.

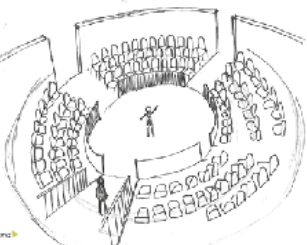
End on Staging



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



Theatre in the Round is a staging configuration 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.

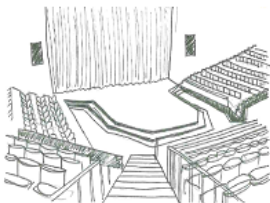
Promenade Theatre



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.

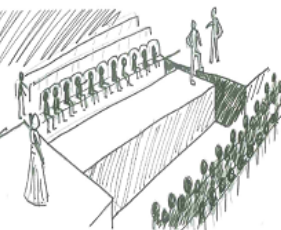
Thrust Staging



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.

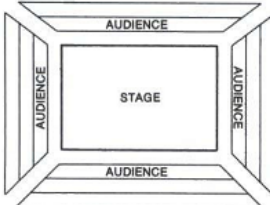
Traverse Staging



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.

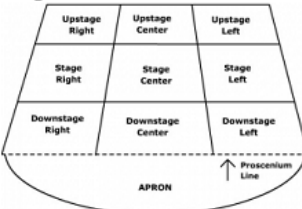
Arena Staging



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.

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

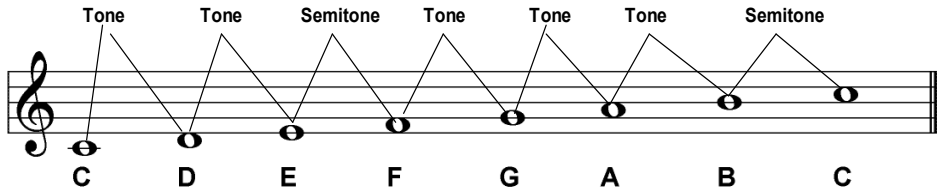
- Some stages are **raked** which means they are higher at the back. Therefore **upstage** is at the back and **downstage** at the front.
- The direction of stage is always seen from the perspective of the actor. This can be confusing as you will need to swap your left and right if looking at the stage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

KEYWORDS

- 1- Scale:** a series of notes in ascending and descending order.
- 2- Interval:** the distance between 2 notes.
- 2- Tone:** the interval of two semitones (1 note in between)
- 3- Semitone:** the smallest musical interval. The distance between 2 notes right next to each other (see the keyboard below).
- 12- Octave:** the distance of 8 notes (eg: C to C above or below)
- 4- Chromatic:** ascending or descending by semitones (playing every note, white & black)
- 5- Major:** a scale that has a 'happy' sound to it. Made up from the intervals: T-T-s-T-T-T-s.
- 6- Minor:** a scale that has a 'sad' sound to it. Made up from the intervals: T-s-T-T-s-T1/2-s.
- 7- Tonality:** The scale or key a piece is played in.
- 8- Accidental:** a note that is not in the scale, often using a #, ♭ or ♮.
- 9- Sharp (#):** raising a note by one semitone, often the black note above on a keyboard.
- 10- Flat (♭):** lowering a note by one semitone, often the black note below on the keyboard.
- 11- Natural (♮):** neutralising a # or ♭ returning the note to it's original form.
- 12 – Enharmonic:** the same note with two different names (C# and D♭)

1. Major Scales

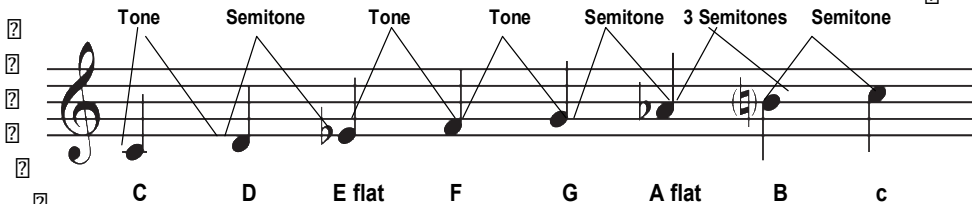
The pattern of tones and semitones shown below is the same for all major scales.



The distance from the bottom C to the top C is called an **OCTAVE**

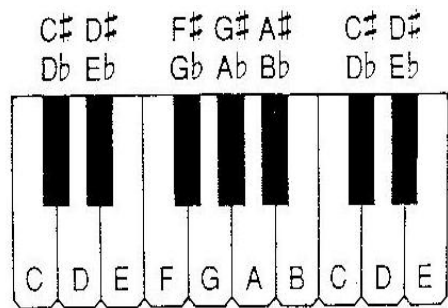
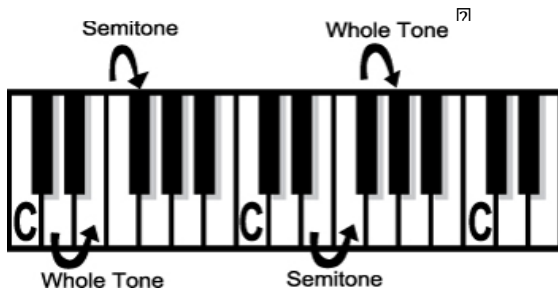
2. Minor Scales

The pattern of tones and semitones shown below is the same for all minor scales.



The distance from the bottom C to the top C is called an **OCTAVE**

3. Accidentals & Intervals on the Piano

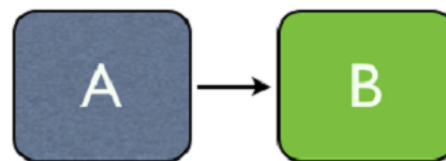


KEYWORDS

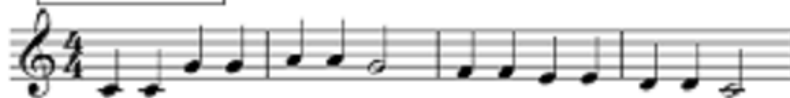
- 1- Structure:** the organisation of music into sections.
- 2- Question and Answer:** 2 phrases that occur one after another, the second in direct response, and complimentary to the first.
- 2- Call and Response:** 2 phrases that occur in different parts one after another. Often a solo part then repeated by a chorus (African music).
- 3- Binary Form:** AB form – a structure consisting of 2 contrasting sections.
- 12- Ternary Form:** ABA form – a structure consisting of 2 contrasting sections where the first repeats at the end.
- 4- Rondo Form:** ABACADA – a recurring structure alternating with contrasting sections.
- 5- Drone:** an accompaniment where a note is continuously heard/played throughout a piece
- 6- Ostinato:** a persistent phrase or motif repeated over several bars or more.
- 7- Phrase:** a short musical passage; a musical sentence.
- 8- Tonality:** The scale or key a piece is played in.
- 9- Major:** a scale that has a 'happy' sound to it. Made up from the intervals: T-T-s-T-T-T-s.
- 10- Minor:** a scale that has a 'sad' sound to it. Made up from the intervals: T-s-T-T-s-T1/2-s.
- 11- Texture:** how different parts interact with each other.

Match up the diagrams with their respective structures.

Annotate the piece with the musical terms and structural devices



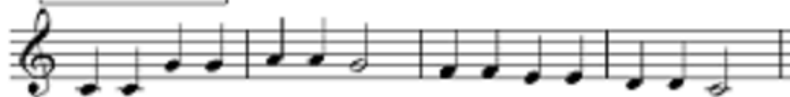
Section A



Section B



Section A



A. Key Terms

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 Artist
- 21. Esther Mahlangu was born in 1935 and is still alive.

C. Colour Theory

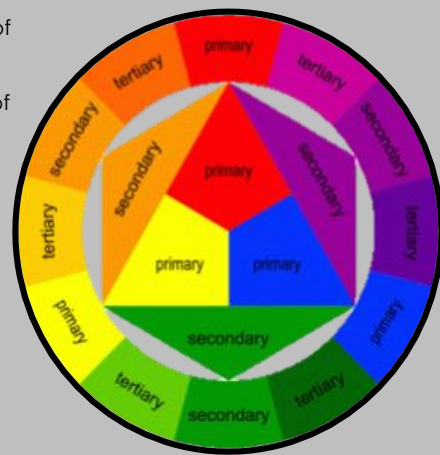
Key terms 4 – 6 refer to the colour wheel.

- 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.

15.

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 Hygiene and Safety in the food room

Personal Hygiene	Why?	Safety rules	Why?
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	 Fingers are held in a claw shape to hold food steady while slicing or cutting.	E1. vegetable Knife	A small knife mainly used for slicing and dicing
SK2. Bridge hold	 Use thumb and forefinger and grip either side of the ingredient. Use knife under bridge to cut.	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
		E4. Palette knife	Spreading icing, lifting food

Understand the 4 C's Concept

-  **C** – Good Hygiene practice prevents Cross Contamination
-  **C** – Effective Cleaning removes harmful bacteria and stops them spreading
-  **C** – Effective Chilling prevents harmful bacteria multiplying
-  **C** – Thorough Cooking kills bacteria

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 weight
7. Drink **6-8 glasses of water** a day
8. Don't skip breakfast

PREVENT CROSS CONTAMINATION

USE CORRECT COLOUR CODED CHOPPING BOARDS & KNIVES

RAW MEAT

RAW FISH

COOKED MEATS

SALADS & FRUITS

VEGETABLES

DAIRY PRODUCTS

YEAR 7- TRINITY TERM — FOOD AND NUTRITION — INTRODUCTION TO FOOD

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

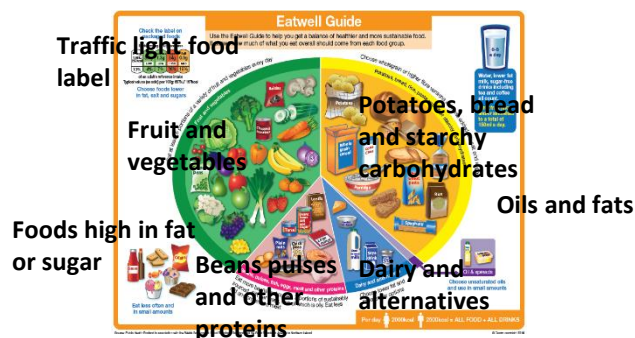
4. The Eatwell Guide – shows how eating different foods can make a healthy balanced diet.

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.



Preparing fruit and vegetable skills

Skills	How?
SK3. Mash	Using a masher or fork to make 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: Juice	To squeeze the juice from fruit or vegetables

Using equipment

Equipment	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

Equipment	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

8 guidelines for a healthy diet

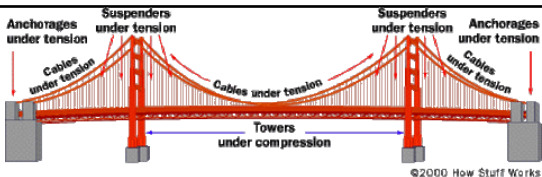
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Bridges

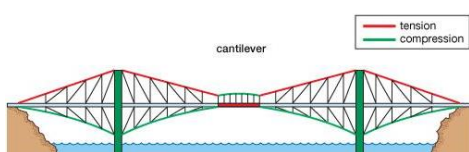
Girder bridges often carry railways and many were built in the early part of the 20th century. They are capable of carrying heavy weights. Usually they span short distances.



Suspension bridges are the cheapest way of spanning long distances. Cables hold the road in position.











A **cantilever bridge** has a deck (road) which is supported at one end.



Triangulation

Examples of triangulation are seen all around us especially in the construction industry (building and civil engineering). Folding a simple art straw into a triangular shape and then attempting to break it gives us some idea of the strength of triangulation. This is why it is popular for building structures from large to small, permanent to temporary. A triangular form is one of the strongest shapes known to man. It is not surprising then that 'triangulation' is used in the construction of buildings and structures.

Properties and characteristics of materials

	Absorbency	To be able to soak up liquid easily.
	Strength	The capacity of an object or substance to withstand great force or pressure.
	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.
	Durability	The ability to withstand wear, pressure, or damage.

Truss

A truss is a structure that consists of members organised into connected triangles so that the overall assembly behaves as a single object. Trusses are most commonly used in bridges, roofs and towers.

A truss is made up of a web of triangles joined together to enable the even distribution of weight and the handling of changing tension and compression without bending or shearing. The triangle is geometrically stable when compared to a four (or more) -sided shape which requires that the corner joints are fixed to prevent shearing.

Trusses consist of triangular units constructed with straight members. The ends of these members are connected at joints, known as nodes. They are able to carry significant loads, transferring them to supporting structures such as load-bearing beams, walls or the ground.

Tools And Equipment

Coping saw – cutting curves



Tenon Saw – cutting straight



Bench hook – holding wood



Glass paper – file filing



Hand file – rapid filing



Pillar drill – making holes



Steel rule – accurate measure



Disc sander – rapid sanding



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
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Mi instituto = my school

Hay...	There is/are
No hay...	There isn't/aren't
Tiene....	It has
No tiene...	It doesn't have
un comedor	a dining hall
un laboratorio	a laboratory
un gimnasio	a gym
un patio	a playground
un salón de actos	a hall
unos servicios	toilets
una aula	a classroom
una biblioteca	library
una cafetería	a cafeteria
una sala de profesores	a staff room
una piscina	a pool
un polideportivo	Sport centre
un despacho del director	a principal's office
¿Dónde estudias?	Where do you study?
Estudio en ..	I study in/at.....
un colegio/instituto mixto	a mixed school
un colegio masculino/ femenino	a boys' school/girls' school
un colegio moderno/antiguo	a modern/old school
un colegio grande/pequeño	a big/small school
un colegio privado/público	a private/state school






Mis profesores = my teachers

Señora	Mrs
Señor	Mr
Señorita	Miss
Me gusta Señora Roja	I like Mrs Red
No me gusta Señor Negro	I don't like Mr Black
Es estricto	He is strict
Es estricta	She is strict
Es simpático/a	S/he is nice
Señora... me da muchos deberes	Mrsgives me lots of homework
Señor... grita mucho	Mr.....shouts a lot
Señora me hace trabajar	Mrsmakes me work

Los medios de transporte = means of transport

¿Cómo llegas al instituto?	How do you get to school?
¿A qué hora llegas al instituto?	What time do you get to school
Llego pronto/a tiempo/tarde	I arrive early/on time/late
Llego ...	I arrive....
a pie	on foot
en autobús	by bus
en metro	by underground
en coche	by car
en bici	by bike
en moto	by motorbike
en tren	by train

1	Salut! Quoi de neuf? Comment ça va?	Hi! What's up? How is it going?
2	Moi, ça va très bien parce que je suis en sixième .	Me, it's going very well because I am in sixth . (=year 7)
3	Je m'appelle Sébastien mais on m'appelle 'Seb'.	I am called Sébastien but people call me 'Seb'.
4	J'ai dix ans mais je vais bientôt avoir onze ans	I (have) ten year old but I am going soon to (have) eleven years old
5	parce que la date de mon anniversaire est le treize janvier,	because the date of my birthday is on the thirteen January,
6	donc, je suis Capricorne. C'est le meilleur des signes astrologiques!	therefore I am Capricorn. It is the best of astrological signs!
7	Je suis assez grand, mince et très athlétique, mais	I am quite tall, slim and very athletic, but
8	Quand j'étais en primaire , j'étais rikiki et maigre... comme monsieur GENE!	when I was in primary , I was teeny weeny and skinny... like Mr GENE!
9	J'ai les yeux marron et j'ai les cheveux noirs et courts .	I have the eyes brown and I have the hair black and short .
10	Avant , j'étais extrêmement paresseux, un peu violent et égoïste,	Before , I was extremely lazy, a bit violent and egotistic,
11	parce que j'étais un enfant gâté!	because I was a spoiled child!
12	Maintenant , <i>je pense que</i> je suis plus intelligent, compréhensif et sincère,	Now , <i>I think that</i> I am more intelligent, understanding and sincere,
13	bien que je sois parfois méchant avec mes amis.	even though, I am sometimes mean with my friends.
14	En primaire , j'aimais bien les 'hand spinners', le football et 'les Pimaskes'	In primary , I used to like (the) fidget spinners, football and 'Pimasks',
15	mais maintenant , j'adore ma Playstation, mon téléphone et la musique pop,	but now , I love my PlayStation, my phone and the music pop,
16	cependant , je déteste vraiment le racisme, les virus et les jouets débloés.	however , I really hate (the) racism, (the) viruses and (the) silly toys.
17	J'habite dans le North de Paris, à Saint-Denis, en France avec ma famille,	I live in the North of Paris, in Saint-Denis, in France with my family,
18	mais , je viens de Guadeloupe dans la Caraïbe.	but , I come from Guadeloupe in the Caribbean.
19	Dans ma famille, il y a quatre personnes, mes parents, ma soeur et moi.	In my family, there are four people, my parents, my sister and me.
20	J'aime ma famille parce qu' on s'entend bien généralement .	I love my family because we get on well generally .
21	Ma soeur s'appelle Chloé, mais je préfère l'appeller Coco.	My little sister is called Chloé, but I prefer to call her Coco
24	Elle a huit ans mais elle va bientôt avoir neuf ans en mars prochain .	She (has) eight years old, but she is soon going to (have) nine years old next march.
25	Chloé est assez enrobée, mais elle n'est pas très forte,	Chloé is quite chubby, but she is not very strong,
26	elle a les cheveux longs et châtains et les yeux bruns.	she has the hair long and light brown and the eyes brown.
27	Je l'aime parce qu' elle est marrante, généreuse et attentionnée.	I love her because she is funny, generous and caring.
28	Mais, quand elle avait quatre ans... oh mon Dieu!	but when she (had) four years old, oh my God!
29	elle était un vrai cauchemar!	she was a real nightmare!
30	J'ai aussi un animal domestique, c'est un chien et	I also have a pet, it is a dog and
31	il s'appelle Stromae, comme le chanteur!	he is called Stromae, like the singer!
32	Il est beige et marron, très gros et il mange beaucoup .	He is beige and brown, very fat and he eats a lot .
33	Ma soeur pense qu'il est Il est moche... comme un pou!	My sister thinks that he is ' as ugly as a headlice '.
34	Et toi ? Comment es-tu ?	And you? What are you like?
35	A bientôt!	See you later!

<p>Define: Bullying</p> <p>Bullying is the repeated and intentional behaviours which cause harm to another person, either physically, emotionally or psychologically.</p>	<p>Types of Bullying</p>
	<div>  <p>Physical</p> </div> <p>The victim is physically and violently assaulted by the bully. This can include being beaten up, pushed and shoved or the physical taking of items from the victim. This sort of bullying is against the law and should be reported to the police.</p>
	<div>  <p>Verbal</p> </div> <p>This can include name calling, snide comments and the spreading of rumours; it can also constitute harassment in some cases which is illegal and should be reported to the police.</p>
	<div>  <p>Emotional</p> </div> <p>Psychological and emotional bullying is difficult to see, but can include the ostracization of the victim from a particular group, tormenting and humiliating the victim.</p>
	<div>  <p>Cyber</p> </div> <p>Cyberbullying is the use of electronic communication to bully a person, typically by sending messages of an intimidating or threatening nature, but can also include setting up of malicious websites or posting personal and embarrassing images and videos without the persons permission.</p>
	<div>  <p>Specific</p> </div> <p>This the term used to describe bullying based on an specific aspect of the victims identity such as homophobic, transphobic, Bi-phobic bullying but can also include racist bullying and bullying based on religion. All of these types of bullying are illegal.</p>

<p>Define: Banter</p>
<p>Banter is the playful exchange of teasing remarks and jokes between friends where all are in on the jokes and enjoy the exchange.</p>

<p>Define: By-Stander</p>
<p>A person who doesn't actively engage in the bullying but watches and doesn't do anything to prevent it.</p>

<p>Define: Bully</p>
<p>A person who engages in bullying type behaviour towards one or more people.</p>

<p>Dealing with Bullying</p>
<p>Remember that it is the victim that determines if they believe the behaviour is bullying not the bully.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell someone – don't keep it to yourself, find a trusted adult who you can talk to. • Don't retaliate, try and ignore them if you can. • Try not to react in front of the bully. • Stay with trusted friends who will support you.

<p>Dealing with Cyber Bullying</p>
<p>Cyber Bullying can be harder to handle as it anonymous and can impact all aspects of your life.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell someone – don't keep it to yourself, find a trusted adult who you can talk to. • Report the bullying to the website and block the user. • Do not Retaliate • Screenshot evidence of the bullying.

<p>Who Can you turn to for help and Support</p>	
Parents or trusted family members	Teachers or school Staff
The Police	Friends
NSPCC	Helpline: 0800 800 5000 (24 hours, every day) nspcc.org.uk
Childline	Helpline: 0800 1111 (24 hours, every day) https://www.childline.org.uk
National Bullying Helpline	https://www.nationalbullyinghelpline.co.uk/

Define: Rehabilitation
Drug users are sent to specialist clinics to help them break their addiction and often the causes of it as well.
Define: Possession
Being caught with a small amount of drugs that could reasonably be used by one person.
Define: intent to Supply
Being stopped whilst holding drugs and the police have reasonable suspicions that you will share with others or sell.
Define: Supply
Being caught selling drugs or medicines to other people.
Define: Trafficking
Taking illegal substances from one country to another.

Class	Examples	Sentence for Possession	Sentence for Dealing
Class A	Ecstasy, LSD, heroin, cocaine, crack, magic mushrooms, amphetamines (if prepared for injection).	Up to seven years in prison or an unlimited fine or both.	Up to life in prison or an unlimited fine or both.
Class B	Amphetamines, Methylphenidate (Ritalin),	Up to five years in prison or an unlimited fine or both.	Up to 14 years in prison or an unlimited fine or both.
Class C	Tranquilizers, Cannabis, some painkillers, Gamma hydroxybutyrate (GHB), Ketamine.	Up to two years in prison or an unlimited fine or both.	Up to 14 years in prison or an unlimited fine or both.
Temporary Class	The government can ban new drugs for 1 year under a 'temporary banning order' while they decide how the drugs should be classified.	None, but police can take away a suspected temporary class drug	Up to 14 years in prison, an unlimited fine or both

These are the maximum sentences that could be imposed but there are a number of factors which will determine the sentence given if someone is charged and convicted of a drug offence. In most cases a first-time possession offence will lead to a caution and confiscation. A caution is not a criminal conviction, but it could be used as evidence of bad character if you go to court for another crime.

Prescription Medications
The law surrounding the selling of or sharing of prescription medications is ambiguous and is often linked to the type of drug/medicine that is being sold.
If the medicine is on the controlled substance list (e.g. morphine, amphetamines and benzodiazepines) then the person supplying can be subject to the punishments which are for that class of drugs.
It is extremely dangerous to share prescription drugs because of the possible side effects and impacts of other medications that are being taken.

Consequences of having a drug conviction	
Employment	Having a criminal record for a drug conviction can prevent you from getting jobs in certain fields such as education, working with vulnerable adults, Health professions and legal professions.
Travel	A conviction for a drug offence can prevent travel to certain countries such as the USA and Australia
Education	A criminal record may stop you from enrolling on a course at the university of your choice, as many universities will ask you to declare any criminal convictions on your application and consider this separately from your academic achievements. The nature of the offence, the time that has elapsed since the offence was committed and the potential impact on fellow students and staff will all be considered. Some universities and educational facilities will refuse applications on the grounds of the crime committed.