WJEC GCSE in
APPLIED SCIENCE
(SINGLE AWARD)
APPROVED BY QUALIFICATIONS WALES

GUIDANCE FOR TEACHING
Teaching from 2016

This Qualifications Wales regulated qualification is not available to centres in England.
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**Applied Context**

It is important to understand energy transfer if we are to efficiently generate electricity or use energy in the home. Learners can apply their knowledge in a number of fields including electricity generation and sustainable development. This section is common core content. This topic introduces some key scientific and mathematical concepts that will need to be applied to both the generation of electricity (1.2.2) and our use of energy (1.2.3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) how temperature differences lead to the transfer of energy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Sankey diagrams to show energy transfers; energy efficiency in terms of input energy and energy usefully transferred in a range of contexts including electrical power generation, transmission and use of energy</td>
<td>Including Sankey diagrams drawn to scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) mathematical equations to find useful information relating to both the generation and use of electricity:</td>
<td>Manipulation of equations only on higher tier.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ \text{%efficiency} = \frac{\text{energy [or power] usefully transferred}}{\text{total energy [or power] supplied}} \times 100 ]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* power = voltage \times current</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. in relation to the power output of wind turbines, water turbines and solar panels and power consumption of household appliances</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>energy transfer = power \times time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) how to investigate energy transfer and the efficiency of energy transfer in a range of contexts; the interpretation, analysis and evaluation of data and methods used in investigations. Investigations to include:</td>
<td>The efficiency of other electrical devices can be investigated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* the energy output from a renewable source (e.g. energy output and the construction / location of a wind turbine )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* the efficiency of an electric kettle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) the terms 'sustainable' and 'carbon footprint' when applied to generation of electricity or the use of electricity and energy (e.g. natural gas)</td>
<td>Carbon footprint as a measure of the total amount of carbon dioxide and methane emissions of a defined population, system or activity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the measurement of the carbon footprint in terms of mass equivalent of carbon dioxide (kgCO2eq) and global warming potential of a gas; the use of the relationship:

\[ \text{kgCO2eq} = (\text{mass of a gas}) \times (\text{global warming potential of the gas}) \]

comparison of the carbon dioxide equivalent of greenhouse gases using given data
### 1.1 MODERN LIVING AND ENERGY – 1.1.2 GENERATING ELECTRICITY

**Applied Context**
This topic explores different ways of generating electricity and compares them for cost efficiency, reliability and environmental impact. Learners will also explore how electricity can be transferred from power stations to where it is used. Learners can apply their knowledge in a number of fields including electricity generation and sustainable development. This section is common core content.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) the advantages and disadvantages of renewable energy technologies (e.g. hydroelectric, wind power, wave power, tidal power, waste, crops, solar and wood) as a means of generating electricity on a national scale using secondary information</td>
<td>Consider economic, environmental and sustainability issues as well as generating capacities and start-up time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) the cost effectiveness of introducing domestic solar and wind energy equipment, including fuel cost savings and payback time by using data</td>
<td>Consider the reliability of output supply and the potential for meeting a household’s demand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) sustainability, carbon footprint, cost, reliability, environmental impact to compare different methods of power generation e.g. use data to assess their impact on the environment by considering atmospheric effects (acid rain and carbon dioxide emission), pollution including visual and noise pollution</td>
<td>Including output reliability and ability to meet domestic demand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) the lifetime and the useful power produced by renewable energy devices and power stations e.g. solar cell, fuel cell, wind turbines and water turbines</td>
<td>Recognise the term base load. The role of different types of power stations in responding to changes in demand i.e. start-up times. Understand how the National Grid makes electricity supply more reliable. Recognise power stations, transformers, transmission lines and consumers on a diagram. Interpret graphs of demand through a time period. Importing and exporting of electricity to other European countries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) the need for the National Grid as an electricity distribution system including monitoring power use and responding to changing demand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
advantages and disadvantages of using different voltages of electricity at different points in the National Grid to include transmission of electricity and use in the home

Step up transformers increase voltage and decrease current – reduces energy losses in transmission lines making distribution more efficient.

Step down transformers reduce voltage to safer levels for consumers.

the use of transformers in the transmission of electricity from the power station to the user in qualitative terms (they should be treated as voltage changers without any reference to how they perform this function)

Links with statement (a) in this section

efficiency, reliability, carbon footprint and output to compare different types of power stations in the UK including those fuelled by fossil fuels, nuclear fuel and renewable sources of energy

SPECIFIED PRACTICAL WORK

• Investigation of the factors affecting the output from a solar panel
Investigation of the factors affecting the output from a solar panel

Introduction

Solar photovoltaic cells convert energy received from the sun into electricity. The output from a solar panel varies depending on the intensity of the radiation falling on it. In the UK in winter, the Earth’s axis is tilted, reducing the intensity of the radiation reaching us. You can model this effect by moving a light source further away from a solar panel and measuring the voltage produced.

Apparatus

solar panel
voltmeter ± 0.01 V
metre ruler ± 1 mm
12V lamp and holder
12 V d.c. power supply
connecting leads
clamp stand, boss and clamp

Diagram of Apparatus
Method

1. Carefully clamp the solar panel in the boss.
2. Connect the solar panel to the voltmeter.
3. Place the lamp 20 cm from the solar panel.
4. Record the output voltage.
5. Repeat steps 3 to 4 increasing the distance by 20 cm each time, up to 100 cm.
6. Repeat the experiment twice more.

Analysis

1. Calculate the mean voltage for each distance.
2. Plot a graph of mean voltage against distance.

Teacher / Technician notes

Risk Assessment

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Hazard</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Control measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hot lamps can burn</td>
<td>Burning skin on hot lamp whilst moving it</td>
<td>Do not move lamp until cool</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Solar panels are available to buy very cheaply from Rapid Electronics e.g. TruOpto OPL30A10101 Solar Module 3V 100 mA 0.3W order code 56-0124.

This task could be useful in developing planning skills as students could plan to investigate the effect of increasing cloud cover, by covering the solar panel with different thicknesses of tracing paper.
1. **Development of scientific thinking**
   Use a variety of models such as representational, spatial, descriptive, computational and mathematical to solve problems, make predictions and to develop scientific explanations and understanding of familiar and unfamiliar facts.

   Explain every day and technological applications of science; evaluate associated personal, social, economic and environmental implications and make decisions based on the evaluation of evidence and arguments.

2. **Experimental skills and strategies**
   Plan experiments or devise procedures to make observations, produce or characterise a substance, test hypotheses, check data or explore phenomena.

   Apply a knowledge of a range of techniques, instruments, apparatus and materials to select those appropriate to the experiment.
### 1.1 MODERN LIVING AND ENERGY –
### 1.1.3 MAKING USE OF ENERGY

**Applied Context**
As energy is an expensive commodity, it is important that it is not wasted in industry and everyday life. Learners should consider how homes are heated, how to improve the efficiency of cars, how to reduce the carbon footprint. Learners can apply their knowledge in a number of fields including electricity generation and sustainable development. This section is common core content.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) processes by which energy can be transferred (conduction, convection or radiation)</td>
<td>No particulate explanation required. Convection arises from density changes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) how data can be obtained either directly or using secondary sources (e.g. through the energy banding (A-G) and the power ratings of domestic electrical appliances) to investigate the cost of using them</td>
<td>Includes different types of lamps e.g. filament, halogen and LED. Includes payback time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) how energy loss from houses can be restricted e.g. loft insulation and double glazing; how data can be used to compare the economics of domestic insulation techniques</td>
<td>Link the method of heat transfer reduction to each method of insulation. Loft insulation and cavity wall insulation reduce heat loss by both conduction and convection. Be able to explain about the importance of “trapped air.” An awareness of the environmental benefits of house insulation is required.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) the cost effectiveness and efficiency of different methods of reducing energy loss from the home, including loft insulation, cavity wall insulation, double-glazing and draught excluders to compare their effectiveness; the economic and environmental issues surrounding controlling energy loss</td>
<td>payback time = \frac{\text{installation cost}}{\text{annual savings}}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) the efficiency of different vehicle engines (electric &gt; diesel &gt; petrol); how energy efficiency of vehicles can be improved (e.g. reduce aerodynamic losses/air resistance and rolling resistance, reduce idling losses, inertia losses)</td>
<td>Consideration of the different costs of energy sources of vehicles and the range they allow: e.g. the fuel efficiency of cars, the cost-efficiency of oil-fired heating etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) energy saving methods with respect to their impact on the carbon footprint</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g) mathematical equations to find the number of units and cost of electricity used:</td>
<td>Conversions between W and kW, minutes and hours, and hours and days.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
\text{units used} = \text{power} \times \text{time (h)}
\]
\[
\text{total cost} = \text{cost of one unit} \times \text{units used}
\]
SPECIFIED PRACTICAL WORK

- Investigation of the methods of heat transfer
Investigation of the methods of heat transfer

Introduction

Heat can be transferred through materials (and indeed empty space) in different ways. This series of experiments explores the methods of heat transfer and aims to develop your understanding of the differences between conduction, convection and radiation.

Apparatus

**Convection:**
2 × 250 cm³ beaker
1 crystal of potassium manganate(VII)
10 cm³ glass tube
tripod and gauze
heat proof mat
Bunsen burner
forceps

**Radiation:**
filament lamp
2 × thermometers
1 small piece of black paper
1 small piece of silver foil
Sellotape
stopwatch
2 × clamp stand, clamp and boss

**Conduction:**
conductive ring
(aluminium, brass, copper and iron)
4 × wooden matches
Vaseline
clamp stand, clamp and boss
Bunsen burner
heat proof mat
stopwatch
Diagram of Apparatus

**Convection Experiment**

- Crystal of potassium manganate(VII)

**Radiation Experiment**

- Black paper
- Silver foil
- Heat source (e.g. filament lamp)

**Conduction Experiment**

**Conductive Ring Experiment**

- Steel
- Copper
- Match
- Aluminium
- Brass
- Match

HEAT
Method

**Convection Experiment**

1. Fill the beaker to ¾ full of water.
2. Use forceps to pick up a single crystal of potassium manganate(VII) and drop it carefully through the glass tube to one side of the bottom of the beaker.
3. Place your finger on the top of the tube and remove carefully.
4. Light the Bunsen burner well away from the apparatus. Use the gas tap to get the smallest blue flame that you can.
5. Put the small Bunsen flame directly underneath the crystal and record your observations.

**Radiation Experiment**

1. Use Sellotape to attach a 2 cm strip of black paper to the bulb of one thermometer.
2. In the same way attach a 2 cm strip of silver foil to the bulb of another thermometer.
3. Clamp the 2 thermometers the same distance away (about 10 cm) from a filament lamp.
4. Record the temperatures shown by the two thermometers.
5. Switch on the lamp and record the temperatures again after 10 minutes.

**Conduction Experiment**

1. Clamp the conductive ring taking care to keep the clamp away from the mid-point of the ring.
2. Attach a wooden match to the outer end of each metal using a small blob of Vaseline.
3. Heat the centre point of the ring with a blue Bunsen flame.
4. Record how long it takes for each metal to lose its wooden match.

**Analysis**

1. Determine which colour is the best absorber of heat.
2. Determine the order of conductivity of the metals.
Convection Experiment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hazard</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Control measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Potassium manganate(VII) is harmful/oxidising</td>
<td>Could harm skin if touched</td>
<td>Use tweezers to drop a single crystal through the glass tube to bottom of beaker. Do not handle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot apparatus can burn</td>
<td>Burning fingers when moving apparatus</td>
<td>Allow apparatus to cool before any attempt to move it. Hold tripod at bottom of a leg, Bunsen burner at base and gauze at the corner.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Radiation Experiment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hazard</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Control measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hot filament lamp can burn</td>
<td>Burning fingers when moving lamp</td>
<td>Allow lamp to cool before any attempt to move it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conduction Experiment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hazard</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Control measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hot tripod can burn</td>
<td>Burning fingers when moving tripod</td>
<td>Allow the tripod to cool. Do not touch the top. Move by holding bottom of a leg</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convection experiment

A small supply of potassium manganate (VII) crystals may be supplied in an evaporating basin (with some forceps) for shared use. Students should take care not to handle the crystals or get them on their clothes as it does stain. Please see the CLEAPPS card 48 on potassium manganate(VII) for further safety advice.

Strong heating does result in all the water becoming coloured very quickly. A small flame allows the convection to be seen much more easily. Students should adjust the gas tap to achieve the smallest blue flame that they can. If the flame goes out they should turn off the gas at the gas tap and then re-light the Bunsen burner and try again.
Students should be encouraged to describe their observations fully. It is not that the water all becomes coloured that is important but rather how this happens. They should be able to observe the convection currents in the water (as the purple colour rises, spreads across and sinks down the other side). They can then be encouraged to discuss / explain their observations.

**Radiation experiment**

Infra-red lamps (perhaps used for microscope work) may be used as an alternative to filament lamps in the radiation experiment. The experiment works well if pieces of Sellotape are used to attach the foil/ paper. The temperature of the thermometer with the silver foil rises less despite the fact that the aluminium is a metal and a good conductor of heat. Alternatively, white paper could be used instead of the silver-coloured aluminium foil for a “fairer” experiment. Care should be taken to have the two thermometers (on the bench or clamped) at exactly the same distance from the heat source.

Students could be asked to predict what will happen. Some may suggest that the black paper will get hotter because it “attracts” more heat. This idea will need to be challenged in the discussion following the experiment. Students should be encouraged to describe and explain their results. They should use relevant scientific terms such as heat waves, infra-red radiation, absorb and reflect.

**Conduction experiment**

This experiment can be demonstrated if only a limited number of conduction rings are available. A similar practical is undertaken by students in the specified practical in unit 3.1. The expected order is: copper (best conductor), aluminium, brass, steel (poorest conductor).

Some groups may find aluminium to be the best conductor. It is often very close between copper and aluminium. Hopefully, a quick survey of each group’s results will reveal more votes for copper than for aluminium as the best conductor.

If run as a class practical, the Vaseline makes this a potentially messy experiment. Students need access to soap and hot water to remove Vaseline from hands. A plentiful supply of paper towels should be available to wipe Vaseline from benches. Students should be encouraged to use the smallest amount of Vaseline that is needed to attach each match to the ring.

This practical works well run as a circus of activities.
Working scientifically skills covered

2. **Experimental skills and strategies**
   Carry out experiments appropriately having due regard to the correct manipulation of apparatus, the accuracy of measurements and health and safety considerations.

   Make and record observations and measurements using a range of apparatus and methods.

3. **Analysis and Evaluation**
   Interpret observations and other data including identifying patterns and trends, making inferences and drawing conclusions.

   Evaluate data in terms of accuracy, precision, repeatability and reproducibility and identifying potential sources of random and systematic error.

4. **Scientific vocabulary, quantities, units, symbols and nomenclature**
   Use scientific vocabulary, terminology and definitions.
1.1 MODERN LIVING AND ENERGY –
1.1.4 BUILDING ELECTRIC CIRCUITS

**Applied Context**
A large number of electrical devices are now used in our homes, at work, or for leisure. In this topic learners will explore simple electric circuits and understand how the construction of a circuit affects the current and voltage across components. They will also be introduced to key concepts and relationships that need to be considered when building a circuit. Learners can apply their knowledge in a number of fields including electrical engineering, electronics and communications. This section is common core content.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) the symbols of components (cell, switch, lamp, voltmeter, ammeter, resistor, variable resistor, fuse, LED, thermistor, LDR, diode) used in electrical circuits</td>
<td>Be able to draw circuit diagrams.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Switch](image1.png)
![Cell or Battery](image2.png)
![Diode](image3.png)
![Resistor](image4.png)
![Variable Resistor](image5.png)
![LED](image6.png)
**Series Circuits**
- In series circuits, the current is the same throughout the circuit and voltages add up to the supply voltage. Parallel circuits have the voltage the same across each branch, and the sum of the currents in each branch is equal to the current in the supply.

**Adding Components**
- Components can be added in series or parallel to change the total resistance of the circuit. Physical factors that affect resistance include thermistors and LDRs.

**Instrument Use**
- Voltmeters and ammeters are used to measure voltage across and current through electrical components in electrical circuits. Ammeters must be connected in series, and voltmeters in parallel.

**Types of Circuits**
- Including appreciation of types of household circuits, such as ring mains and household lighting circuits.
(e) Circuits to investigate how current changes with voltage for a component e.g. for a resistor (or wire) at constant temperature, a filament lamp and a diode; The circuits would include a variable resistor. Including knowledge of how:
- \( R \) varies with \( V \) for a lamp
- \( R \) varies with positive and negative voltages for a diode and that normally a diode will not conduct until a particular voltage is reached.

Current plotted on the \( y \)-axis and voltage on the \( x \)-axis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current</th>
<th>Voltage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

\( R \) varies with \( V \) for a lamp
\( R \) varies with positive and negative voltages for a diode and that normally a diode will not conduct until a particular voltage is reached.

(f) The significance of, and the relationship between current, voltage and resistance

The qualitative and quantitative relationships should be known

If \( R \) is constant then \( I \propto V \). If \( V \) is constant then \( I \propto \frac{1}{R} \)
### (g) Components in series and parallel
- How adding components in series increases total resistance in a circuit; how adding components in parallel decreases total resistance in a circuit
- \[ R_T = R_1 + R_2 \]
- \[ 1/R_T = 1/R_1 + 1/R_2 \]

### (h) Total resistance and current
- How to calculate total resistance and current in a series circuit; how to select an appropriate fuse for a circuit; how to calculate the total resistance and total current in a parallel circuit
- \[ R_T = R_1 + R_2 \]
- \[ 1/R_T = 1/R_1 + 1/R_2 \]

### (i) Mathematical equations
- Mathematical equations to find useful information:
  - \[ I = \frac{V}{R} \]
  - \[ P = V I \]
  - \[ P = I^2 R \]
- Manipulation of equations only required on higher tier
- On foundation tier the equation will be given in the form required.

### SPECIFIED PRACTICAL WORK
- Investigation of the current-voltage (I-V) characteristics for a component
Investigation of the current-voltage ($I$-$V$) characteristics for a component

Introduction

The voltage across and the current through a component can be measured and the results plotted on a graph to show the $I$-$V$ characteristic of the component.

Apparatus

- 12 V filament lamp
- voltmeter ±0.01 V
- ammeter ±0.01 A
- connecting leads
- 12 V d.c. power supply
- variable resistor

Diagram of Apparatus
Method

1. Connect the circuit as shown in the diagram.
2. Adjust the variable resistor until the voltmeter reads 1 V.
3. Record the readings of voltage and current.
4. Adjust the variable resistor to increase the voltmeter reading to 2 V.
5. Record the readings of voltage and current.
6. Repeat steps 4 to 5, increasing the voltage by 1 V each time, until the voltmeter reads 12 V.

Analysis

1. Plot a graph of current (y-axis) vs voltage (x-axis).

Technician / Teacher notes

Risk Assessment

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hot lamps can burn</td>
<td>Burning skin on hot lamps when moving/touching lamps</td>
<td>Allow lamp to cool before touching them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ray box lamps are suitable to use instead of 12 V lamps.

d.c. voltmeters and ammeters must be used.

If variable resistors are not available then a variable power supply could be used. Students should read the voltage directly from the voltmeter rather than using the settings on the power supply.

If students are constructing the circuits, it is advisable they should be checked for short circuits before use.

The graph should show a non-linear relationship.

More able students should be encouraged to discuss how the resistance of the filament changes due to the heating effect.
2. **Experimental skills and strategies**
   Apply knowledge of a range of techniques, instruments, apparatus and materials to select those appropriate to the experiment.
   
   Make and record observations and measurements using a range of apparatus and methods.

3. **Analysis and Evaluation**
   Present observations and other data using appropriate methods.
   
   Translate data from one form to another.
   
   Carry out and represent mathematical analysis.
   
   Interpret observations and other data, including identifying patterns and trends, making inferences and drawing conclusions.

4. **Scientific vocabulary, quantities, units, symbols and nomenclature**
   Use SI units and IUPAC chemical nomenclature unless inappropriate.
## 1.2 OBTAINING RESOURCES FROM OUR PLANET –
### 1.2.1 OBTAINING CLEAN WATER

### Applied Context
Water is a fundamental need of every living thing. In this topic learners are introduced to the composition of water and the need to treat water before it can be used by the public. Learners can apply their knowledge in a number of fields including the chemical industry and environmental monitoring. This section is common core content.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>(a)</strong> elements as substances that cannot be broken down by chemical means and as the building blocks of all substances; the symbols of elements; how to work out the formulae of simple compounds</td>
<td>Be able to construct formulae and interpret given chemical formulae i.e. name the elements; state the number of atoms of each element and the total number of atoms present.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(b)</strong> the terms atomic number, mass number and isotope including their definition; the information obtainable from the atomic number and mass number to include number of protons, neutrons or electrons in a particular atom and the electronic structures of an atom; the difference between an atom and an ion</td>
<td>Comparison of the atomic structure of atoms of different elements / isotopes. Be able to calculate relative molecular (formula) masses using ( A_r ) values from the Periodic Table. The formal definition of relative atomic mass is not required <strong>but higher tier candidates should know how ( A_r ) is different to mass number.</strong> Recall the definitions for both terms and to use them to identify the numbers of protons, neutrons and electrons in any given atom/ion. Write and draw electronic configurations of atoms and ions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(c)</strong> the differences between elements and compounds in terms of elements being composed of one type of atom while compounds are made of two or more different types of atom that are chemically joined</td>
<td>Know that in a chemical reaction, atoms are rearranged but none are created or destroyed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(d)</strong> the composition of water in ‘natural’ water supplies, including dissolved gases, ions including metal ions, carbonates and nitrates, particulate matter, parasitic microorganisms, organic matter and pesticides</td>
<td>Rainwater contains dissolved ( \text{CO}_2 ) (which lowers the pH) and ( \text{O}_2 ). Groundwater contains ions such as ( \text{Mg}^{2+} ), ( \text{Ca}^{2+} ), ( \text{Na}^+ ) and ( \text{K}^+ ) from minerals dissolved as it permeates through rocks. Candidates will not be expected to name any microorganisms present in water. Be aware that man-made pollutants include fertilisers, pesticides and household and industrial waste. Natural pollutants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e)</td>
<td>the need for a sustainable water supply to include reducing our water consumption, reducing the environmental impacts of abstracting, distributing and treating water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f)</td>
<td>the treatment of the public water supply using sedimentation, filtration, ozone dosing and chlorination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g)</td>
<td>desalination of sea water to supply drinking water including the sustainability of this process on a large scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(h)</td>
<td>the separation of water and other miscible liquids by distillation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| (i) | solubility curves including the drawing and interpreting of data on changes in solubility with temperature | Be familiar with the following methods:  
- Add known mass of solute (e.g. ammonium chloride) to a measured volume of water which will only dissolve a portion of the solute; filter, dry and weigh excess solute; determine solubility.  
- Add slightly more weighed solute (e.g. potassium chlorate) than will dissolve to a measured volume of water at room temperature; heat solution until all solute dissolves; allow to cool and record temperature at which crystals first appear; repeat several times with increasing volumes of water; determine solubility at each temperature; plot solubility curve. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(i)</th>
<th>the causes of hardness in water and distinguish between hard and soft waters by their action with soap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Know that hardness in water is caused by the presence of Ca$^{2+}$ and Mg$^{2+}$ ions from dissolved calcium and magnesium compounds and that hard water forms a ‘scum’ and poor lather when shaken with soap solution. They should be able to describe in detail how the relative amount of hardness in different water samples can be determined, e.g. by measuring the volume of soap solution required to produce a given lather or by measuring the lather produced by a given volume of soap solution. Know that temporary hardness can be removed by boiling and that this leads to ‘furring’ of kettle elements as a result of formation of insoluble calcium carbonate. Higher tier candidates should be able to explain this in terms of the removal of hydrogencarbonate ions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(k)</th>
<th>the processes to soften water to include boiling, adding sodium carbonate and ion exchange; the advantages and disadvantages of different methods of water softening</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boiling – no need for expensive equipment; only useful for small volumes and does not remove permanent hardness Adding sodium carbonate (washing soda) – removes both temporary and permanent hardness; limescale is formed which can block washing machine pipes. Ion exchange – removes temporary and permanent hardness and is a continuous process, uses concentrated sodium chloride which is cheap and widely available; exchange columns are expensive. Boiling causes hydrogencarbonate ions to decompose forming calcium carbonate on the heating element. Adding sodium carbonate (washing soda) removes hardness by precipitating calcium carbonate. Candidates should be able to write appropriate equations for these reactions. Ion exchange removes hardness because calcium (and magnesium) ions are exchanged for sodium ions on passing hard water through an ion exchange resin (two sodium ions needed for every calcium ion). Water coming from the resin contains sodium ions. All the sodium ions attached to an ion exchange resin are eventually ‘used up’ so no more hardness can be removed, but the resin can be ‘regenerated’ by being rinsed in a concentrated solution of sodium chloride.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(l)</th>
<th>the impacts of hard water to include affects upon boilers, water pipes and health</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recall that boilers and hot water pipes become ‘furred up’ as calcium carbonate precipitates – boilers become less efficient and pipes can become completely blocked.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SPECIFIED PRACTICAL WORK**

- Determination of the amount of hardness using soap solution
Determination of the amount of hardness using soap solution

Introduction

Soft water readily forms *lather* with soap, but it is more difficult to form lather with hard water. Hard water contains dissolved calcium or magnesium compounds. This can ‘fur up’ kettles, boilers and pipes, which wastes energy and can be dangerous if the flow of water is impeded. The calcium ions and magnesium ions in hard water react with the soap to form scum, so more soap is needed to form a lather.

Temporary hard water contains calcium and magnesium hydrogen carbonate. Temporary hard water becomes soft on boiling (limescale). Permanent hard water does not become soft when it is boiled.

Apparatus

100 cm³ conical flask and stopper
dropping pipette
50 cm³ measuring cylinder
water samples - A, B, C, D, boiled A, boiled B, boiled C, boiled D
stopwatch
soap solution

Method

1. Measure 50 cm³ of water sample A into a conical flask.
2. Add 1 cm³ of soap solution, insert the stopper and shake vigorously for 5 seconds.
3. Repeat step 2 until a lather forms that lasts for 30 seconds. Record the total volume of soap solution added.
4. Repeat steps 1-3 with 50 cm³ samples of all other types of water.

Analysis

1. Draw a bar chart of volume of soap solution against water sample.
2. Use your results to identify which samples are: soft water, temporary hard water and permanent hard water.
Wanklyn's or Clarke's soap solution can be used.

Suggested hard water concentration (and approximate volume of soap solution required)

- **A - Soft Water**
  - Unboiled: de-ionised water (1 cm³)
  - Boiled: de-ionised water (1 cm³)

- **B - Permanent Hard Water**
  - Unboiled: 60% magnesium hard water, 40% calcium hard water (8 cm³)
  - Boiled: 60% magnesium hard water, 40% calcium hard water (8 cm³)

- **C - Temporary Hard Water**
  - Unboiled: 50% magnesium hard water, 50% calcium hard water (12 cm³)
  - Boiled: de-ionised water (1 cm³)

- **D - Permanent hard water**
  - Unboiled: calcium hard water (15 cm³)
  - Boiled: calcium hard water (15 cm³)

- **Hard water solutions**
  - Magnesium hard water – 0.45 g/dm³ magnesium sulphate
  - Calcium hard water – 0.45 g/dm³ calcium sulphate

Sample C is used to represent boiled temporary hard water to demonstrate that hardness has been removed. Teachers may want to create a further sample that contains a mixture of permanent hard water and temporary hard water to extend the experiment for more able students.

- **E - Permanent hard water**
  - Unboiled: calcium hard water (15 cm³)
  - Boiled: 50% calcium hard water, de-ionised water (8 cm³)
Results are best recorded in a tally chart to enable students to record each time 1 cm$^3$ of soap is added to the solution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Water sample</th>
<th>Tally chart of volume of soap solution added (cm$^3$)</th>
<th>Total volume of soap solution added (cm$^3$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Working scientifically skills covered**

1. **Development of scientific thinking**
   Explain every day and technological applications of science; evaluate associated personal, social, economic and environmental implications and make decisions based on the evaluation of evidence and arguments.

2. **Experimental skills and strategies**
   Plan experiments or devise procedures to make observations, produce or characterise a substance, test hypotheses, check data or explore phenomena.

3. **Analysis and Evaluation**
   Translate data from one form to another.
   Interpret observations and other data including identifying patterns and trends, making inferences and drawing conclusions.
   Evaluate data in terms of accuracy, precision, repeatability and reproducibility and identifying potential sources of random and systematic error.
1.2 OBTAINING RESOURCES FROM OUR PLANET –

1.2.2 OUR PLANET

**Applied Context**
This topic helps learners understand how raw materials such as metal ores, crude oil and gases such as oxygen are obtained from the Earth's crust or atmosphere and processed. They will also consider the benefits and environmental impacts of obtaining these materials. Understanding the chemical structure of these raw materials enables scientists to make the best use of them. Learners can apply their knowledge in a number of fields including the chemical industry and engineering. This section is common core content.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| *(a)* the large scale structure of the Earth in terms of solid iron core, molten iron outer core, mantle and crust | The Earth's outer layer, (the crust and the rigid upper part of the mantle), is broken into 7 or 8 major and many minor plates. These plates continuously move at a rate of a few centimetres per year in relation to one another.  
  
  Wegener suggested that all of the continents were once joined together in one supercontinent, called Pangaea, and that they have since drifted apart. This idea of ‘continental drift’ is based on the following observations:  
  - Jigsaw-like fit of the edges of continents e.g. the west coast of Africa and the east coast of South America;  
  - Similar rocks of the same age found on different continents;  
  - Similar plant and animal fossils found on opposite sides of huge oceans.  
  
  Wegener’s theory did not include any attempt to explain how the continents moved and it was dismissed by more renowned scientists of the time. Convection currents in the mantle were proposed by some scientists as an explanation for plate movement as far back as the 1930s and this was generally accepted as being correct by the 1960s, but the exact mechanism remains a widely researched and much debated question. This is a very good example of how scientific ideas continually develop as new evidence is accumulated over time. Wegener’s theory of continental drift was refined and became known as ‘plate tectonics’. |
| *(b)* the theory of plate tectonics and how it developed from Alfred Wegener’s earlier theory of continental drift |  
  
  The Earth's outer layer, (the crust and the rigid upper part of the mantle), is broken into 7 or 8 major and many minor plates. These plates continuously move at a rate of a few centimetres per year in relation to one another.  
  
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(c) The process occurring at tectonic plate boundaries where plates slide past one another, move towards one another and move apart. Plates move apart at a mid-ocean ridge; this is called a constructive plate boundary because volcanic activity produces new igneous rock. At a destructive plate boundary, one plate is pushed down into the mantle and melts to form magma, causing explosive volcanoes. Both of these boundary types are linked to earthquakes and volcanic activity. At a conservative plate boundary, where plates slide past each other, powerful earthquakes are generated but there are no volcanoes because melting does not occur. Candidates are not expected to recall the detailed structures of these boundary types.

(d) The composition of the original atmosphere to include gases from volcanoes such as carbon dioxide and water vapour. There are several theories that have been used to account for the formation of the Earth’s early atmosphere, but many scientists agree that it is most likely to have formed from gases expelled by volcanoes. Carbon dioxide, water vapour and ammonia make up the greatest proportion of volcanic gases.

(e) The present composition of the atmosphere; how the composition of the atmosphere has changed over geological time. The surface of the Earth cooled over time and water vapour present in the early atmosphere condensed forming the oceans. Appreciate that this happened quickly, in geological terms, and that other changes took far longer. The percentage of carbon dioxide has decreased to a fraction of one percent as a result of a number of processes, the most important being photosynthesis. Photosynthesis began as green plants evolved, using up carbon dioxide and releasing oxygen into the atmosphere for the first time. The evolution of marine animals followed over hundreds of millions of years and much carbon dioxide was locked into limestone and chalk formed from their shells. More still was locked into fossil fuels formed many millions of years ago from the remains of simple marine organisms (crude oil and natural gas) and larger land plants (coal). Ammonia decomposed on reaction with oxygen forming nitrogen, which became the most abundant gas in the atmosphere.

These changes occurred over billions of years and eventually led to the composition with which we are familiar:
- Nitrogen 78%
- Oxygen 21%
- Argon (+ other noble gases) 0.9%
- Carbon dioxide 0.04%
<p>| (f) | the periodic table as a tabular display of elements with elements arranged in periods and groups with elements in the same group having similar properties; the two main classes of elements with metals found to the left and centre of the periodic table and non-metals are to the right of the table; the similarities and trends of elements within a group as illustrated by data from group 1 and 7 |
| (f) | Identify an element given its group and period, and vice versa. Understand that elements with the same number of electrons in their outer shell undergo similar chemical reactions e.g. as seen in Group 1 and Group 7. |
| (g) | chemical reactions that involve transformation of one set of chemical compounds into another; that in a chemical reaction, atoms are re-arranged to make new products and no atoms are lost or gained; word and balanced symbol equations for simple chemical reactions (e.g. magnesium and oxygen, carbon and oxygen to form carbon dioxide, alkali metals and halogens) |
| (g) | The emphasis here is on the skills of writing and balancing chemical equations. Candidates should be able to use the state symbols (s), (l), (g) and (aq) but they will not be required to include them in equations unless they are specifically asked to do so. |
| (h) | methods to obtain raw materials from the Earth’s crust or atmosphere, including metal ores via surface and subsurface mining, shale gas via fracking, crude oil via drilling, salt via solution mining or deep-shaft mining, gases such as oxygen or nitrogen from air via fractional distillation, biomass feedstock (e.g. for bioplastic production) |
| (h) | Detailed descriptions of extraction methods are not required. |
| (i) | the need to process most raw materials to produce useful materials, including separation of components and / or chemical transformation |
| (i) | Most fractions are used as fuels, others are further processed by cracking to make small, reactive molecules called monomers. |
| (i) | crude oil as a complex mixture of hydrocarbons which need separating to produce useful products; fractional distillation which utilises differences in boiling temperatures to separate fractions; each fraction as a less complex mixture which contain hydrocarbons with boiling points in the same range |
| (i) | Know the trends in boiling point and viscosity and link these with the number of carbon atoms. |
| (k) | cracking as a process to make more useful molecules including monomers | These monomers can be used to make plastics. |
| (l) | polymerisation reactions as processes that produce a polymer by linking monomers together into a repeating pattern |  |
| (m) | bioplastics as produced from renewable sources such as vegetable oil or corn starch; the advantages and disadvantages of using plastics from renewable biomass sources |  |
| (n) | ores as rocks that contain metals or compounds of metals | Appreciate that metals/metal compounds are obtained from the ground. |
| (o) | reduction processes used in metal extraction limited to reduction with carbon/carbon monoxide or electrolysis; reduction as a process in which oxygen is removed or electrons added and oxidation as a process in which oxygen is added or electrons removed; a metal's position in the reactivity series determining the reduction processes used; electrolysis reactions that involve an electric current flowing through a molten ionic compound or ionic compound in solution | Understand the process of iron extraction in the blast furnace and aluminium via electrolysis. |
| (p) | extraction of iron using a blast furnace and extraction of aluminium using electrolysis including the raw materials and reactions occurring in each process; word and balanced symbol equations for these reactions | Understand that the extraction of aluminium requires greater energy input than the extraction of iron and that the method used to extract the most reactive metals (including aluminium) is electrolysis |
| (q) | the use of electrolysis to electroplate objects; the main reasons for electroplating including reduction of abrasive wear, improve corrosion protection and aesthetics | Know that the article to be electroplated is made the cathode, and immersed in an aqueous solution containing ions of the required metal. The anode is usually a bar of the metal used for plating. During electrolysis metal is deposited on the article as metal from the anode goes into solution. Explain in terms of ion movement and electron gain/loss, using the terms electrode, anode, cathode and electrolyte. Suitable objects that are electroplated include jewellery, cutlery and cookery utensils. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(r)</th>
<th>the main costs of extracting and processing useful raw materials (labour, energy costs, demand)</th>
<th>Evaluate the cost and environmental impact of the extraction of metals from their ores compared to recycling.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(s)</td>
<td>the fate of discarded products, to include the expected life in the environment, persistence of plastics in the environment, the role of microbes in the breakdown of biodegradable plastics, the corrosion of metals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(t)</td>
<td>the environmental, social and economic impacts of obtaining and processing raw materials e.g. the impacts of mining including spoil heaps; drilling for oil including oil spills; fracking; impact of using crops to produce raw materials for fuels/producing bioplastics on food production; the effect on the world’s oceans and marine life of waste plastics in the environment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SPECIFIED PRACTICAL WORK**

- Preparation of a biopolymer including the effect of a plasticiser.
Preparation of a biopolymer including the effect of a plasticiser

Introduction

In this practical you will make a plastic from potato starch and investigate the effect that adding a plasticiser has on the properties of the polymer that you make.

Apparatus

400 cm$^3$ beaker
250 cm$^3$ beaker
large watch glass
Bunsen burner
heat resistant mat
tripod
gauze
stirring rod
Petri dish or white tile
universal indicator paper
dropping pipette
25 cm$^3$ measuring cylinder
dilute hydrochloric acid (0.1 mol/dm$^3$)
dilute sodium hydroxide (0.1 mol/dm$^3$)
distilled water (about 500 cm$^3$)

Access to:

potato starch
food colouring
Propane-1,2,3-triol (glycerol), (2 cm$^3$)

Diagram of Apparatus
Method

1. Put 22 cm$^3$ of water into the beaker and add 4 g of potato starch, 3 cm$^3$ of hydrochloric acid and 2 cm$^3$ of propane-1,2,3-triol.

2. Put the watch glass on top of the beaker and heat the mixture using the Bunsen burner. Bring it carefully to the boil and then boil it gently for 15 minutes. Do not boil it dry.

3. Dip the stirring rod into the mixture and dot it onto the indicator paper to measure the pH. Add enough sodium hydroxide solution drop by drop to neutralise the mixture, testing after each addition with indicator paper. You will probably need to add about 3 cm$^3$.

4. Add a drop of food colouring and mix thoroughly.

5. Pour the mixture onto a petri dish or white tile and push it around with the glass rod so that there is an even covering.

6. Repeat steps 1-6 but leave out the propane-1,2,3-triol.

7. Label the mixtures and leave them to dry out. It takes about one day on a radiator or sunny windowsill, or two days at room temperature. Alternatively, use a drying cabinet. It takes about 90 minutes at 100 °C.

Analysis

1. Compare the two films.
Technician notes

Risk Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hazard</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Control measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dilute hydrochloric acid/</td>
<td>Splashing on to hand/skin/you whilst pouring</td>
<td>Wash off/wear gloves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilute sodium hydroxide are irritants</td>
<td>Transfer hand in to eye when pouring</td>
<td>Wear eye protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot apparatus may cause burns</td>
<td>Moving the Bunsen burner may burn skin</td>
<td>Do not move Bunsen burner until cool</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reagents:

- Hydrochloric acid – Refer to CLEAPSS hazcard 47A
- Sodium hydroxide – Refer to CLEAPSS hazcard 31

If access to a balance is difficult, then starch can be pre-weighed.

If you have a drying cabinet, the mixture should dry in about 90 minutes at 100 °C.

While using food colouring is optional, it does enhance the product and the colour it gives makes the plastic film look more like plastic. Only one drop is needed or the film is too dark.

Care should be taken not to let the substances boil dry, as they can spit and have a tendency to jump out of the beaker.

If you wish, you can prepare your own potato starch using the following method, which produces enough for one group.

1. Grate about 100 g of potato. The potato does not need to be peeled, but it should be clean. Put the potato into the mortar.
2. Add about 100 cm³ of distilled water to the mortar, and grind the potato carefully.
3. Pour the liquid off through the tea strainer into the beaker, leaving the potato behind in the mortar.
4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 twice more.
5. Leave the mixture to settle in the beaker for 5 minutes.
6. Decant the water from the beaker, leaving behind the white starch which should have settled in the bottom. Put about 100 cm³ of distilled water in with the starch and stir gently. Leave to settle again and then decant the water, leaving the starch behind.

When students compare the two films, the one without the propane-1,2,3-triol is far more brittle, the one with it shows more plastic properties.
1. **Development of scientific thinking**
   Explain every day and technological applications of science; evaluate associated personal, social, economic and environmental implications and make decisions based on the evaluation of evidence and arguments.

2. **Experimental skills and strategies**
   Apply a knowledge of a range of techniques, instruments, apparatus and materials to select those appropriate to the experiment.
   Carry out experiments appropriately having due regard to the correct manipulation of apparatus, the accuracy of measurements and health and safety considerations.
1.2 OBTAINING RESOURCES FROM OUR PLANET -
1.2.3 PRODUCING USEFUL COMPOUNDS IN THE LABORATORY

Applied Context
Chemical companies have to maximise the amount of product produced from starting materials. This topic introduces the basic chemistry and skills needed to prepare compounds in the laboratory. Learners will use their understanding of laboratory procedures to evaluate the suitability of a method. Learners can apply their knowledge in a number of fields including the chemical and pharmaceutical industries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) the reactions of acids with metals, metal oxides, hydroxides, carbonates and ammonia; the patterns that exist in these reactions and use these patterns to make predictions about the outcome of reactions</td>
<td>Be able to write word and balanced symbol equations of the reactions of acids with metals, metal oxides, hydroxides, carbonates and ammonia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) laboratory techniques to make useful salts, including insoluble salts (precipitation reactions e.g. copper carbonate) and soluble salts (e.g. copper sulfate, zinc sulfate, potassium nitrate, ammonium nitrate)</td>
<td>Write word and balanced symbol equations of these reactions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) laboratory procedures to evaluate the suitability of different methods of compound preparation, including the hazards in preparation, skills required, time, and success of the preparation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) chemical change to write word and symbol equations for simple neutralisation reactions (e.g. the formation of sodium chloride, potassium nitrate)</td>
<td>Be able to classify substances as acidic, alkaline or neutral in terms of the pH scale, including acid/alkali strength, use of indicators.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SPECIFIED PRACTICAL WORK

- Preparation of useful salts (e.g. zinc sulfate).
Preparation of useful salts (e.g. zinc sulfate)

Introduction

Zinc is important for growth and for the development and health of body tissues. Zinc sulfate is used to treat and to prevent zinc deficiency. In this experiment you will produce the soluble salt, zinc sulfate from the reaction between a base, zinc oxide and sulfuric acid.

\[
\text{ZnO(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{ZnSO}_4(\text{aq}) + \text{H}_2\text{O(l)}
\]

Apparatus

- zinc oxide powder
- 1 mol/dm\(^3\) sulfuric acid
- filter paper
- filter funnel
- 50 cm\(^3\) measuring cylinder
- 250 cm\(^3\) beaker
- Bunsen burner
- tripod and gauze
- thermometer
- evaporating basin

Access to:

- electronic balance ± 0.01 g
Method

1. Weigh between 4.4 g and 5 g of zinc oxide onto a clean, dry filter paper. Record the mass used.
2. Measure 50 cm³ of the 1 mol/dm³ sulfuric acid into a 250 cm³ beaker.
3. Heat the acid to approximately 50°C.
4. Add the zinc oxide and stir.
5. Let the mixture cool then filter into an evaporating basin.
6. Boil the mixture in the evaporating basin until half the liquid has evaporated.
7. Leave to evaporate to dryness.
8. Scrape as much of the solid as possible onto a clean filter paper.
9. Record the mass obtained.

Teacher / Technician notes

Risk Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hazard</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Control measure</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sulfuric acid is an irritant</td>
<td>Splashing on to hand/skin/you whilst pouring</td>
<td>Wash off/wear gloves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transfer from hand in to eye whilst pouring</td>
<td>Wear eye protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zinc sulfate is harmful</td>
<td>Splashing on to hand/skin/you whilst pouring</td>
<td>Wash off/wear gloves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transfer from hand in to eye whilst pouring</td>
<td>Wear eye protection</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reagents:
- Zinc oxide - Refer to CLEAPSS hazcard 108B
- Zinc sulfate - Refer to CLEAPSS hazcard 108
- Sulfuric acid [1.0 mol/dm³] - Refer to CLEAPSS hazcard 98A

This experiment provides a good opportunity to calculate percentage yield as an additional step.

If the mass is not to be weighed at the end, the quantities of zinc oxide and sulfuric acid could be halved.
2. **Experimental skills and strategies**

   Plan experiments or devise procedures to make observations, produce or characterise a substance, test hypotheses, check data or explore phenomena.

   Apply a knowledge of a range of techniques, instruments, apparatus and materials to select those appropriate to the experiment.

   Carry out experiments appropriately having due regard to the correct manipulation of apparatus, the accuracy of measurements and health and safety considerations.
## Applied Context

In this section learners will explore the changing Universe. Scientists use many different techniques to observe and search for patterns in the Universe in an attempt to understand and gather evidence concerning how it began, what it is now like, and how it is changing. Learners can apply their knowledge in a number of fields including communications and space exploration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) the main parts of the electromagnetic spectrum including gamma rays, X-rays, ultraviolet, visible light, infra-red, microwaves and radio waves; the arrangement and scale of the electromagnetic spectrum in terms of frequencies, wavelengths and energies</td>
<td>Be able to name the 7 regions of the electromagnetic spectrum. Have knowledge of the order in which the regions are arranged in terms of wavelength, frequency or energy. In a question – speed of light, ( c = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1} ) will be given if needed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) the relationship between the speed, frequency and wavelength of electromagnetic spectrum waves: wave speed = frequency ( \times ) wavelength</td>
<td>Be aware of the units kHz, MHz, SI multipliers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manipulation of an equation only required on higher tier. On foundation tier, the equation will be given in the form required if it involves a change to the subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) how theories about the Universe have changed over time to include the Steady State theory and Big Bang; differences in the two theories with reference to expansion of the Universe in the Big Bang theory; the Big Bang in which the Universe is believed to have started about 13.5 thousand million years ago; how evidence from red shift and Cosmic Microwave Background Radiation (CMBR) is consistent with the Big Bang theory</td>
<td>The wavelength of the early radiation in the form of short wavelength radiation (gamma rays) has become longer wavelength (microwave) radiation that presently pervades the Universe. This change (increase) in wavelength is believed to be due to the expansion of space. Be aware of diagrams showing line spectrums and how these change for galaxies moving at different rates. Students should understand and describe the origin of CMBR and why the radiation is in the microwave region of the spectrum</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) how images of the universe are taken by Earth based systems, and spacecraft and transmitted to Earth; how electromagnetic waves are used to study structures in the universe e.g. • X-ray images of stars • ultra violet images of the Sun, galaxies and the planets • visible light images of the Sun, the planets, moons and galaxies • infra-red images of the Sun, the planets and the Milky Way • microwave images of the Sun and Cosmic Microwave Background Radiation (CMBR) • radio wave images of stars • images of black holes</td>
<td>Be aware of the types of images listed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| (e) the relative scale of the Universe, galaxies, and solar systems in terms of light years | Understand the difference in size of objects in the Universe. 
Recall that one light year is the distance that light will travel in 1 year. |
| (f) absorption spectra to include how they are produced and provide information about stars and galaxies (composition and relative movement) | The idea that light of certain frequencies is absorbed by gases on the outside of stars/between stars and these correspond to the line emission spectrum of elements in those gases |
| (g) the structure of our solar system to include the Sun, planets (rocky planets, gas giants, and dwarf planets), main moons, the asteroid belt, comets and the Oort Cloud | Be able to recall the order of the planets including the position of the asteroid belt. Know which planets are rocky and which are gaseous and know that the asteroid belt comprises many rocky asteroids and dwarf planets. Appreciate that comets have highly elliptical orbits, passing far out of our solar system. Also appreciate that most of the planets, including some dwarf planets, have moons which orbit them. |
| (h) the Sun to include the relative size and mass to the Earth; nuclear fusion as the source of solar energy; Sun spots; solar flares and their effect on Earth (e.g. on telecommunications) |   |
| (i) data to identify patterns and compare objects in the solar system (e.g. mean surface temperature, period of rotation, length of day, distance from Sun) | Be able to interpret given data |
### Applied Context

Learners should be able to apply the concepts in this section to appreciate the variety of life on Earth, describe how living things depend upon each other and how their evolution is driven by living and non-living factors. Learners can apply their knowledge in a number of fields including the ecology and environmental analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) biodiversity as a measure of the health of a biological system over time</td>
<td>Biodiversity is important as it provides food, potential foods, industrial materials, new medicines and for human well-being.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) how organisms (plants and animals) are adapted to their environment and how this allows them to compete for resources and mates; the use of data (numbers and distribution of organism, characteristics of organism) to investigate the success of an organism in an environment</td>
<td>Students should be able to draw conclusions from charts, graphs or tables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) strategies that organisms use to avoid adverse environmental conditions, such as hibernation and migration</td>
<td>Students should be given examples of organisms who migrate and hibernate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) classification of organisms (plants, animals, microorganisms) that have similar features in a logical way</td>
<td>There is a range of living organisms and they are divided into major groups: non-flowering plants – do not produce flowers e.g. ferns and mosses; flowering plants – produce flowers; invertebrates – do not have a backbone e.g. insects; vertebrates – have a backbone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) different groups of organisms being distinguished according to characteristic features; genetic sequencing as a tool to confirm and sometimes reclassify species; classifications not necessarily being demonstrated as external features and characteristics</td>
<td>A systematic system helps in the understanding of the variety of living things, their trends and relationships. The classification system may be based on morphological features or DNA analysis. The five Kingdom classification uses morphological features and includes Bacteria, Single Celled organisms, Plants, Fungi, and Animals. Each organism has a scientific name to aid its identification and classification. This avoids the confusion and duplication caused by local or common names. The classification of any suitable example to species level should be used to illustrate the system, including use of the following hierarchical taxa: kingdom, phylum, class, order, family, genus, species.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the use of scientific names (binomial system developed by Linnaeus) as opposed to 'common' names

Scientific names are used for organisms so that each has a scientific name to aid its identification and classification and so avoid confusion and duplication caused by local or common names.

natural selection and its importance as a driving force for evolution; variation which occurs naturally; individuals with advantageous traits being more likely to be reproductively successful; genes of these individuals being passed on to future generations

Individual organisms in a particular species may show a wide range of variation because of differences in their genes (heritable variation).

The term natural selection should be understood. The term ‘Survival of the fittest’ should only be used with care as it must be qualified in the context of breeding i.e. survival of the fittest to breed.

Students should be able to explain the process of natural selection in given examples.

SPECIFIED PRACTICAL WORK

- Investigation into factors affecting the distribution and abundance of a species.
Investigation into factors affecting the distribution and abundance of a species

Introduction

Daisies are a common plant species that can be found on a school field. Using quadrats for random sampling allows you to estimate the numbers of daisy plants growing in this habitat. This technique also reduces sampling bias. A simple calculation can then be used to estimate the total number of daisy species in the entire school field habitat.

Apparatus

- 2 × 20 m tape measures
- 2 × 20 sided dice
- 1 m² quadrat

Diagram of Apparatus
Method

1. Lay two 20 m tape measures at right angles along two edges of the area to survey.
2. Roll two 20 sided dice to determine the coordinates.
3. Place the 1 m² quadrat at the place where the coordinates meet.
4. Count the number of daisy plants within the quadrat. Record this result.
5. Repeat steps 2-4 for at least 25 quadrats.

Analysis

1. Use the following equation to estimate the total number of daisy plants in the field habitat:

\[
\text{Total number of daisy plants in the habitat} = \frac{\text{total number in sample} \times \text{total area (m}^2\text{)}}{\text{total sample area (m}^2\text{)}}
\]

Where:
- total area = 400 m²
- total sample area = number of 1 m² quadrats used

Teacher/Technician notes

Risk Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hazard</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Control measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Some plants have thorns which can cut skin or sting</td>
<td>Cut/irritate skin when handling</td>
<td>Avoid touching plants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>When identifying/wear gloves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uneven ground</td>
<td>Tripping/falling over when identifying plants</td>
<td>Wear suitable footwear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students could compare data for mown and unmown areas.

This practical activity is effective at developing practical fieldwork skills. Students can discuss the need for a large sample of data in ensuring that there is confidence in a valid conclusion. Also, students can describe the importance of random sampling techniques in reducing/eliminating bias.

Alternative methods of generating coordinates can be used, such as using a random number generator or random number tables.
Working scientifically skills covered

2. **Experimental skills and strategies**
   Apply knowledge of a range of techniques, instruments, apparatus and materials to select those appropriate to this experiment.

   Recognise when to apply a knowledge of sampling techniques to ensure any samples collected are representative.

   Make and record observations and measurements using a range of apparatus and methods.

3. **Analysis and Evaluation**
   Carrying out and representing mathematical analysis.

---

1.3 OUR PLANET -

1.3.3 TRANSFER AND RECYCLING OF NUTRIENTS

**Applied Context**
Learners will consider how ecosystems are in balance and how living organisms are dependent on their environment and each other for survival. They will also gain an appreciation of the impact that humans have on the Earth and the importance of sustainable developments for future generations. Learners can apply their knowledge in a number of fields including environmental monitoring, energy and biotechnology.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) food chains and food webs to show the transfer of useful</td>
<td>Be aware that alternative terms for the organisms in the trophic levels include: primary consumers, secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>energy between organisms; types of feeding (e.g. herbivore, carnivore); pyramids of numbers and biomass</td>
<td>consumers and tertiary consumers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) interdependency of organisms; plants that depend on invertebrates and other animals for pollination, seed dispersal, protection from grazers etc; animals that depend on plants either directly or indirectly for food, shelter etc; predation, disease and competition that cause large numbers of organisms to die; microorganisms that play an important role in the cycling of nutrients</td>
<td>This would include competition between species (interspecific) and between members of the same species (intraspecific). Be able to interpret predator-prey relationships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) radiation from the Sun being the source of energy for most ecosystems/communities of living organisms; capture of a small percentage of the solar energy by green plants which reaches them in a process known as photosynthesis</td>
<td>Radiation from the sun is the source of energy for living organisms. Green plants capture only a small percentage of the solar energy which reaches them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) loss of energy at each stage in the food chain due to waste materials and as heat during respiration</td>
<td>Analyse data in terms of: efficiency of energy transfer, numbers of organisms and biomass.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) the carbon cycle (that carbon is recycled via photosynthesis, food chains, respiration and combustion); the role of bacteria and fungi in transferring carbon by feeding on waste materials from organisms and dead plants and animals, respiration and release of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere</td>
<td>Micro-organisms digest materials from their environment for growth and other life processes. These materials are returned to the environment either in waste products or when living things die and decay. When decay is prevented, fossil fuels such as coal, oil and gas are formed and these store energy in carbon compounds. Carbon is taken up by green plants in photosynthesis and is passed to animals when they eat the plants. Some of this carbon then becomes part of carbohydrates, fats and proteins which make up their bodies. Animals and plants release carbon dioxide during respiration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) the effect of human activity (via burning fossil fuels, clearing forests) upon the levels of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere</td>
<td>Be able to interpret information showing the similarity between how CO₂ and mean global temperature have changed over time. Greenhouse gases allow for sufficient warming of the planet for liquid water to be present. Human activity beyond this is leading to climate change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g) the greenhouse effect caused by the Earth absorbing and emitting electromagnetic radiation that is absorbed by some gases (e.g. methane and water vapour) in the atmosphere, so keeping it</td>
<td>Evaluate effects of human activity on carbon dioxide levels.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
warmer than it would otherwise be

the greenhouse effect as being important to stabilize conditions for life but an enhanced greenhouse effect may have significant impact on climate, ice sheets and sea levels and agriculture

proposed solutions to global warming to reduce human impact on the climate (e.g. reducing dependence on fossil fuels via reducing energy consumption, using alternative non-carbon sources of energy, carbon capture)

Be able to interpret data in tabular form and from charts and graphs to compare different sources of energy, and relate to carbon footprint

nutrients that are released during decay, e.g. nitrates, and that these nutrients are then taken up by other organisms resulting in nutrient cycles; that the processes which remove materials are balanced by processes which return materials in a stable community

The principle of cycling of elements is required. Knowledge of the nitrogen and phosphate cycles is not required.

that nitrogen is also recycled through the activity of soil bacteria and fungi acting as decomposers, converting proteins and urea into ammonia; ammonia is converted to nitrates which are taken up by plant roots and used to make new protein

This includes the factors that affect bacterial action and influence the decomposition process in compost heaps and landfill sites e.g. temperature, oxygen, pH, heavy metals.

Nitrogen fixation occurs in bacteria in root nodules of legume plants or free living bacteria in the soil. Some other bacteria break down the nitrate in the soil, returning nitrogen to the atmosphere. These are called denitrifying bacteria and they prefer to live in waterlogged/unploughed soil.

Names of bacterial species is not required

1.4 PROTECTING OUR ENVIRONMENT

Applied Context
Learners will consider how the way we live affects the world around us. They will also gain an appreciation of the importance of sustainable development for future generations. Learners can apply their knowledge in a number of fields including environmental monitoring, energy and biotechnology.

Spec Statement | Comment
--- | ---
how heavy metals from industrial waste and mining enter the food chain; how pesticides can enter the food chain; how heavy metals and pesticides can accumulate in | Bioaccumulation occurs when heavy metals or pesticides, which cannot be broken down in animals' tissues, are washed into soils and rivers and pass through food chains. These chemicals reach a toxic level which can result in reduced fertility or death.
| (a) | animal bodies and may reach a toxic level and so have harmful effects (bioaccumulation) | Note that the term bioaccumulation is not sufficient as an answer without explanation to its meaning. |
| (b) | the rapid growth of photosynthesisers, plants and algae, in water due to untreated sewage and fertilisers; death of plants and algae, and the microbes which break them down, increase in number and further use up the dissolved oxygen in the water; animals, including fish, which live in the water may suffocate | The term eutrophication is not sufficient as an answer on examination papers. Candidates need to be able to explain this term if they use it. |
| (c) | how science helps manage the disposal of sewage (sewage treatment and the role of microbes in treating sewage) |  |
| (d) | the impact of building developments, mining and agriculture on habitat and biodiversity. |  |
| (e) | environmental monitoring using living (e.g. lichens to monitor air pollution, invertebrate animals as water pollution indicators) and non-living indicators (pH and oxygen levels in streams to monitor water pollution) | This should include analysis of first or second hand data from different habitats e.g. abundance and distribution of lichens. |
| (f) | chemical testing to detect the presence of metals in water. Tests to include: flame tests for sodium, potassium, barium, calcium and copper; testing with aqueous sodium hydroxide for Ca$^{2+}$, Cu$^{2+}$, Fe$^{2+}$, Fe$^{3+}$, Cr$^{3+}$ and Pb$^{2+}$. | Recall the flame colours associated with each of these metal ions  
Recall the precipitate colours relating to each of these ions. |
| (g) | chemical testing to detect the presence of sulfates (using aqueous barium chloride), chlorides, bromides and iodides (using aqueous silver nitrate), carbonates and nitrates in water | Recall the tests for listed ions. |
| (h) | how colour test strips can be used to find the approximate amount of pollutants in water e.g. nitrate, pH, chlorine, ammonia and lead |  |
| (i) | how a colorimeter can be used to find the concentration of a substance (e.g. |  |
| (l) | maintenance of biodiversity using captive breeding programmes, seed banks and protected areas | The rising human population is causing increased effects on the environment. This includes that more space is needed for housing, industry and agriculture. Government agencies have an important role in monitoring, protecting and improving the environment. Biodiversity and endangered species can be conserved and protected by the following:  
- Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species  
- Sites of Special Scientific Interest  
- captive breeding programmes  
- national parks  
- seed/ sperm banks  
local biodiversity action plans. |
| (k) | issues surrounding the creation of nature reserves and the need for corridors between reserves to allow movement and prevent isolation between populations of species | |
## UNIT 2 – SCIENCE TO SUPPORT OUR LIFESTYLES

### 2.1 HEALTH, FITNESS AND SPORT -

#### 2.1.1 FACTORS AFFECTING HUMAN HEALTH

**Applied Context**

Human health is affected by a number of factors including inheritance, lifestyle and the environmental factors. Geneticists are trying to improve treatments to develop cures for genetic disorders. Nutritionists and dieticians help to improve health by controlling energy and nutrient intake. Health professionals need to be aware of how our bodies respond to internal and external changes and how we regulate our internal systems, in order to treat problems like diabetes. Learners can apply their knowledge in a number of fields including sport, nutrition and medicine.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) chromosomes that contain DNA molecules which determine inherited characteristics and are found in pairs; genes as sections of DNA molecules that determine inherited characteristics and are found in pairs since chromosomes are normally found in pairs; different forms of genes called alleles that cause variation</td>
<td>Since chromosomes are normally found in pairs in the nucleus of each body cell, the genes, which control particular characteristics, also come as pairs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) the structure of a DNA molecule as two strands coiled to form a double helix, joined by weak bonds between complementary base pairs, A bonds with T, C bonds with G (full names not required)</td>
<td>DNA has a ladder-like structure, the bases forming the rungs. They should have an understanding of complementary base pairing - A pairs with T and that C pairs with G.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Punnett squares to explain the outcomes of monohybrid crosses; the terms genotype, phenotype, recessive, dominant and allele; some changes in alleles that cause inherited diseases(e.g. Huntington's and Cystic Fibrosis); the implications of genetic screening and subsequent counselling, and the ethical problems posed by an individual’s prior knowledge of the probability of such a genetic disease</td>
<td>Be able to produce and interpret genetic crosses as well as family tree diagrams. Inherited disease may be recessive or dominant. Although these are exemplified by cystic fibrosis and Huntington's disease, other conditions may be used which apply the same principles of inheritance. The terms gene and allele are not interchangeable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d)</td>
<td>new genes that result from changes (mutations) in existing genes; mutations that may be harmless, beneficial or harmful and may be passed on from parents to offspring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e)</td>
<td>chromosome abnormalities in humans e.g. Down's syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f)</td>
<td>the short term and long term impact of excessive alcohol consumption on the body and society; addiction as a consequence of sustained alcohol consumption</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| (g) | how to calculate daily energy requirements and the body mass index (BMI) using:  
\[ \text{BMI} = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{height}^2} \] | Use of this data in terms of the advice offered by nutritionists. Calculation and interpretation of BMI is required. |
| (h) | the limitations of BMI, particularly for children and athletes; the causes, social and economic impact, and long term harmful effects of anorexia and obesity | Be aware of the limitations of BMI and how it could lead to incorrect advice. |
| (i) | the effects of smoking on the body and society | Physiological effects such as: lung disease, circulatory disease. Tar in tobacco smoke contains carcinogens which lead to lung cancer. Cigarettes also contain nicotine which is addictive. Cigarette smoke destroys lung tissue which leads to emphysema. Social effects such as cost to NHS, rise in e-cigarettes, taxation |
| (j) | how epidemiological studies inform our knowledge of the impact of lifestyle (e.g. smoking, alcohol consumption, diet) on health; the ideas of correlation and cause appropriately and suggest factors that increase the chance of an outcome; why individual cases do not provide convincing evidence of, for or against, correlation; test design (sample sizes, how well samples match); the use of data to develop an argument that a factor does/does not increase the chance of an outcome | Link to statement (f), (g), (h) and (i) in this section. |
| (k) | the terms Guideline Daily Amount (GDA) and Recommended Daily Allowance (RDA) and their relevance to a controlled diet; the use of data to assess the energy requirement of individuals; the need for accurate information to be given on food labelling and be able to interpret food labels, including food traffic lights, use by dates, quantities and energy values of nutrients and other components of food, including salt and sugar | Be able to interpret GDA and RDA data. 
Know the effects of excessive consumption of sugar, fat, salt and other food additives. 
Discuss available data about nutritional content in highly processed food compared to less processed foods. |
| (l) | the effect of insufficient salt intake (muscle cramps, dizziness, electrolyte disturbance) and the risks with excessive intake (high blood pressure, stroke) |  |
| (m) | the adverse health risks associated with obesity, especially the effect of obesity on the cardiovascular system and the risks of diabetes; the implications of obesity to society (impact on NHS and resources) | Consider the effects to the individual and society. |
the role of insulin in glucose homeostasis; diabetes as a common disease in which a person has a high blood glucose level; type 1 diabetes due to the body not producing enough insulin; type 2 diabetes due to the body cells not properly responding to the insulin that is produced

Understand the concept of negative feedback. Insulin and glucagon are hormones produced by the pancreas, and are transported in the blood. Glucose can be stored in the liver and muscles in the form of glycogen.

how type 1 and type 2 diabetes can be controlled; diagnosis of diabetes by the presence of glucose in urine

The detection of glucose in urine is a symptom of diabetes. Candidates should test artificially prepared urine samples for the presence of glucose using Benedict's solution. The methods of treating diabetes include regularly injecting insulin, a low sugar and low carbohydrate diet and possible transplant of pancreatic tissue.

the effect of pollutants on human health, (e.g. atmospheric pollutants linked with asthma, heavy metals)

How allergens are linked to asthma. Effects of heavy metals e.g. lead and mercury on human health.

**SPECIFIED PRACTICAL WORK**

- Investigation of the energy content of foods
Investigation of the energy content of foods

Introduction

Different foods have different energy contents. The energy content of a food can be released when you set it alight. When you hold a burning food underneath a known volume of water, the temperature increase can be measured. A simple calculation can then be used to estimate the amount of energy stored within the food.

Apparatus

25 cm³ measuring cylinder
boiling tube
clamp stand, clamp and boss
thermometer
Bunsen burner
heat proof mat
mounted needle
samples of foods

Access to:

electronic balance ± 0.1 g
Method

1. Measure 20 cm³ of water into a boiling tube.
2. Clamp the boiling tube to the clamp stand.
3. Record the temperature of the water using a thermometer.
4. Choose a piece of food and record its mass.
5. Place food onto a mounted needle.
6. Hold the food in the Bunsen burner flame, until it catches alight.
7. As soon as the food is alight, hold it under the boiling tube of water. Keep the flame directly underneath the tube.
8. Hold the food in this position until it has burnt completely. If the flame goes out, but the food is not completely burnt, quickly light it again using the Bunsen burner and hold it directly underneath the boiling tube.
9. When the food has burned completely, and the flame has gone out, immediately record the temperature of the water.
10. Repeat steps 1-9 for other foods.

Analysis

1. Calculate the increase in temperature each time.
2. Calculate the energy released from each food using the formula:

   Energy released from food per gram (J) = 
   \[
   \frac{\text{mass of water (g)} \times \text{temperature increase (°C)} \times 4.2}{\text{mass of food sample (g)}}
   \]

3. Compare your results with the theoretical value on the food packet.
4. Evaluate your method and suggest how it could be improved.
**Risk Assessment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hazard</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Control measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fumes produced from burning foods or foods alone can cause allergic reactions</td>
<td>Risk of allergic reactions (skin rashes/breathing difficulties) or anaphylactic shock whilst handling/burning</td>
<td>Do not use nuts as the food source. Maintain good ventilation of the laboratory. Be prepared to administer first aid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot apparatus can burn</td>
<td>Hot apparatus can burn skin when moving the apparatus</td>
<td>Leave apparatus to cool before moving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot water can scald/burn</td>
<td>Hot water can scald/burn skin/eyes when moving the apparatus/pouring water</td>
<td>Leave water to cool before moving Wear eye protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bunsen burner flame can burn</td>
<td>Flame can burn the skin when igniting the crisp</td>
<td>Keep hands a safe distance from the flame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Burning food/dripping fat) can burn</td>
<td>Burning food can burn the skin when heating water OWTTE</td>
<td>Keep hands a safe distance from the flame Wear heat proof gloves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 J / kg °C is the value for the specific heat capacity of water. 1 cm³ of water has a mass of 1 g.

A good range of data can be obtained from comparing the energy values of different crisps, e.g. wotsits, monster munch etc.

The method as stated does not include repeats, but students should be encouraged to carry out an appropriate number, if time allows.

This experiment can be used to compare the energy values quoted on food packaging with the data obtained from the experiment. Students can repeat results to determine repeatability and share results between pupil groups to determine reproducibility of data. This experiment is effective at evaluating the effectiveness of a method. Students can
explain why the data obtained from the experiment is significantly different to the energy values quoted on food packaging. The idea of random and systematic errors can be explored.

Students should design their own table, but a suggested table format is shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of food</th>
<th>Mass of food (g)</th>
<th>Temperature at start (ºC)</th>
<th>Temperature at end (ºC)</th>
<th>Temperature increase (ºC)</th>
<th>Energy released per gram (J)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Working scientifically skills covered

1. **Development of scientific thinking**
   Explain every day and technological applications of science: evaluate associated personal, social, economic and environmental implications and make decisions based on the evaluation of evidence and arguments.

2. **Experimental skills and strategies**
   Make and record observations and measurements using a range of apparatus and methods.
   Evaluate methods and suggest possible improvements and further investigations.

3. **Analysis and Evaluation**
   Carrying out and representing mathematical analysis.
   Evaluating data in terms of accuracy, precision, repeatability and reproducibility and identifying potential sources of random and systematic error.

4. **Scientific vocabulary, quantities, units, symbols and nomenclature**
   Use SI units and IUPAC chemical nomenclature unless inappropriate.
## 2.1 HEALTH, FITNESS AND SPORT -
### 2.1.2 DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT

**Applied Context**
Medical scientists develop methods to diagnose and treat disease. Scientists have discovered that ionising radiation can be very helpful to us, as well as very harmful. They have found out that certain parts of the electromagnetic spectrum can also be used in diagnosis. This topic looks at imaging methods to diagnose disease and progresses to study ways to treat disease. Learners can apply their learning in medical and fitness fields.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) the role of the electromagnetic spectrum in diagnosis of disease and injury</td>
<td>Link to statement (d), (e) and (f) in this section.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) drug treatments that have positive effects and possible side effects on the patient as exemplified by aspirin as a common treatment of patients suffering cardiovascular disease (positive: reduces the risk of blood clots occurring and so the chances of a heart attack; negative: prolonged treatment with aspirin can cause bleeding in the patient’s stomach and stomach ulcers)</td>
<td>All drugs may have side effects. New drugs, including medicinal drugs, may cause side effects that do not show up until lots of people use them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) the stringent testing that new drugs undergo before they can be released for general use; animal testing and clinical trials; ethical decisions with differences of opinion on what is acceptable</td>
<td>The use of the terms blind, double blind and placebo in the context of drug development should be understood. Consider reasons for and against the use of animals in the testing of new drugs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) ionising radiation; radioactive emissions from radioisotopes (such as iodine-131) and short wavelength parts of the electromagnetic spectrum (ultraviolet, X-ray and gamma ray)</td>
<td>Radiation can refer to any waves or particles emitted from a source. Ionising radiations cause the removal of electrons from atoms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) formation of images by a gamma camera detecting gamma rays, used in diagnosing cancer; delivery of radioisotopes by drugs that carry the radioisotope to target organs in the body</td>
<td>Tracers are specially formulated substances which collect in a specific part of the body. These substances emit faint gamma ray signals which are detected using a gamma camera.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(f) The differences between, alpha, beta and gamma radiation, to include that α and β are particles (α a helium nucleus and β is a high velocity electron ejected from the nucleus of a decaying atom) while γ radiation is electromagnetic radiation, their relative penetrating and ionising power.

Understand the difference in risk for alpha, beta or gamma sources outside or inside the body. Link with statement (g) in this section.

No credit will be given for stating that an alpha particle is “helium” or a “helium atom” or a “helium ion”. Recognise an alpha particle as being a group of two neutrons and two protons.

(g) The interaction between ionising radiation and atoms or molecules, damaging the DNA of cells; cancer cells being more susceptible to damage from ionising radiation and die or reproduce more slowly; some healthy cells being affected by the treatment.

Understand that ionising radiation kills living cells and because of this can be used to treat cancer. Healthy cells could be damaged due to mutations in the DNA.

(h) Radiotherapy using ionising radiation in the treatment of cancer; the difference between external radiotherapy which uses an external source of X-rays that are targeted at a tumour and internal radiotherapy which uses a radioisotope, such as iodine-131, taken as a drink or injected into a vein; radioisotopes used in internal radiotherapy that constantly emit ionising radiation but these emissions halve in a short period of time (e.g. the ionising radiation emissions from iodine-131 half every 8 days); the concept of half-life.

Be able to select a suitable isotope for a given application and explain their choice.

Be able to calculate the activity after a certain number of half-lives, or calculate half-life from given data on changes to activity.

Define half-life as the time taken for the number of radioactive nuclei / mass / activity to reduce to one half of its initial value.

(i) Use of data to select the most suitable radioisotope for a medical purpose.

Candidates should decide on suitability of sources depending on type of radiation emitted, its penetrating power, ionising power, damage to healthy cells and half-life.

(j) Chemotherapy as a type of cancer treatment, in which medicine is used to kill cancer cells by damaging them, so they can’t reproduce and spread and is often used in conjunction with radiotherapy.
| (k) | medical imaging as a technique that uses electromagnetic radiation or sound waves to create images of the human body to reveal, diagnose or examine disease | Links to statement (l)-(o) in this section. |
| (l) | the use of ultrasound in the diagnosis of diseases and safe monitoring during pregnancy; the production of ultrasound images by sound bouncing off a boundary between two different structures of different density | Ultra-sound uses high frequency sound waves. |
| (m) | X-rays that are used in both X-ray examinations and CAT scanners; X-ray images as two-dimensional while those taken using a CAT scanner are three-dimensional; CAT scan images formed by processing together a large number of two-dimensional X-ray images taken around an axis; absorption of X-rays by denser objects in the human body (e.g. bones) but not by softer material | |
| (n) | MRI scans that use strong magnetic fields to form images of the body | The magnetic field is varied throughout the body to allow the position of the source of radio waves emitted from the body to be determined |
| (o) | uses of X-rays, CAT scans, ultrasound and MRI | No reference to contrast media required. |
2.1 HEALTH, FITNESS AND SPORT

2.1.3 FIGHTING DISEASE

**Applied Context**
Treatment of infection and disease is extremely important, and as our life expectancy increases, new diseases will arise. Medical scientists have developed vaccinations, which can prevent life-threatening infections. Learners can apply their knowledge to the health, medicinal and pharmaceutical industries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| (a) microorganisms, to include some microorganisms that are harmless and perform vital functions, and some microorganisms, called pathogens, that cause diseases; the barrier against microorganisms formed by intact skin; defence of the body by: blood clots to seal wounds; white cells in the blood that ingest microorganisms and produce antibodies and antitoxins; competition of pathogens with the body's natural population of microorganisms | Blood clots seal wounds to prevent entry of microbes. White cells in the blood help to defend the body against microbes by:  
- ingesting bacteria  
- producing antibodies which inactivate particular bacteria or viruses  
- producing antitoxins which counteract the toxins released by bacteria.  
The community of microorganisms on the skin, the skin flora, make it difficult for pathogens to become established. |
<p>| (b) protection of humans from infectious disease by vaccination; factors influencing parents in decisions about whether to have children vaccinated or not, including the need for sound scientific evidence and the effect of the media and public opinion | Candidates should consider the consequences for individuals and society of when individuals decide not to be vaccinated. There should be an awareness of the influence of the media. |
| (c) antigens as molecules that are recognised by the immune system; antigen response by some white blood cells, lymphocytes, which secrete antibodies specific to the antigen; the function of antibodies | One type of white blood cell, called a lymphocyte, multiplies to form clones of cells. These secrete antibodies specific to the foreign antigen that is present. Antibodies eventually assist in the destruction of the cells bearing the foreign antigen. |
| (d) vaccines that contain antigens (or parts of antigens) that are derived from disease-causing organisms; protection against infection by vaccines due to stimulating antibody production to protect against bacteria and viruses | Vaccines generally use 'non-active' microorganisms, antigens or parts of antigens to stimulate an immune response (the details of individual vaccines and the detail of vaccine production are not required). |
| (e) memory cells that are produced following natural infection or vaccination that produce specific antibodies very quickly if the same antigen is encountered a second time | The specific response is relatively slow if the body has not previously encountered the relevant antigen. However, antibodies are produced very quickly and in large numbers if the same antigen is encountered a second time. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(f) measles as a condition that most people suffer only once, but flu occurs many times in a lifetime</th>
<th>How occurrence of disease has changed as a result of increased use of vaccinations. The high mutation rate of the influenza virus.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(g) antibiotics, including penicillin, that were originally medicines produced by living organisms, such as fungi; treatment of bacterial disease by antibiotics that kill the infecting bacteria or prevent their growth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|   | (h) resistance resulting from overuse of antibiotics, such as MRSA; effective control measures for MRSA | Some bacteria have become resistant to antibiotics. The use of antibiotics in animal feed, in some countries, could be discussed as well as over-prescription for humans. MRSA control measures could include:  
- hand washing  
- thorough cleaning of hospital wards  
- use of alcohol gels  
- MRSA screening |

**SPECIFIED PRACTICAL WORK**

- Investigation into the effect of antibiotics on bacterial growth
Investigation into the effect of antibiotics on bacterial growth

Introduction

Antimicrobials are agents that are able to kill bacteria or halt their growth. They are widely used in medicine to treat bacterial infections. In this experiment you will test different antimicrobial agents to assess how they affect bacterial growth.

Apparatus

Bunsen burner
1 × pre-prepared agar plate seeded with bacteria
4 × antimicrobial agents, labelled A, B, C and D
4-8 × paper discs (Whatman antibiotic assay paper discs/ or new filter/ chromatography paper cut with a hole punch then sterilised by autoclaving)
sterile forceps
adhesive tape
marker pen
disinfectant solution and cloth

Diagram of Apparatus
Method

1. Wash your hands with the soap or handwash. Wipe down the working area thoroughly with the disinfectant.
2. Work very close to a lit Bunsen burner. Flame the forceps and use them to pick up a filter paper disc and dip the disc into antibiotic A.
3. Allow them to dry for 5 minutes on an open, sterile Petri dish, next to a lit Bunsen burner.
4. Repeat step 3 for antibiotics B, C and D.
5. Use the agar plate that has already been prepared and seeded with bacteria.
6. Turn the dish upside down. Divide the base into four sections by drawing a cross with the marker pen. Label the sections A, B, C, D
7. Flame the forceps and then use them to pick up antibiotic disc A. Raise the lid of the Petri dish at an angle and place the disc onto the agar in the centre of section A.
8. Repeat step 5 for the other 3 discs. Make sure the discs are placed in the centre of each section.
9. Label the agar plate with your name and date. Tape the lid securely. Incubate inverted for 2-3 days at 20-25°C.
10. Observe the plates without opening them.
11. Record the width of the clear zone around each antimicrobial. A piece of squared paper under the agar plate might be helpful here.

Analysis

1. Which antimicrobial agent was the most efficient in your investigation? Give reasons for your answer.
### Risk Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hazard</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Control measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bacteria can be pathogenic</td>
<td>Contracting infection from touching bacteria on open plate</td>
<td>Wash hands after placing discs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seal plate after placing discs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bunsen burner flame and Forceps can burn</td>
<td>Burning skin when sterilising forceps</td>
<td>Care must be taken to keep hands a safe distance away from the flame. Do not touch tip of forceps after flaming</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Detailed instructions are given on the link below.
http://www.nuffieldfoundation.org/practical-biology/investigating-anti-microbial-action

### Making agar and pouring plates

- **a** Calculate the quantity required and prepare just enough agar for the investigation – around 15 cm$^3$ for normal depth in a 90 mm Petri dish. Any surplus will keep for 6-12 months in tightly-sealed screw-top bottles if sterile.
- **b** Weigh out the agar medium powder containing the gel and chosen nutrients, add water and sterilise the mixture for the time, and at the temperature, specified by the manufacturer.
- **c** Heat agar and water at 95 °C to dissolve the agar. Always use a water bath to boil agar, and never add agar to boiling water.
- **d** Stopper flasks with a well-fitting plug of non-absorbent cotton wool. Cover with greaseproof paper or aluminium foil before sterilising by autoclaving.
- **e** After autoclaving, transfer to a water bath to equilibrate at 50 °C. Stack plates after pouring to minimise condensation except in the top plate(s).
- **f** Warm the Petri dishes before pouring to minimise condensation.
- **g** Keep poured plates in a sealed plastic bag until needed to reduce dehydration of the media.
**Making a spread plate**

1. Sterile spreaders are used to distribute inoculum of *Bacillus subtilis* over the surface of prepared agar plates. You can sterilise a wrapped glass spreader in a hot air oven or sterilise by flaming with alcohol.

2. To flame a spreader with alcohol:
   a. Dip the lower end of the spreader into a small volume of alcohol (70% IPA) contained in a vessel with a lid (either a screw cap or aluminium foil) or in a glass (not plastic) Petri dish with a lid. Keep the alcohol container covered and 1 metre away from the Bunsen burner flame.
   b. Pass quickly through a Bunsen burner flame to ignite the alcohol. Ensure the spreader is pointing downwards when and after igniting the alcohol to avoid burning yourself.
   c. Remove the spreader from the flame and allow the alcohol to burn off. The burning alcohol will sterilise the glass.
   d. Do not put the spreader down on the bench.

3. Cotton wool swabs can be used instead of glass spreaders. They may be preferable as they avoid the need for using alcohol as a sterilising agent. Prepare them by rolling small pieces of absorbent cotton wool around one end of a cocktail stick. Wrap individually in aluminium foil or place inside a universal bottle to sterilise in an autoclave or pressure cooker. These sterile swabs can then be dipped into the solution or culture to be transferred, rubbed on the surface of the agar plate, and immediately disposed of into disinfectant. (Note: Cotton buds from a pharmacist are not sterile and may be impregnated with an antimicrobial agent.)

4. Use agar plates with a well-dried surface so that the inoculum dries quickly. Dry the surface of agar plates by incubating for several hours (perhaps overnight) or put them in a hot air oven (at 55-60 °C) for 30-60 minutes with the two halves separated and the inner surfaces directed downwards.

The antibiotics can be bought as ready made discs or solutions can be made from everyday ingredients. Many types of toothpaste contain low concentrations of antimicrobials, and mouthwashes claim plaque-killing potential.

The ten spices with the most potent antibacterial effects are garlic, onion, allspice, oregano, thyme, cinnamon, tarragon, cumin, cloves and lemon grass. Many spices with relatively weak antibacterial effects become much more potent when combined; examples are in chili powder (typically a mixture of red pepper, onion, paprika, garlic, cumin and oregano) and five-spice powder (pepper, cinnamon, anise, fennel and cloves). Lemon and lime juice, while weak inhibitors themselves, also have synergistic effects.

It is also possible to investigate different dilutions of a particular anti-microbial.

Students should be made aware of aseptic techniques before starting the practical activity. It is possible that students can prepare their own pour plates and inoculate them if you wish.
Working scientifically skills covered

1. **Development of scientific thinking**
   Explain every day and technological applications of science: evaluate associated personal, social, economic and environmental implications and make decisions based on the evaluation of evidence and arguments.

2. **Experimental skills and strategies**
   Apply knowledge of a range of techniques, instruments, apparatus and materials to select those appropriate to the experiment.

   Carry out experiments appropriately having due regard to the correct manipulation of apparatus, the accuracy of measurements and health and safety considerations.

   Make and record observations and measurements using a range of apparatus and methods.

3. **Analysis and Evaluation**
   Presenting observations and other data using appropriate methods.

   Interpreting observations and other data, including patterns and trends, making inferences and drawing conclusions.
**2.1 HEALTH, FITNESS AND SPORT -**

**2.1.4 EXERCISE AND FITNESS IN HUMANS**

**Applied Context**
Healthcare scientists working in fields related to exercise and fitness need to understand the organ systems in the body and the need for personal fitness. They need to compare physiological parameters of individuals to assess fitness. Learners can apply their learning in medical and fitness fields.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) the need for energy to do work (muscle contraction)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) the role of the nervous system comprised of the central nervous system (the brain and spinal cord) and the peripheral nervous system in muscle contraction; nerve impulses as electrical signals carried by nerve cells, or neurones</td>
<td>Candidates should be able to recognise and label a diagram of a reflex arc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) action of antagonistic muscles (e.g. biceps and triceps)</td>
<td>Describe the action of antagonistic muscles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) a synovial joint and its parts (cartilage, ligaments, synovial fluid and synovial membrane)</td>
<td>Label a diagram showing a synovial joint (e.g. the knee) and describe the function of cartilage, ligaments, synovial fluid and synovial membrane.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In a synovial joint: • Cartilage – reduces friction • Synovial fluid - lubricates joints • Synovial membrane – produces synovial fluid • Ligaments - join bones to bones • Tendons - join muscles to bone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) disease (limited to osteoarthritis) and injury (e.g. torn ligaments) that can result in limited movement of joints; replacement of badly damaged joints by artificial joints</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) the different types of fractures of bones: simple, compound and green stick</td>
<td>Use of X-ray images to study fracture types would be useful in this section.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g) the locations of a fixed joint (skull), hinge joint (elbow, knee), and ball and socket joint (shoulder, hip)</td>
<td>Know a joint is where bones meet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(h)</td>
<td>distance-time and velocity-time graphs to analyse movement (walking, running, cycling)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i)</td>
<td>mathematical equations to find useful information relating to movement: ( \text{speed} = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time}} ) ( \text{acceleration (or deceleration)} = \frac{\text{change in velocity}}{\text{time}} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(j)</td>
<td>velocity-time graphs to determine acceleration and distance travelled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(k)</td>
<td>structure and function of the human cardiovascular system to include the heart, ventricles, valves, atria, veins, arteries, capillaries and double circulatory system (names of valves not required)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|   | how the structure of blood vessels is related to function (arteries have thick, muscular walls, veins have thinner walls and valves to prevent backflow of blood, capillaries are one cell thick to allow exchange of substances); composition of blood and functions of red blood cells (containing haemoglobin), white blood cells, plasma and platelets | Compare the relative thickness of the blood vessel walls and the size of the lumen in arteries and veins. Veins contain valves.  
Know the difference in function between the main types of blood vessels (arteries, veins and capillaries) and why the purse can be felt at an artery.  
The functions of blood include: red blood cells - contain haemoglobin for transport of oxygen; platelets - clotting; plasma - transport of carbon dioxide, soluble food, urea, hormones and the distribution of heat; white blood cells for defence against disease. (No details of clotting mechanisms or immunity are required here) |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(m)</td>
<td>measurements to monitor pulse rate, breathing rate and recovery time</td>
<td>Opportunity for practical work here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n)</td>
<td>physiological effects of exercise on breathing (short term effects: breathing rate increases to provide the oxygen and remove carbon dioxide. Long term effects: the body becomes more efficient at transporting oxygen)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(o)</td>
<td>physiological effects of exercise on heart rate and recovery time (short term effects: heart rate increases, cardiac output increases. Long term effects: heart muscle strengthened, heart muscle becomes more efficient)</td>
<td>Recovery time gets shorter.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 2.2 CONTROLLING PROCESSES -
### 2.2.1 CONTROLLING CHEMICAL REACTIONS

**Applied Context**
The chemical industry provides many of the chemicals that people need for modern life. The chemical industry today is developing new processes for manufacturing these chemicals more efficiently and with less impact on the environment. This topic explores how the rate of reaction depends upon the conditions of a chemical reaction. It also explores thermal runaway reactions and how these have contributed to a number of serious accidents. Learners can apply their learning in pharmaceutical and chemical fields.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) how the energy stored in a chemical system changes when a reaction occurs resulting in an endothermic reaction (process causing the temperature of the surroundings to decrease) or exothermic reaction (process causing the temperature of surroundings to increase)</td>
<td>They should describe reactions as exothermic/endothermic in terms of the relative amounts of energy required to break bonds and energy released in forming bonds during a reaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) how concentration / pressure, temperature, particle size and surface area affect the reaction rate in terms of collisions between molecules and activation energy</td>
<td>The rate of reaction is increased by increasing temperature, concentration (pressure) and surface area. Appreciate that decreasing solid particle size increases surface area. Understand that particles of reactants must collide in order for a reaction to occur and that the greater the number of collisions in a given time, the faster the reaction/higher the rate. They should explain how changing the concentration, temperature and surface area/particle size affect the collision rate. <strong>Higher tier candidates should be familiar with the idea of 'successful collision' where products are formed.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) how a catalyst changes the rate of a chemical change while remaining chemically unchanged itself in terms of the energy required for a collision to be successful</td>
<td>Candidates are not expected to recall the names of any specific catalysts. They should know that the same catalyst does not work for all reactions and that although the catalyst used in any industrial process is not used up, it does need to be replaced regularly as it is affected by impurities and loses over time. <strong>Higher tier candidates should understand that catalysts increase the rate of a reaction by lowering the minimum energy required for 'successful collisions'</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(d) how to carry out experiments to study how factors affect rate (e.g. using a light sensor and data logger to follow the precipitation of sulfur during the reaction between sodium thiosulfate and hydrochloric acid); data to draw conclusions, and critically evaluate the method of data collection, the quality of the data and to what extent the data supports the conclusion. Recognise that a rate measures a change over a given time. Be familiar with gas collection and mass loss methods of studying rates of reaction such as acids and metals/carbonates, as well as the precipitation reaction of dilute hydrochloric acid and sodium thiosulfate.

(e) the economic and environmental importance of developing new and better catalysts, in terms of increasing yields, preserving raw materials, reducing energy costs etc. Yield is referred to here in its broadest sense i.e. the amount of product that can be made per day/month/year. Consideration of position of equilibrium is well beyond the scope of the specification.

(f) the need to control exothermic reactions which accelerate with an increase in temperature; the danger of thermal runaway in chemical reactions including the definition of a thermal runaway reaction and how thermal runaway reactions can occur; how thermal runaway contributed to disasters such as Texas City disaster (1947) and Bhopal disaster (1984).

SPECIFIED PRACTICAL WORK

- Investigation of the factors that affect rate of a reaction
Investigation of the factors affecting the rate of reaction between dilute hydrochloric acid and sodium thiosulfate

Introduction

Sodium thiosulfate reacts with hydrochloric acid to form a solid precipitate of sulfur. The formation of this precipitate makes the solution become cloudy, and so the rate at which this cloudiness appears can be used as a way to measure the rate of the reaction. The equation for this reaction is as follows:

\[
\text{sodium thiosulfate} + \text{hydrochloric acid} \rightarrow \text{sodium chloride} + \text{water} + \text{sulfur dioxide} + \text{sulfur}
\]

\[
\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3(aq) + 2\text{HCl}(aq) \rightarrow 2\text{NaCl}(aq) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(l) + \text{SO}_2(g) + \text{S(s)}
\]

The rate at which this precipitate forms can be changed by changing the conditions under which the reaction is carried out.

In this experiment you will study the effect of changing the temperature of the sodium thiosulfate solution.

Apparatus

10cm³ measuring cylinder
25cm³ measuring cylinder
250cm³ conical flask
white paper with cross marked on it
stopwatch
1 mol/dm³ hydrochloric acid
thermometer

Access to:
40g/dm³ sodium thiosulfate solution at 5°C
40g/dm³ sodium thiosulfate solution in a waterbath at 60°C
1. Draw a cross on a square of white paper.
2. Measure 25 cm$^3$ of hot sodium thiosulfate using the 25 cm$^3$ measuring cylinder and pour into the conical flask. Record the temperature of the solution.
3. Using the 10 cm$^3$ measuring cylinder, measure out 5 cm$^3$ of the hydrochloric acid.
4. Place the conical flask onto the cross and add the hydrochloric acid. Swirl the flask to mix the contents and at the same time start the stopwatch.
5. Look down at the cross from above the mixture.
6. Stop the stopwatch as soon as the cross disappears.
7. Record the time taken for the cross to disappear.
8. Repeat steps 2 to 7 for different temperatures of sodium thiosulfate, made according to the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Volume of sodium thiosulfate solution at 60°C (cm$^3$)</th>
<th>Volume of sodium thiosulfate solution at 5°C (cm$^3$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Analysis**

1. Plot a graph of the temperature of sodium thiosulfate against the time taken for the cross to disappear.
Risk Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hazard</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Control measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hydrochloric acid is an irritant.</td>
<td>Splashing on to hand/skin/you whilst pouring</td>
<td>Wash off /wear gloves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transfer from hand in to eye when pouring</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sodium thiosulfate is an irritant</td>
<td>Splashing on to hand/skin/you whilst pouring</td>
<td>Wash off/wear gloves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transfer from hand in to eye when pouring</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sulphur dioxide gas produced is an irritant</td>
<td>Inhalation of gas may cause damage/irritation to the lungs</td>
<td>Carry out in a well ventilated space/fume cupboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot liquid can scald/burn</td>
<td>Burns or scalds if the hot sodium thiosulphate is touched</td>
<td>Leave to cool before moving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot apparatus can burn</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The crosses on the paper can be pre-prepared and laminated.

An alternative method can also be followed using the method set out on CLEAPSS card C195. It reduces the volume of reactants used so enabling more sets of equipment to be created.

Reagents

- Hydrochloric acid – Refer to CLEAPSS hazcard 47A
- Sodium thiosulfate – Refer to CLEAPSS hazcard 95A

No repeats have been included in the method, but reproducibility can be checked by comparing results with other groups. As temperatures will vary across groups, the whole class data could be plotted onto one graph.

More able candidates could calculate and plot the rate of the reaction using \( \frac{1}{\text{time (s)}} \).

Students should design their own table, but a suggested table format is shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recorded temperature (°C)</th>
<th>Time taken for cross to disappear (s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. **Experimental skills and strategies**  
Carry out experiments appropriately having due regard to the correct manipulation of apparatus, the accuracy of measurements and health and safety considerations.

3. **Analysis and Evaluation**  
Represent distributions of results and make estimations of uncertainty.

Interpret observations and other data including identifying patterns and trends, making inferences and drawing conclusions.

Evaluate data in terms of accuracy, precision, repeatability and reproducibility and identifying potential sources of random and systematic error.
### Applied Context
Nuclear reactions are used to generate electricity. This topic looks at how we can control a nuclear reaction so that we can generate electricity. It also examines why a small number of accidents have happened and compares the relative risk of generating electricity using nuclear power with other forms of electricity generation. Learners can apply their learning in the fields of electricity generation and health and safety.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spec Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>nuclear fission to include how a uranium nucleus is split by being hit with a neutron releasing energy and neutrons, and the difference of nuclear fusion which occurs in stars and involves two nuclei joining to form a larger nucleus and energy; nuclear symbols of the form $\frac{A}{Z}X$ in the context of nuclear fission and nuclear fusion, and use data to produce and balance nuclear equations. <strong>Producing and balancing nuclear equations for radioactive decay using the symbols $^4\text{He}^{2+}$ or $^4\text{He}^-\alpha$ for the alpha particle and $^0\text{He}^-\beta$ and $^0\text{He}^-\beta$ for the beta particle.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b)</td>
<td>calculations involving the activity and half-life of radioactive materials. <strong>Plot smooth curves of best fit when producing decay curves. Be able to draw suitable horizontal and vertical construction lines onto the decay curve in order to show a clear determination of the half-life. Be able to calculate the activity after a certain number of half-lives, or calculate half-life from given data on changes to activity. Define half-life as the time taken for the number of radioactive nuclei / mass / activity to reduce to one half of its initial value.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c)</td>
<td>how the uncontrolled decay of uranium starts a chain reaction including the idea of an explosion as a chain reaction out of control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d)</td>
<td>how a nuclear reactor is constructed including fuel rods, moderator, control rods, coolant and concrete shields</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e)</td>
<td>how nuclear reactors are kept safe to include using control rods placed in the reactor to control the number of available neutrons and the circulation of coolant to prevent the temperature of the reactor becoming too high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f)</td>
<td>how a failure in following safety protocols and control mechanisms has led to a small number of nuclear accidents (e.g. Three Mile Island, Chernobyl, Fukushima)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g)</td>
<td>the consequences of a nuclear accident to the environment and human health; the relative risks of different methods of power generation to health and the environment (e.g. coal, oil, nuclear)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>