YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 ART - Medium Experiments

**First finish all work started in your last lesson and then do these tasks. Always use the annotation sheet to support your writing.
To be successful on the Art course and achieve a 4 or above all of these taks must be completed and shown to you class teacher.**

Week 1 & 2: Mind Map + Analysis

Week 1: Complete your medium mind map adding texture, studies, examples and images.

Week 2: Complete Pete Monaghan analysis using annotation sheet.

Keywords: Medium, mind map, landscape

Week 3 & 4: Artist Study + Research

Week 3: Write the definitions of foreground and background onto your Erin Hanson page.

Week 4: Complete all Erin Hanson analysis to add to the artist page.

Key Words: Grounds, foreground, background

Week 5 & 6: Artist Study + Opinion

Week 5: Produce a Norman Ackroyd artist study on black or white paper.

Week 6: Write a short paragraph on how Ackroyd makes his prints and the mood he creates.

Key Words: Mood, technique, process, printing, etching, monochrome

Week 7 & 8: Medium Process + Study

Week 7: Write an A4 side with diagrams and illustrations of how to Lino print.

Week 8: Complete an artist study and analysis of Michelle Hughes work.

Keywords: Relief print, Lino print, Cool colours

Week 9 &10: Mark making + Analysis

Week 9: Complete expressive mark making page.

Week 10: Complete Alessia Avellino analysis.

Keywords: Charcoal, persepective, mark making, expression.

Week 11 & 12: Evaluation + Reflection

Week 11: Completion of any outstanding work.

Week 12: Evaluation continued and reflected upon.

Keywords: Development, WWW + EBI, reflection, analysis, opinion.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 BUSINESS

Knowledge Organiser

Unit 3: People

Exam paper help

Human resources: are the people who do the work for a business. They are the employees.

Human resource plan
A plan detailing the workers a business will need i.e. how many, when, full time or part time and the skills they need

Functions
Different types of work that need to be done in a business i.e. Marketing, production and finance

Week one 3:1 The Role of Human Resources

Human resource planning - things for a business to think about

- The number of workers needed
- The number of workers who will work full-time or part-time
- The number who should be employed on zero-hour contracts
- The number of workers to hire as contractors as and when needed
- When workers will be needed - times of the day, days of the week
- Where the workers will work - finance, production, marketing
- The skills the workers will need to have
- The need to manage and supervise some of the workers
- The age, gender, ethnicity of the workers
- How many staff members the business can afford to employ

When might a business need to review its human resource needs?

- Workers may have to be replaced i.e. because they have left, retired or been promoted
- The business may grow or shrink so may need more or fewer workers
- The business may change its method of production so may need more or fewer skilled workers
- The business may decide to relocate so may have to recruit workers who live nearby - they could still take their current workforce
- The budget available for paying staff. If the budget is decreased they will need fewer staff and vice versa
- Changes in the law may affect employment i.e. Minimum wage which will impact on the budget

Week 2 3:2 Organisational Structures

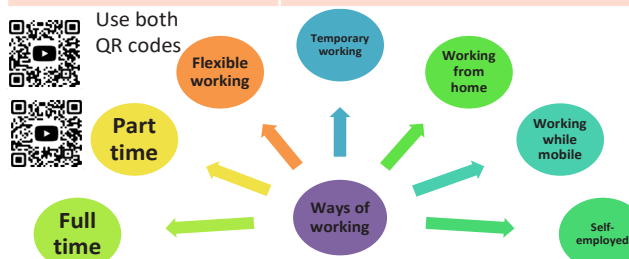There are two different types of organisation structure:

Advantages of a tall structure	Advantages of a flat structure
▪ The span of control is likely to be narrower meaning that he does not have as many people to look after ▪ There will be plenty of opportunities for workers to gain promotion which will motivate them to work harder	▪Lines of communication are clear - communication will be quicker from top to bottom because there is not as many layers ▪ Fewer mistakes in communication will be made because there is fewer levels ▪ People at the bottom may be encouraged to share ideas ▪ Wider span of control means tht managers can delegate work

Use both QR codes

Temporary working

Flexible working

Working from home

Part time

Working while mobile

Ways of working

Full time

Self-employed

Organisation chart
A diagram to show how workers are organised in a business
Authority
The power that one person has to make decisions
Chain of command
The order of authority from top to bottom
Span of control
The number of people a manager is in charge of
Delegation
Giving someone else permission to make a decision

Communication is: the transmission of a message from a sender to a receiver

Written communication
Communication by written words i.e. Text, email, letters
Verbal communication
Communication by speaking i.e.. telephone or meetings
Formal communication
Communication using the official channels within a business
Informal communication
Communication outside the official channels within business

3:3 Communication in Business

	Pros	Cons
Verbal	• Can check for understanding • Can emphasise points through tone and body language • Can use diagrams and pictures to help explain	• If lots of people not all may understand • Receiver may disrupt the message if they don't like it • No permanent record of the message • Some forms can be expensive
Written	• There is a record of the message • Receiver can re-read the message multiple times • Can be sent to multiple people at the same time • Can avoid confrontation	• Can't check immediately if the message was understood • The success depends on the clarity of the message • Risk of computer viruses •Emails could go to spam
Social media	• Huge numbers of users • Info can be updated regularly • Visual images can help explain • Can be cheaper to advertise • Customers can be involved by allowing feedback	• There is a cost in managing and updating the information • Can be difficult to measure the effectiveness of the business' use of social media

Week 4 3:4 Recruitment and Selection

Businesses can recruit internally (from within the business i.e. promote an existing employee) or externally (someone from outside the business)

Methods of advertising

Businesses need to think about the costs of advertising for a job but can use the following:

- Websites
- Social media
- Local newspapers
- National newspapers
- Specialist magazines i.e. horse riding
- Job centres
- Word of mouth

Methods of selection

Business can use a range of methods to select the best candidate:

- Letter of application
- Application form
- CV
- Interviews
- Tests and presentations
- Group activities
- References

Selection
The process of choosing between applicants for a job
Job description
Lists the main duties, tasks and responsibilities of a worker
Person specification
Lists the qualities, qualifications and knowledge that a person should have
Interviews
Sessions where the people making the appointment ask questions of the applicants

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 BUSINESS

Knowledge Organiser

Unit 3: People

Week 5 3:5 Motivation and Retention

Motivation is: how workers are encouraged to work hard.

Retention
When workers choose to stay in a firm rather than move elsewhere.
Productivity
A measure of output per working.
Financial motivation methods
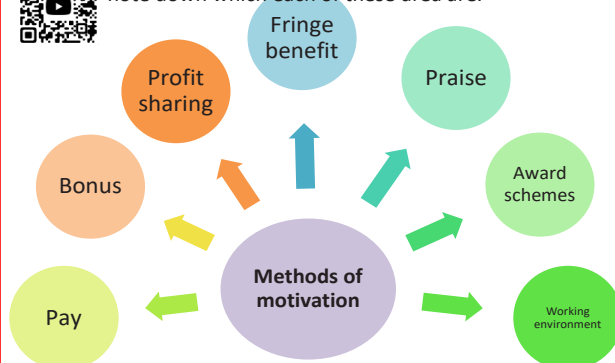*Methods that involve paying workers money.*
Non-financial motivation methods
Methods that do not involve paying money.

If employees are motivated then workers will be efficient in what they do, there will be a low turnover of workers, it will be easier to recruit new workers, less need for supervision and low absenteeism.

2nd HW of the week use the video on the QR code to note down which each of these area are.

Methods of motivation:
- Fringe benefit
- Praise
- Profit sharing
- Award schemes
- Bonus
- Working environment
- Pay

Week 6 3:6 Training and Development

Training is: short term and is focused on helping a worker do his job well.

Development
Long term training focused on helping a worker realise their potential.
On-the-job
Training while working.
Off-the-job
Training away from the job.
Induction training
Training to introduce the worker to the business.

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Induction	▪ Helps workers to settle quickly - get to know colleagues ▪ Worker will be more productive quicker ▪ Health and safety issues reduced	• A lot of information to take in in one day • Costs involved - worker is paid but not producing anything • Costs involved - someone needs to provide the training
On-the-job	▪ Training is individualised to help each worker improve ▪ Cheaper – no travel costs ▪ Still producing products while training	• Trainer may need to stop working to help trainee • Quality might be poor • Quality of training depends on the trainer • No qualifications gained
Off-the-job	▪ Experts can provide training ▪ Workers enjoy the change of environment ▪ Workers feel valued	• More expensive - fees, travel etc • Worker is not producing products when training • Risk of employee leaving once trained

Week 7 3:7 Employment Law

Employment law is: designed to protect workers from employers who may treat them unfairly.

Discrimination
When one worker is treated differently from another for no acceptable reason.
Contract of employment
A legal agreement between an employer and an employee.
Holiday entitlement
The amount of paid holiday a worker can have in one year.

The **Equality Act 2010** brought together 116 pieces of legislation into one single Act which is designed to protect the rights of workers.

Discrimination
- Equal pay
- Race
- Sex
- Disability
- Sexual orientation
- Religion or belief

All workers are entitled to have 5.6 weeks holiday each year paid.

No. days worked per week x 5.6 = holiday entitlement

Working Time Directive:
Controls how many hours a worker can work each week. Over a 17-week period a worker cannot work more than 48 hours on average.
Number of hours worked
17
= average number of hours per week

Health and safety at work 1974 – hard hats/ trip hazards etc. Could be sued if not done.

Week 8 Non Financial motivation

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Praise	▪Thanks in public or Privately email and cards or in meetings ▪Makes people feel valued or make people work harder to get that recognition. ▪Free to give / good for all	• You can miss people out, if no money its attached you may feel under valued
Awards Scheme	▪Given Voucher of time off or just a certificate ▪Makes them feel valued and part of a team, people have noticed them.	• Could be costly. People who miss out could become upset and less motivated.
Working environment	▪Making the work place and nice place to be in. they want to be in that space. Sending them on team building events and people kind and supportive.	• Could be costly. The building could limit them and what they can do. May have to buy furniture etc.

Possible questions
1. State one item contained in a job description.
2. Explain two ways a business could motivate its employees.
3. Analyse one method of training a business could use.
4. Recommend one type of training a business could use for a new employee.
5. Evaluate the most effective method of selection.

State   Explain   Analyse   Recommend   Evaluate *how >*

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 GCSE CITIZENSHIP - Section 1.2 - The Law

WEEK 1	WEEK 2	WEEK 3	WEEK 4	WEEK 5
Key terms and concepts **Civil law:** Deals with disputes between individuals or companies. **Common law:** The part of the law that is based on customs and previous judgements. **Criminal law:** Deals with activities which go against the laws of the country. **Crown Prosecution Service:** The body which examines the police investigation into a crime and decides if there is enough evidence to prosecute the suspect. **Equality before the law:** The law should treat all people the same regardless of factors such as social status. **Fairness:** The law should be applied equally to all people. **Judge-made law / Precedent:** A law has been developed through the rulings of judges in the past. **Justice:** Bringing about what is right according to the law. **Legal jurisdiction:** An area covered by a particular legal system. **Legislation:** Laws that have been passed by Parliament. **Presumption of innocence:** The legal principle that a suspect is innocent until proved guilty.	**Why laws exist** **Purpose 1. Protecting safety:** Many laws exist to protect people and their possessions; this is why murder, burglary, etc. are criminal offences. Committing these crimes goes against the victims' rights to life, security and possessions. Other laws, such as Health and Safety laws, exist to keep people safe at home, work or in a public place. **Purpose 2. Protecting rights and promoting freedoms and equalities:** The aim of human rights law is to ensure that everyone is treated fairly, regardless of age, race, gender, etc. and to safeguard people against discrimination, (unfair treatment). In the UK, rights are protected by the 1998 Human Rights Act and by the 2010 Equality Act. **Core purpose 3. Settling disputes:** This is the main function of civil law. When two parties disagree about money, property or an issue to do with employment or family matters, judges will examine the evidence and make a decision about who is right or wrong. In principle, the judge's decision is final, and both parties must accept the ruling.	**The 2010 Equality Act** This law identified nine **protected characteristics**, and made it unlawful to. **discriminate**, (directly or indirectly), against someone on the grounds of one, or more, of these. These characteristics are: 1. Race and ethnicity 2. Pregnancy and maternity 3. Age 4. Disability 5. Sexual orientation 6. Gender reassignment 7. Gender 8. Religion or belief 9. Marriage and civil partnership It is not discrimination if someone is denied a job based on their age or a disability if this characteristic means that they physically cannot do the job effectively or safely. The Act also protects people with a protected characteristic from **harassment**, and **victimisation**, (being treated unfairly because they have complained about being discriminated against). It is also an offence to harass or victimise someone who has supported the victim of discrimination.	**The presumption of innocence** A fundamental principle in the English legal system is the **presumption of innocence** or, as it is more commonly known, **'innocent until proven guilty'**. If a person is charged with a crime, they do not have to prove that they did not do it. Rather the **Crown Prosecution Service** has to prove **beyond reasonable doubt** that the defendant did commit the crime. In legal terms, it means that the **burden of proof** is on the **prosecution** but it does not mean that the prosecution has to prove 100% that the **defendant** is guilty, (in most cases it would be extremely difficult to do this). In most civil cases, the **claimant** (the person making the claim) has to prove their case that the **defendant** has wronged them in some way. The **standard of proof** is known as the **balance of probabilities**. If the judge thinks that 'it is more likely than not' that the defendant has done wrong, he or she will find in favour of the claimant and the defendant will probably have to pay compensation.	**Criminal law** Criminal law relates to offences that negatively affect **society** as a whole, rather than just one person. This area of the law outlines what **Parliament** and **judges** deem to be acceptable, (and unacceptable), conduct in the UK. There are also offences which can be committed by a British **citizen** abroad, but then prosecuted under British law in England and Wales. If a person breaks a law they're subject to **prosecution** by the **state**. Criminal proceedings will usually be brought by the **Crown Prosecution Service**, **(CPS)**, and will be heard in a **Magistrates' Court** or the **Crown Court**. **Private prosecutions** can be brought by parties who have a specific interest in the case such as the RSPCA or Royal Mail. If convicted, the offender will receive the **penalty** laid out in the relevant **legislation** and **sentencing guidelines**, usually in the form of fines, prison sentences or community orders. In order to be found guilty of a criminal offence, the person must be **proven guilty beyond reasonable doubt**.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 GCSE CITIZENSHIP - Section 1.2 - The Law

WEEK 6	WEEK 7	WEEK 8	WEEK 9	WEEK 10
Civil law Civil law is concerned with the rights and property of people or organisations, which may not always be protected by criminal laws. Civil law settles **disputes** between individuals and/or organisations, and it often involves **compensation** being awarded. Examples of civil law cases include: • **Family disputes**, such as divorce, children's issues and childcare arrangements • **Personal injury cases**, such as road traffic accidents, medical and clinical negligence and slips, trips and falls • **Breach of contract or promise**, such as cases where money is unpaid or a contract isn't honoured • **Employment law**, for example where an employee suffers discrimination Civil law cases often hinge on establishing whether the accused organisation or person, legally known as the **defendant**, had a **duty of care** towards the **claimant**.	**Differences between criminal and civil law** Criminal law seeks to punish for an offence. Civil law seeks to achieve a remedy, e.g. compensation, for the injured party. Other important distinctions include: • Criminal law aims to deter offenders and others in society from offending • Criminal law aims to maintain the stability of the state and society. Civil law aims to deal with disputes • Civil law cases are filed by private parties, while criminal cases are usually filed by the government • The decision of the court in a criminal case is guilty or not guilty. In a civil court, it is liable or not liable • The outcome of civil cases where one party is found liable is usually the awarding of compensation, while for criminal cases it's conviction, and punishment for someone found guilty • When it comes to appeals, either party can appeal in a civil case. In a criminal case, only the defendant can appeal the decision	**Sources of law** English law is **uncodified**. This means that there is not one set of law books that cover all crimes and which judges can refer to when passing sentences, etc. Instead, English laws have developed over many centuries from four main sources: **Source 1. Common law** In medieval times, law was based on judges' decisions about what was right and wrong which were based on England's **beliefs** and **traditions**. These rulings were written down and then used by other judges. This gradually established **legal precedent**, and law became 'common' or recognized by everyone. Murder is an example of a common law. **Source 2: Case law (precedent or judge-made law)** Precedent is a very important feature of English law. Judges still follow the decisions made by more senior or equal-ranking judges in previous cases. Sometimes senior judges may rule that past decisions are no longer relevant. They may reinterpret the law to bring it up-to-date and set a new precedent for others to follow.	**Sources of law** **Source 3: Parliamentary legislation** Most new laws in England and Wales are proposed by the Government and voted into law by Parliament. These laws are known as **statute laws**. Sometimes new laws are proposed by individual MPs such as the Assisted Dying Bill. The **Bill** (proposed law) was defeated and so did not become an **Act** (approved / passed law). **Source 4: European and International law** • When a country joins the **European Union, (EU)**, it makes many EU laws part of its national laws • The UK is also part of the **Council of Europe** which upholds rights across Europe. The UK's Human Rights Act is based on the European Convention on Human Rights • Member countries of the **United Nations, (UN),** are morally, if not legally, bound by a range of international laws and treaties • The **World Trade Organisation** sets rules relating to trade between countries	**English law** • English law is the **common law** legal system governing England and Wales, comprising criminal law and civil law. • English law has no formal **codification** (i.e. no formal legal code or law book). • English common law is made by judges sitting in courts applying **statute**, (laws passed by Parliament and written down), and legal **precedent**, (decisions made in previous cases). • A decision of the **Supreme Court** of the United Kingdom, the highest criminal and civil appeal court of the UK, is binding on every other court. • For most civil cases, the court system is headed by the **High Court of Justice**, and, for criminal cases, the **Crown Court**. • Other less senior courts are **county courts**, (civil law cases), and **magistrates' courts**, (criminal law cases). Common law can be **amended** (changed) or **repealed** (removed) by Parliament. E.g. murder now carries a mandatory life sentence rather than the death penalty.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 COMPUTER SCIENCE

Week 1 – Forms of attack

Malware is malicious software that is designed to hack a system.
Phishing emails try to trick users to get personal details.
Social engineering is tricking people into giving PINS, passwords etc.
A **brute force attack** Repeatedly tries different usernames / passwords
Denial of Service (DoS) is where a computer is used to prevent a server from performing tasks.
Data interception and theft is where data is intercepted during transmission.

Week 2 – Threat and vulnerabilities

Penetration testing, systems are tested for vulnerabilities to reveal any weaknesses.
Anti-malware software Detects, prevents & removes malware.
User access levels - permission given to a user to access facilities on a computer
Passwords - characters for user authentication to secure access
Encryption alters files using a secret code and are unreadable to unauthorised parties.

Week 3 – Operating Systems

The **user interface** enables the user to interact with the computer
Memory management transfers programs in and out of memory.
Multitasking allows multiple applications to run at the same time.
Peripheral management opens, closes and writes to peripheral devices.
User management is the Allocation of an account, access rights and security.
File management is naming , allocating folders, and moving files and saving.

Week 4 – Utility software

Computers often come with **utility software** that perform housekeeping tasks.
Encryption software can encrypt data when it is stored, or whenever it is transmitted over a network.
Defragmentation software takes the fragmented files and rearranges the segments.
Data compression is the method computers use to make files smaller by reducing the number of bits.

Week 5 – Ethics

Computer ethics are a set of moral standards that govern the use of computers.

Legal issues - computer use has brought new concerns and new crimes.

Environmental issues are those where the manufacturing and use of computers has had a negative impact on the environment..

Week 6 – Cultural issues

'**Cultural issues**' is the term used for computer matters that influence the nature and culture of society.
Some of issues include:
- The digital divide
- The changing nature of employment.

Privacy issues – computing provides many benefits, but it also infringes people's right to privacy. Once data is put into a computer it can easily be copied or transmitted.

Week 7 –Legislation

The **Data Protection Act** (DPA) is a law designed to protect personal data stored on computers or in an organised paper filing system.
The **Computer Misuse Act 1990** makes it an offence to: access computer material without permission
The **Copyright Designs and Patents Act (1988)** gives creators of digital media the rights to control how their work is used and distributed.

Week 8– Software

Proprietary software (sometimes referred to as closed source software) is software that legally remains the property of the organisation, group, or individual who created it.

Open source software is free and openly available to everyone. People who create open source products publish the code and allow others to use and modify it.

Week 9 – Programming - Pseudocode

Selection
e.g. IF statements or Select Case
if choice = "a" then
print("you selected a")
elseif choice = "b" then
print("you selected b")
else print("that wasn't a choice!")

Select Case
Case "a" print("you selected a")
Case "b" print("you selected b")
Case else print("that wasn't a choice!")

Week 10 – Programming - Flowcharts

Symbol	Name
	Start/end
→	Arrows
	Input/Output
	Process
	Decision

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 DRAMA - Physical Theatre and Forum Theatre

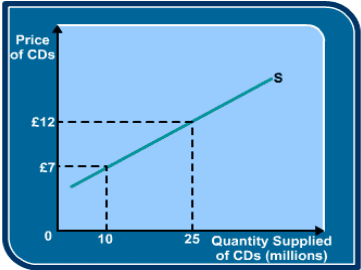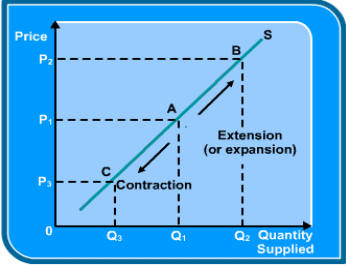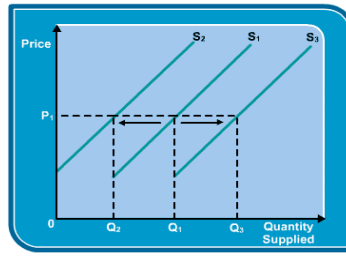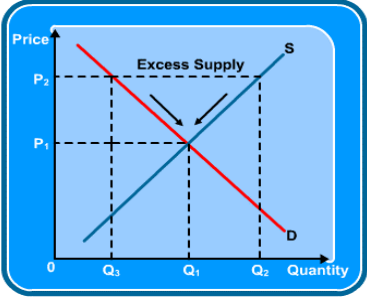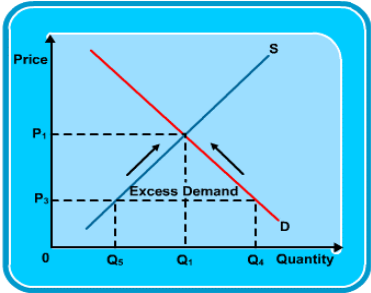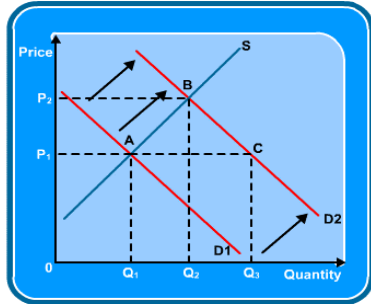| Week 1 and 2	Week 3 and 6	Week 4 and 7	Week 5 and 8	Week 9 and 10

Physical Theatre
Physical Theatre is a form of acting that tells a story through the way the bodies are positioned and the way they move forming different shapes. Physical theatre uses our bodies for our effects rather than using props, scenery, or even sound effects at times.
It can include dance-theatre, movement theatre, clown, puppetry, mime, mask, vaudeville and circus.
Vaudeville – A light, often comic theatrical piece often combining pantomime, dialogue, dancing and song.
Physical Theatre Companies
Complicite - World renowned led by Simon McBurney.
Kneehigh - From Cornwall vaudeville/masks DV8 – very physical-almost dance Gecko – international – from Ipswich.
Frantic Assembly – Chair duets/lifts.

Frantic Assembly
- Formed in **1994** by Scott Graham, Steven Hoggett, and Vicki Middleton, three students from Swansea University.
Physical style combines movement, design, music and text.
- Chair duets
- Attention to detail
- Explosive
- Lifts
Key plays:
Othello
Lovesong
The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Nightime.

Key Words
Physical Theatre
Vaudeville
Complicite
Dictatorship
Theatre of the Oppressed
Forum Theatre
Spect-actors
Image Theatre
Invisible Theatre
Chair Duets
Explosive

Augusto Boal
Augusto Boal experimented with theatre while in his homeland of Brazil, which at the time was under a *dictatorship*.
After seven years of life under this military regime, Boal's ideas were considered too much of a threat, and he was arrested and tortured in 1971.
He spent five years in exile, in Argentina. Whilst there, he published one book on the use of torture in prisons, and also his most famous work – **Theatre of the Oppressed.**
Boal also lived and worked in Paris, France, where he set up a number of centres for his work before returning to Brazil in 1986, when the dictatorship had ended.
In 1992, as a theatrical act, Boal ran for city councillor in Rio de Janeiro. He was elected, but his tactics were not appreciated by other politicians. Only 13 of his 40 proposed laws were passed.

In 2008, Boal was nominated for the Nobel Peace Prize, a year before he died, having lost his battle with leukaemia.

Theatre Styles associated with Boal
Forum Theatre is defined by the involvement of **spect-actors** – audience members who become very much a part of the performance.

Image Theatre
- Short scenes of a 1-2 minutes.
- Each scene has an easily understood strong image that the audience see as relevant to THEIR lives.
- Audience sculpt their bodies or those of others to demonstrate the situation/emotion/idea.
- Move to a group to reform the image – this to be spontaneous.

Invisible Theatre
- Rehearsed play is performed in a public space.
- Public don't realise it is a play.
- Deals with a precise theme e.g. (sexism/racism/ageism).
- To provoke debate.
- Scripted core but some improvisation.
- Core of actors as oppressed and oppressors BUT some actors pretending to be passers by – give contrasting views.
- Could often draw violence from the authorities.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 GCSE ECONOMICS - Unit 2: 2.3 Supply

Week 1: Key terms	Week 2: Supply and the supply curve	Week 3: Supply curve, shifts and movements and the causes and effects of these	Week 4: Price elasticity of supply (PES)	Week 5: Factors affecting the value of Price Elasticity of Supply (PES)
Law of supply: For most products, as the price rises so does the amount firms produce **Supply:** The ability and willingness of firms to provide goods and services at each price in a set time period **Individual supply:** The supply of a good or service by an individual producer **Market supply:** The total supply of a good or service – found by adding together all the individual supplies **Movement along the supply curve:** When the price changes there will be movement up (expansion) or down (contraction) the supply curve **Shift of the supply curve:** A move of the whole supply curve to the right or left, caused by non-price factors **Price Elasticity of Supply (PES):** The responsiveness of quantity supplied to a change in the price of the product **Elastic supply:** When the percentage change in quantity supplied is greater than the percentage change in price **Inelastic supply:** When the percentage change in quantity supplied is less than the percentage change in price	**The theory of supply** Supply is the willingness and ability of producers to supply goods and services to a market at a given price in a given period of time. In theory, at higher prices a larger quantity will generally be supplied than at lower prices. Basically, the producer will make higher profits as the price per unit sold increases. **Factors affecting supply** There are many things that affect supply as well as the price of the good in question. Nearly all of these factors affect the firms' costs: • Prices of other factors of production, e.g. raw materials • Technology • Indirect taxes and subsidies • Labour productivity • Price expectations • Entry and exit of firms to and from an industry	**Movements along a supply curve** A movement along a supply curve **only occurs** when the price changes. The diagram below shows that a price rise will cause an **extension** up the supply curve, (A to B), whilst a price fall will cause a **contraction** down the supply curve, (A to C). **Shifts of a supply curve** Supply curves shift, at all prices, if there is a change in one or more of the factors which affect supply. Put simply, if a firm's costs **increase** the firm's supply curve will shift to the **left**. If the costs fall the firm's supply curve shifts to the **right**, (see below)	If PES is **perfectly inelastic** (PES = 0) the supply curve is vertical so the amount supplied will be the same, whatever happens to the price. If PES is **relatively inelastic** (0 < PES < 1) a rise in price of e.g. 10% will result in a **smaller** rise in the amount supplied, e.g. 5%. Similarly a fall in price will lead to a smaller fall in the amount supplied. If PES is **unitary elastic** (PES = 1) a rise in price of e.g. 10% will result in an **equal** rise in the amount supplied, i.e. 10%. Similarly a fall in price will lead to a proportional fall in the amount supplied. If PES is **relatively elastic** (1 < PES < ∞) a rise in price of e.g. 5% will result in a **larger** rise in the amount supplied, e.g. 10%. Similarly a fall in price will lead to a larger fall in the amount supplied. If PES is **perfectly elastic** (PES = ∞) the supply curve is horizontal so, in theory, firms can supply as much as they want to at one price, but if price changes (either up or down), the quantity supplied will fall to zero.	**Does the industry have spare capacity?** If yes, a firm can respond quickly to a change in price and so supply will be relatively **elastic**. If not, the opposite will be true. **Can the product be stored?** If yes, a firm can store the stock and can respond quickly to a rise **or** a fall in price by simply running down or piling up its stocks. In this case supply would be relatively **elastic**. **How long is the production process?** The shorter the production period the more **elastic** supply will be as, again, the firm in question can respond more quickly to a change in the price level. **What is the time period under consideration?** In a momentary (immediate) time frame, supply is **perfectly inelastic** because all factors of production are fixed. In the short run, supply is **relatively inelastic** as some factors of production are variable; but others are fixed. In the long run, all factors of production are variable, so the firm can respond easily to a price change, so supply is **relatively elastic.**

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 GCSE ECONOMICS - Unit 2: 2.4 Price

Week 6: Key terms	Week 7: Price and the equilibrium price and quantity	Week 8: Price and the equilibrium price and quantity	Week 9: Interaction of demand and supply and the determination of price	Week 10: The role of markets and market forces

Week 6: Key terms

Price: The sum of money paid for a good or service. It is set by the interaction of supply and demand

Efficiency: The optimal production and distribution of scarce resources

Equilibrium price and quantity: Where the quantity supplied exactly matches the quantity demanded

Scarce resources: When there is an insufficient amount of something to meet all the demand (wants) for it

Allocation of resources: How scarce resources are distributed among producers, and how scarce goods and services are allocated among consumers

Determination of price: The interaction of the market forces of demand and supply to establish the general level of price for a good or service

Market forces: Factors that influence price levels and the availability of goods and services in an economy free from government intervention

Week 7: Price and the equilibrium price and quantity

In a **market** system, price will adjust until supply equals demand, at which point we have the **equilibrium price**.

A market is only in equilibrium when supply equals demand, which is where the two curves cross.

In the diagram above, at P_2 demand is quite low (Q_3) but firms wish to supply quite a lot (Q_2). We have **excess supply** equal to Q_2 - Q_3.

Firms find that they have a glut of unsold goods. They respond by lowering the price until they can sell off their excess stock.

Applying this to the diagram, the price would fall until there is no more excess supply. This occurs where supply equals demand, price P_1, quantity Q_1.

Week 8: Price and the equilibrium price and quantity

If price is P_3 there is a situation when the price is relatively low, so the demand for the product (Q_4) is much higher than the amount firms wish to supply (Q_5). We have **excess demand** equal to Q_4 - Q_5.

Firms find that they sell their stock very easily and there are customers queuing at the door wanting more! This time they would respond by raising the price knowing people will still buy it. This continues until there are no longer people queueing outside the door and the demand for the product matches the amount being supplied.

Again, this will occur where supply equals demand, price P_1, quantity Q_1.

Week 9: Interaction of demand and supply and the determination of price

The original equilibrium price is P_1, and quantity Q_1. If one of the factors affecting demand changes, e.g. an increase in advertising in the industry there will be a shift of the demand curve to the right, (D_2).

The price will not stay at P_1 for much longer.

There is an **excess demand** situation (A to C). This will cause the price to be increase, and this will keep going until the new equilibrium price is reached, where the new demand curve crosses the supply curve (at point B).

Note that there has been a shift in the demand curve, but only a **movement along** the supply curve. None of the factors that affect supply have changed.

Week 10: The role of markets and market forces

1. The role of markets in the determination of price
Markets bring together buyers (those who demand products) and sellers (those who supply products). The purpose of a market is to set a price that is acceptable to both the buyer and the seller.

2. The role of markets in the allocation of resources
In a market system, the allocation of resources is determined by prices. They distribute scarce resources among producers and set how the resulting goods and services are allocated among consumers.

3. The role of market forces in determining equilibrium price and quantity
Market forces are those that determine price levels and the availability of goods and services in an economy without any government intervention.

Market forces push prices **up** when either **demand rises** or **supply falls**. Similarly, they push prices **down** when **demand decreases** or s**upply increases**.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 HEALTH AND SOCIAL CARE: Component 2 Health & Social Care Services and Values

Learning Aim A: Understand the different types of health and social care services and barriers to accessing them

Providing good health and social care services is very important and a set of 'care values' exist to ensure this happens. Care values are important because they enable people to get the care they need and to be protected from different sorts of harm.

A1 Health and social care services

WEEK 1-2: Health care services

1. Primary care- first point of contact you have with the National Health Service (NHS) when unwell or need advice **e.g. Dental care & doctors.**
2. Secondary & tertiary care- You may need more care than a primary service can offer. Seeing a specialist for treatment is known as secondary care. Further advanced treatment is tertiary care **e.g. specialist medical care such as cardiology.**
3. Allied health professionals- These professionals work in a range of specialities. They support individuals experiencing both mental and physical health problems. **e.g. physiotherapy, occupational therapy, speech and language therapy.**

WEEK 3-4: Social care services

1. Services for children and young people- Support may not be given at home due reasons like family illness or relationship problems, so these services help **e.g. foster care, residential care, youth work.**
2. Services for adults or children with specific needs- Where adults with specific needs such as learning disabilities or sensory impairments may need support **e.g. residential care, respite care, domiciliary care.**
3. Services for older adults- Our bodies function less effectively as we age and we may need help **e.g. residential care, domiciliary care.**
4. Role of informal social care provided by relatives- Not all carers are paid for what they do. Some people volunteer to help others **e.g. friends and neighbours.**

A2 Barriers to accessing services

WEEK 5-6: Overcoming barriers

Barrier	How to overcome barriers
Physical	Using support aids/ Lifts & access ramps / Use services at quieter times/ inform services
Sensory	Provide information in large print/ use effective communication
Social, cultural & psychological	Have friends or family accompany the service user/ Share cultural beliefs
Language	Use an professional interpreter/ information given in own language
Geographical	Use of public or private transport/ use of hospital or voluntary transport schemes
Intellectual	Use effective communication/ Use of family, friend, carer for support
Resource	Service providers should; organise staff skills/ set up appointment reminders/ send all information to patients before appointments
Financial	Health care certificates/ prepaid health care plans/ Claim benefits

Learning Aim B: Demonstrate care values and review own practice

B1 Care values

WEEK 7-8: Care Values – These are a set of rules that must be followed to ensure high quality care

1. Empowering and promoting independence by involving individuals, where possible, in making choices.
2. Respect for the individual by respecting service users' need, beliefs and identity.
3. Maintaining confidentiality by keeping personal information on a need to know basis.
4. Preserving dignity of individuals to help them maintain privacy and self-respect.
5. Effective communication that displays empathy and warmth.
6. Safeguarding and duty of care by protecting individuals for abuse and harm.
7. Promoting anti-discriminatory practice by being aware of types of unfair discrimination and avoiding discriminatory behaviour.

B2 Reviewing own application of care values

WEEK 9-10: Review of care values application – Assignment 2B

1. **Key aspects of a review**
   - Identifying own strengths and areas for improvement against the care values.
   - Receiving feedback from teacher or service user about own performance.
   - Responding to feedback and identifying ways to improve own performance.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 MUSIC - Music Performance

Music Performance

Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5
Preparing to Perform **Picking a piece to perform** Making a decision about what you are actually going to perform is often the hardest part of preparing a performance. When picking a piece of music it is important to think about three key things: 1) **Do I enjoy this piece of music?** You are going to be rehearsing this piece of music a lot. Make sure it is something that you like enough that you are not going to get sick off. **2) Does this piece of music challenge me?** There is no use in picking a piece of music that you can play note perfectly on the first run through. Instead picking something that poses a few challenges will help you develop your skills and, in the end, produce a more rounded performance. **3) Does this piece of music allow me to show of my instrument and skills?** Make sure that what you are picking highlights how well you are able to perform and the instrument that you are performing on.	**Accuracy** **What is accuracy?** Accuracy is how 'right' you are able to perform a piece of music. That means playing the right notes, in the right order, counting all the rhythms and rests correctly and ensuring any additional articulation is performed. **Why is accuracy important?** Accuracy is important as it shows the level of understanding you have of a piece of music that you are performing. An accurate performance is a well-rehearsed performance. It shows that you have put the work in to create something to the highest possible standard that you can. **How can you measure accuracy?** One way in which you can assess the accuracy of your performance is to compare it to recordings of other people performing the same piece of music. That doesn't mean you have to copy it exactly – but you can make sure that the fundamental elements are all there **How do you improve accuracy?** Improving accuracy is something that takes time and hard work. Practice a piece is small sections, working through passages that you find difficult and practicing slowly before speeding up are good ways of improving accuracy.	**Technique** **What is technique?** Technique is how you perform your chosen instrument. Are your hands in the right position? Are you sat in the right position? etc. **Why is technique important?** Proper technique improves the quality of the sound that you are able to produce on your instrument. Poor technique will also limit the difficulty of the pieces that you are able to perform. How can you recognise good or bad technique and how do you improve it? The easiest way to keep track of technique and improve it is to have lessons on your instrument of choice. The specialist teacher will be able to tell you what you are doing right, what you can improve and how to improve it. While it is not possible for everyone to have music lessons there are other ways in which you can keep track of and improve your technique. There are hundreds of useful instructional videos on YouTube that you can use (just check how professional they seem first!) Videoing yourself is another good way to see where improvements could be made.	**Expression** **What is expression?** Expression is the difference between a good piece of music and a great piece of music. It is all the additional bits that are added to the performance that aren't necessarily on the page; Dynamics, Phrasing, Articulation etc. **Why is expression important?** Expression is what make music sound human – without it a performance can sound somewhat robotic. It is also what make each performance unique. Every performer will put different expression into their performance that makes it uniquely theirs. **How can I show expression within a piece of music?** Dynamics – Louds and Softs are one of the easiest ways to add dynamics into a piece of music. Phrasing – Listening carefully to what you are playing and where emphasis should be put. **What can I do to improve the expression that I am including?** Listen to different recordings of that piece of music. How are other performers interpreting that passages? Would you do the same of something different? From there you can decide what you want to do with the expression that suits you.	**Performance** **Communication** Face your Audience. Make sure that you are in clear view of your audience at all time. **Clear beginning and ending.** Even when you are performing on your own it is important that your piece has a definitive beginning and ending. If mistakes happen – carry on! Even professional musicians make the occasional mistake. If it does happen, do not draw attention to it and keep going. Chances are the audience won't even notice. **Keep professional** Even if you are performing in front of your friends make sure that you are behaving in a way that you would if you were on stage. It gets you used to being in that environment. **Be prepared** Make sure that you have practiced your piece and have everything that you need ready for a performance.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 MUSIC - Music Composition and Production

Music Composition and Production

Week 6	Week 7	Week 8	Week 9	Week 10

Week 6

Composition
Composing music is the process of writing it yourself form scratch. The chord sequence, the melody, the bass line, the drum part and any additional elements that you might want to include in a piece of music.

It may also involve writing your own lyrics and making sure that these fit with the musical backing that you have created.

Production
Music Production is the process of developing, creating and refining recorded music for public presentation. It involves processes such as mixing, mastering, recording and sound design.

DAW
Both Composers and Producers use Digital Audio Workstations – software that allows the user to create music from the composition stage and produce it to a point where it is ready for release.

Week 7

Chord Sequences
A collection of different chords in a pattern that provide the bulk of the harmony.

I-V-vi-IV is one of the most common chord sequences used in music of all styles.

Use the tables below to help you choose suitable chords in each key:

Chords In All Major Keys

Major Keys	I	ii	iii	IV	V	vi	vii°
C	C	Dm	Em	F	G	Am	B°
C#	C#	D#m	E#m	F#	G#	A#m	B#°
Db	Db	Ebm	Fm	Gb	Ab	Bbm	C°
D	D	Em	F#m	G	A	Bm	C#°
Eb	Eb	Fm	Gm	Ab	Bb	Cm	D°
E	E	F#m	G#m	A	B	C#m	D#°
F	F	Gm	Am	Bb	C	Dm	E°
F#	F#	G#m	A#m	B	C#	D#m	E#°
Gb	Gb	Abm	Bbm	Cb	Db	Ebm	F°
G	G	Am	Bm	C	D	Em	F#°
Ab	Ab	Bbm	Cm	Db	Eb	Fm	G°
A	A	Bm	C#m	D	E	F#m	G#°
Bb	Bb	Cm	Dm	Eb	F	Gm	A°
B	B	C#m	D#m	E	F#	G#m	A#°

Chords In All Minor Keys

Minor Keys	i	ii°	III	iv	v	VI	VII
Cm	Cm	D°	Eb	Fm	Gm	Ab	Bb
C#m	C#m	D#°	E	F#m	G#m	A	B
Dm	Dm	E°	F	Gm	Am	Bb	C
D#m	D#m	E#°	F#	G#m	A#m	B	C#
Ebm	Ebm	F°	Gb	Abm	Bbm	Cb	Db
Em	Em	F#°	G	Am	Bm	C	D
Fm	Fm	G°	Ab	Bbm	Cm	Db	Eb
F#m	F#m	G#°	A	Bm	C#m	D	E
Gm	Gm	A°	Bb	Cm	Dm	Eb	F
G#m	G#m	A#°	B	C#m	D#m	E	F#
Abm	Abm	Bb°	Cb	Dbm	Ebm	Fb	Gb
Am	Am	B°	C	Dm	Em	F	G
A#m	A#m	B#°	C#	D#m	E#m	F#	G#
Bbm	Bbm	C°	Db	Ebm	Fm	Gb	Ab
Bm	Bm	C#°	D	Em	F#m	G	A

Week 8

Bass Line
The bass line usually follows a similar pattern to the chord sequence.

It will use key notes heard in each chord as well as passing notes to add interest.

Drums
Often considered to be the back bone of a piece of music. The style in which you compose your drum beat will help to define the style and mood of the whole song.

Structure
Binary Form: Two contrasting sections – A B
Ternary Form: Two contrasting sections with the first section returning – A B A
Rondo Form: Recurring A section with contrasting sections that are different form one another in between – A B A C A D A
Strophic Form: Verse-Chorus structure commonly heard in popular music. Intro and outro often included as well as Bridge which is often an instrumental section with different musical material from the other sections.

Week 9

Melody
Writing a melody is often the hardest part of composing a piece of music. A good starting place is to use the notes heard within the chord that is playing at the time and build from there.

Rhythm
Rhythms within a melody should be varied yet feel cohesive. Too repetitive and the listener will get bored, too complicated and it becomes hard to follow.

Think about composing two contrasting melodies for your composition and having them interact in different ways – similar to what you would hear in the verse and chorus of a pop song.

Passing Notes: Notes that sit in between the notes that are found in the chord.

Conjunct: Melody that moves in steps in a smooth and connected way.

Disjunct: Melody that moves in bigger leaps in a disjointed manner.

Week 10

Recording
Recording can be done in several different ways. Live instruments can be played and recorded by a microphone or by plugging directly into a DAW.
Midi instruments, such as keyboards, can also be used to record sounds. These sounds can then be manipulated to sound like any other instrument.

Mixing
Mixing is the process of making sure that all of the individual tracks work together to create a whole. This can be adjusting volume levels, effects used and adding panning to improve the experience for the listener.

Mastering
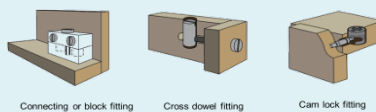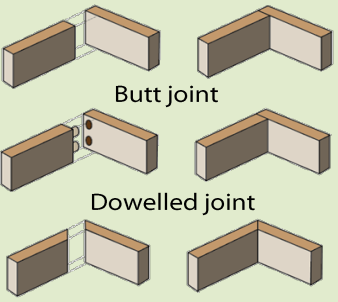Mastering is often the final stage in the production process when the song in optimised for playback.

Sound Design
Sound design is a process undertaken to make sure that the textures and timbres of the individual tracks all work together and suit the vision of the end product.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 DESIGN TECHNOLOGY - Product Design

Year 9 Design Technology Cycle Two	**Provenance** The place or origin of timber	**Standardisation** The process of making timber conform to a standard unit of size	**Enhancing** To improve the working property or aesthetic quality of timber	**Tolerance** The total amount a specific dimension or property is allowed to vary	**Abrading** The process of sanding (wearing away) the surface of timber ready to apply a finish	**Mechanisation** The use of machines or automatic devices to process timber
Key Vocabulary						

Week One

Sustainable forestry is a well manage forest, whereby every tree that is cut down for use as timber is replaced with at least one new sapling. A sustainable forest offers employment and leisure activities such as walking and cycling.

Week Two

Timber conversion
Felled trees are cut into manageable lengths to be converted into timber planks and boards.
Timber is supplied in two main finishes: rough sawn or planed all round (PAR).
- Rough sawn timber is often used for exterior tasks.
- PAR is smoother and has been planed down on all sides.

Week Three

Seasoning
- Seasoning timber reduces its moisture content.
- The two methods of seasoning are **air** or **kiln** drying.
Faults can occur as timber dries. These include:
- Bowing
- Splitting / cracking
- Springing
- Cupping
- Twisting

Week Four

Timber provenance
Is regulated by bodies such as:
- FSC® (Forest Stewardship Council®).
- PEFCTM (Programme for the Endorsement of Forest Certification).

In the UK, sustainably managed forests must be FSC or PEFC accredited.

Week Five

Knock Down Fittings
can be put together easily, normally using only a screw driver, a drill, a mallet/hammer and other basic tools. They are temporary joints although many are used to permanently join together items such as cabinets and other pieces of furniture that are purchased in a flat pack.

Week Six

Wood Joints
Wood joints are widely used where a strong join is needed.

Butt joint

Dowelled joint

Mitre joint

Week Seven

Lamination
Laminating means layering. It is often used to create curved components.

Strips of timber are glued and placed over a jig or former Either clamps or a vacuum press are used to exert pressure on the lamination while the adhesive dries or cures.

Week Eight

Engineered (man made) wood
Manufactured or engineered wood has many advantages over solid wood:
- May be mixed with glues to give greater strength and stability.
- Ideal for use in construction, industrial and domestic use. Efficient in its use of mixed materials and utilising waste wood.
- It can be made in a large sheets not limited by the diameter of a tree trunk

Week Nine

Surface treatments and finishes
Wood can be protected and visually enhanced using:
- Preservative
- Wax
- Oil
- Paint
- Stain
- Varnish
Finishes can be applied by brushing, rubbing or spraying. As well as improving the function, finishes can make a product look more appealing (aesthetics).

Week Ten

Environmental impacts
Traditional paints and finishes can have harmful effects on the environment.

- Oil or solvent based products offer long lasting finishes, but contain high levels of VOCs – Volatile Organic Compounds.
- Water based products are kinder to the environment.
- Paint can be made from recycled latex and even milk.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Choosing suitable equipment for a childcare setting

Week one	Key vocabulary

Flammability: the ability of a substance to ignite or to burn.
Ergonomics: the science of design applied to make products efficient, safe and comfortable for use.
Durable: made to last.
Durability: the ability to withstand wear and tear.
Transition: a process or period of change from one state or condition to another, through which young children usually need support, e.g. moving from a bed to a cot, starting to eat solid foods, starting pre-school, sleeping in their own bedroom.

Week two, three	Types of childhood accidents

Accident	Explanation
Choking and suffocation	Choking is when an object blocks your airway and stops you from breathing. If your nose and mouth are covered and you cannot breathe, you will suffocate.
Burns	Burns are caused when your skin touches a very hot surface, for example an iron or kettle.
Falls	A fall is when you drop down onto the ground. Falls include falling over on one level and falling from a height.
Electric shocks	An electric shock is when a electric current passes through your body.
Drowning	Drowning happens when you are underwater and cannot breathe.
Poisoning	Poisoning happens when you swallow or breathe in something dangerous that makes you ill.
Cuts and grazes	A cut is a wound caused by something sharp, like a knife or broken glass. A graze is when the surface of your skin is scrapped off or broken.
Trapped fingers	Trapping your fingers means getting them caught in something. This can cause bruising, swelling and even broken bones.

Week four, five	Types of essential equipment

Travelling equipment
Travel equipment is needed in a childcare setting when taking children out for walks or outings.
Prams allow children to lie flat until they can sit up unsupported, at around the age of six months.
Buggies have a forward facing seat so children can look ahead. Some have reversible seats, so the child faces you. If you are transporting two children, a double buggy is required. A tandem has one seat in front of the other, a double buggy has seats which are side by side.
Reins help a child to stay safe on walks. Reins are strapped to the child's body or wrist, this stops the child running off or stepping into the road. Reins can also support children who are not steady on their feet.
Sleeping equipment
Children need to sleep or rest at points throughout the day, so a childcare setting needs sleeping equipment.
Cots are suitable for babies to sleep in up until the age of two.
Rest mats are used for older children, sleeping in childcare settings. The mat is placed on the floor and covered with a sheet and blanket.
Bean bags are suitable for children aged over 12 months to rest on.
Feeding equipment
A childcare setting needs feeding equipment to use at meal and snack times. When drinking, children may use trainer cups.
Sippy cup: beaker-style cup with a spout or straw, with a non-spill valve.
Free-flow beaker: beaker with a free-flow valve.
Doidy cup: a slanted cup, designed to help children learn to sip from the rim of a cup.
Open cup: open-top cups can be used from six months, with support.
Bibs are often worn at mealtimes to protect children's clothes. Sectioned plates are suitable for children who are weaning, because it divides up the food on the plate.
Changing equipment
Children need to be changed regularly to keep them clean and comfortable, and prevent nappy rash. The safest place to change a baby's nappy is on a **changing mat** on the floor. This can put a strain on your back and knees, which is why childcare settings use a changing station. Changing equipment is needed when taking children on walks or outings.
Indoor and outdoor playing equipment
Children need plenty of fresh air and space to be active, children need time to play outside as well as inside. Moving a piece of equipment to a different area can spark a child's interest. Childcare settings may use equipment which is suitable for indoor and outdoor playing:
- Gym sets
- Play tents
- Painting
- Slides
- Climbing frames
- Sand boxes

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Week six, seven	Factors affecting suitability and choice

Age and weight appropriateness: you must always check the manufacturer's recommendations for age and weight appropriateness. Equipment such as prams or changing tables are only suitable for children up to a certain age or weight. If the manufacturer's recommendations are ignored then the child might not be safe when using the piece of equipment.

Safety: when choosing equipment, safety must be considered. Research the safety features, star ratings and safety labelling. When choosing a pram, make sure it has good brakes. When choosing plates for feeding, make sure the plastic is chemical free.

Design: equipment should be comfortable for child and parent. It should be easy to use, adaptable and easily cleaned. You must consider accessibility and the needs of the individual who will be using the equipment. Take into account special educational needs and disabilities, and choose equipment that can be used by children of different abilities.

Cost: childcare settings need to think about cost when buying equipment. Equipment should be value for money and within your price range.

Durability: equipment in childcare settings is likely to get a lot of use. Items of equipment that are durable last longer but can be more expensive because they are made of higher quality material. Less durable, breaks easier, can cost more money in the long run replacing it.

Week eight	Linking factors to essential equipment	Week eight, nine	Linking factors to essential equipment

Travelling equipment:
A pram allows a baby to lie flat, this is a design and safety feature. Babies need to lie flat to protect their spines. A pram is suitable until around 6 months, when a baby can sit up unsupported. Durability and cost will depend on the childcare setting and situation. A childcare setting may get lots of use out a pram, and therefore buy an expensive pram to ensure it lasts. Study the below diagram which highlights the key features of a buggy.

Seat can be upright or fully reclined

Five-point safety harness

Padded seat

Brake to secure the buggy

Hard-wearing material that is easy to clean

Swivel front wheels

Sleeping equipment:
Cots must conform to British Safety Standards BS EN 716, this means that the cot meets the required safety standards. For example, space between the bars should be no more than 6.5cm so that the baby cannot get stuck in the gaps. To ensure safety cots must have a mattress that fits with no gaps, a baby could get stuck between the mattress and side of cot. A mattress should be clean, dry and not ripped. The distance between the top of the cot and mattress should be at least 50cm. A baby could climb over and fall, if sides are not high enough. For older children a childcare setting may use rest mats of beanbags to sleep on. They should be durable material, to withstand lots of use. A useful design feature of some reset mats is they fold away, this helps to save space.

Feeding equipment:
From 6 months babies can be offered water from a cup. Free-flow beakers or open cups are advised as they help babies to learn to sip. Beakers with non-spill valves help to prevent spills but are not recommended. Children who are weaning benefit from sections plates, the design means the food is separated and have higher sides to reduce spills. Feeding equipment should be washed after every use. Plastic equipment can become scratched and harbour bacteria. Bibs can be made of waterproof materials to prevent food stains and stop babies from feeling wet and uncomfortable. Check that plastic equipment is chemical free, look out for phthalate-free, latex-free and BPA-free materials.

Changing equipment:
If using a changing table, make sure it is a sturdy design and suitable for the weight of the children being changed. Childcare settings may choose changing tables with safety rails, or tables that are height-adjustable. Changing bags are needed when taking children out of the setting, the size will depend on how much changing equipment is needed. Some bags have special design features like built-in changing mats, padded straps or extra compartments.

Indoor and outdoor playing equipment:
Childcare settings may buy equipment that can be used both inside and out, this is a good way of managing their budget. Equipment should be safe and easy to move around. If a piece of equipment is left outside for a long period of time, then it needs to be durable to cope with weather conditions. A hard-wearing material such as treated wood, may be more expensive to buy but should last longer. Safety is a key consideration for any piece of play equipment, especially one that is designed to be left outside.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2A PHOTOGRAPHY - Camera Functions

Week 1 – Miniature Worlds

Macro photography is all about showing a subject larger than it is in real life — an extreme close-up of something small. Photographer **David Gulliver**, a Glasgow-based artist, specialises in macro photography to create surrealist images. Since 2021, he has been working on a series on climate change to highlight our environmental crisis. Photographer **Slinkachu**, a street artist originally from Devon, creates street scenes using figures and mini objects. His work has been exhibited in galleries across the world. They both work with **inanimate objects** (something that is not alive, or 'animate') Slinkachu's installations are **temporary**, meaning they only last a short period of time.

Week 2 - Aperture

Aperture can be defined as the opening in a lens through which light passes to enter the camera. Aperture is like pupil of your eye which adjusts to let more or less light in. Aperture affects **exposure** and **depth of field**. Depth of field is how much of the photo is sharp from front to back. It can be described as 'shallow' where the background is entirely out of focus or 'deep' where both the foreground and background are in focus. A *large* aperture (*small f-number*) creates *large* amount of blur. Use **Aperture Priority Mode (AV or A)** on your camera dial.

Week 3 - Composition

Composition is the arrangements of all the elements in your photo. What you choose to include or leave out and where you place the elements in your frame. Some **compositional rules** can help you plan how to compose your photos:
The Rule of Thirds: places your subject on the left-third or right-third of the frame, creating a pleasing composition. Each intersection point is a potential point of interest.
Leading Lines: human-made or natural lines lead the viewer's eyes through a photograph to the subject or the heart of the image.
Accent colours: stand out against the other colours in the scene. Accent colours have a powerful impact because they create a strong focal point that instantly catches the eye.

Week 4 – Colour Contrasts

Bring objects into class for your miniature world set up.

Colour contrasts involve the relationship between colours on the colour wheel. **Complementary** colours are primary and secondary colours that sit opposite each other on the colour wheel, e.g. yellow and purple. **Analogous** colours are those which are similar to each other and usually sit together on the colour wheel. **Monochromatic** colours are all the same hue, e.g. reds (dark, medium and light reds).

Week 5 – Complete outstanding work

Take your book home to complete all outstanding work.

Year 9 Photography Cycle 2A Camera Functions

A street scene by Slinkachu.

Climate change project by David Gulliver.

f/1.4	f/2.8	f/5.6	f/11	f/22
Very Large Aperture	Large Aperture	Medium Aperture	Small Aperture	Very Small Aperture
Very Small Depth of Field	Small Depth of Field	Medium Depth of Field	Large Depth of Field	Very Large Depth of Field
Almost Nothing In Focus	Little In Focus	Some In Focus	Much in Focus	Almost All In Focus

Where to find the Aperture Priority Mode on your camera dial.

DEPTH OF FIELD AT DIFFERENT APERTURES
f/2.8 Shallow depth of field
f/16 Large depth of field

Week 6 – Colour Theory Photoshoot

Demonstrate your understanding of all the key concepts you have learnt so far by taking a series of photographs (**a minimum of 15 images**). Include at least **one each** of the following: complementary colours, analogous colours, monochromatic, a colour accent, the rule of thirds and leading lines. Some photos may contain more than one rule, e.g. be monochromatic and follow the rule of thirds. **Upload your photos to use in class.**

Week 7- Motion in Photography

Eadweard Muybridge was the pioneer of motion photography. **In 1878,** Muybridge successfully photographed horses in motion, combining art and science to represent movements that were not visible to the eye. He developed the film on location so that he was not accused of manipulating the images. There are three ways of recording motion in photography**: freeze motion**, **blur motion** and **sequence motion** (like Muybridge's work).

Week 8 – Light Painting

Light painting is a photography technique that uses a moving light source (e.g. a torch or glowstick) to add light to a subject while taking a long exposure in the dark. A **long exposure** is where you keep the shutter open for a long period of time. A **tripod** is essential for capturing long exposures. Typical light painting settings: **ISO100, 30 seconds, f8**
Read the information on TEAMS about light painting.

Week 9 – Review of Shutter Speed

Shutter speed is exactly what it sounds like – the speed at which the shutter of the camera closes. A **fast shutter speed** creates a shorter exposure — the amount of light the camera takes in —while a **slow shutter speed** gives the photographer a longer exposure.

Shutter speed is used in photography to capture images with **motion blur** and to **freeze** movement. Shutter speed is measured in **fractions of a second**. Most modern DSLR cameras are capable of the **fastest shutter speeds** of up to **1/4000th of a second**. At the other end of the scale are the **slowest shutter speeds**. These are measured in whole seconds and generally fall anywhere between **two and 30 seconds**.

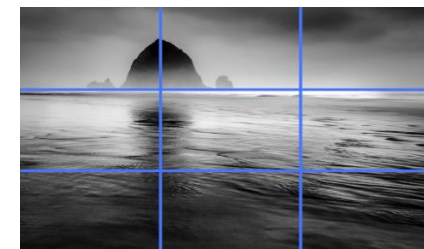Choose **'Shutter Priority'** mode. On the camera's dial, this is usually indicated by an **'S' or 'Tv'.**

LIGHT PAINTING PHOTOSHOOT THIS WEEKEND!

Week 10 – Complete outstanding work

Take your book home to complete all outstanding work.

Year 9 Photography Cycle 2B Camera Functions

Colour Contrast

Rule of Thirds

Colour Accent

Leading Lines

1/500	1/250	1/125
1/60	1/30	1/15
1/8	1/4	1/2

Shutter Speed
Diagram of fast to slow shutter speeds measured in seconds. For example, 1/500th of a second is a fast shutter speed freezing motion.

Eadweard Muybridge's work on motion in horses.
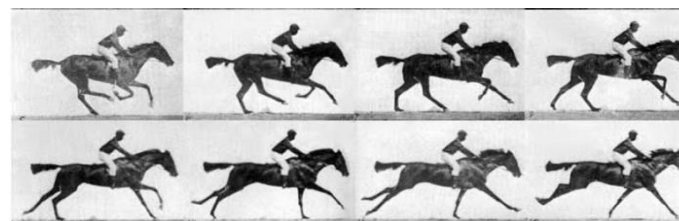
YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 GCSE RELIGIOUS STUDIES - Paper 1 - Key Christian Practices

Week 1: Worship	Week 2: Prayer	Week 3: Sacraments – Baptism	Week 4: Sacraments: Eucharist	Week 5: Pilgrimage
Worship is any act that shows devotion or love for God, ranging from praying at home to attending a church service. **Forms of worship** There are four main types of worship (see below). Worship include reading from the **Bible**, prayers and the **Eucharist**. Most worship services happen on the **Sabbath** (Sunday) because Jesus was resurrected on a Sunday. **Liturgical worship:** A church service that follows a set pattern of prayers and readings, usually from a book. **Non-liturgical worship:** This is more informal and has less structure, and the elements can be tailored to different types of services. **Informal worship:** Focuses on the adoration of God and is not always carried out in a church. Often the music used is modern in style. **Charismatic** worship is a kind of informal worship. **Private worship:** This is informal and often takes place at home. It can be liturgical or non-liturgical. Worshipping alone can allow a person to feel close to God. It can be an opportunity for Christians to explore a personal, individual connection with God.	**Prayer** is how Christians communicate with God. Jesus spoke often about the importance of prayer, as it deepens a person's relationship with God. Christians use informal personal prayers, which allow them to connect with God and formal written prayers, such as the **Lord's Prayer**, the prayer that Jesus taught his followers (see below). The acronym **ACTS** is used to recall the key components found in many formal prayers: **A**doration - Praising God **C**onfession - Saying sorry **T**hanksgiving - Thanking God, **S**upplication - Asking for something A fifth common component is **I**ntercession - Praying for someone **The Lord's Prayer:** "Our Father, which art in heaven. Hallowed be thy Name. Thy Kingdom come. Thy will be done in earth, as it is in heaven. Give us this day our daily bread. And forgive us our trespasses, As we forgive them that trespass against us. And lead us not into temptation, But deliver us from evil. For thine is the kingdom, The power, and the glory, For ever and ever. Amen"	Many Christians believe that baptism is important because Jesus was baptised, and after his **resurrection** he told his disciples that they should be baptised too. John the Baptist was the first Jew to use baptism to symbolise the **forgiveness** of sins. It was John who baptised Jesus. Many Christians believe that baptising cleanses people from **original sin**. Baptism is practised by most Christian **denominations** but the denominations practise baptism in different ways. **Infant baptism** Some Christians believe baptism makes a Christian a member of God's family. In many denominations babies are baptised, and this is known as infant baptism. **Believers' baptism** **Baptists** and **Pentecostals** believe baptism should only occur once somebody is old enough to accept Christianity for themselves. This is called believers' baptism. It is done using total immersion, where the person being baptised walks down into a pool and is fully submerged three times before walking out into their new life.	The **Eucharist**, also known as **Holy Communion**, is a sacrament that remembers the **Last Supper**. The most important element of the Eucharist is the bread and the wine, but there are varying beliefs about the roles of these items. **Belief 1** - **Catholics** believe that the bread and the wine become the actual flesh and blood of Jesus Christ. This is known as **transubstantiation** **Belief 2** - Some Christians believe that Holy Communion re-enacts the Last Supper. The bread and wine are seen as symbolic of Jesus' death. **Belief 3** - **Baptists** believe the bread and wine are symbolic and can bring people together as a community. They use non-alcoholic wine and the bread is offered from person to person. **Belief 4** - **Orthodox Christians** believe that Jesus is mystically present in the bread and wine. **Belief 5** - **Church of England** Christians believe that the bread and wine hold the spiritual presence of the body and blood of Jesus but do not become it.	A pilgrimage is a journey that has religious or spiritual significance. There are many sites of Christian pilgrimage, several of which are mentioned in the Bible, including **Jerusalem**. Pilgrimage is not compulsory, but many choose to undertake journeys to holy sites to be healed or to deepen their connection with God. **Lourdes** Lourdes is a famous pilgrimage site in France where the waters are believed to have healing powers. In 1858, Bernadette Soubirous, a young local girl, was said to have seen the **Virgin Mary** at Lourdes and her friend was said to have been healed in the waters. Bernadette was made a saint by Pope Pius XI in 1933. **Iona** Iona is a quiet island in Scotland where a **monastery** was built by Columba, a **monk**. It is often visited by pilgrims. Christians go there to study the Bible and pray, which may lead to spiritual growth. People often feel that they benefit from having their lives redirected or feel that they learn something about themselves while in Iona.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 GCSE RELIGIOUS STUDIES - Paper 1 - Key Christian Practices

Week 6: Christmas	Week 7: Easter	Week 8: The role of the Church - local community	Week 9: The role of the Church - Church growth	Week 10: The role of the Church - worldwide Church
Christmas celebrates the birth of Jesus, as told in the **Gospels** of Matthew and Luke. Christmas does not fall on Jesus' actual birthday, and different **denominations** celebrate it on different dates. **Protestant** and **Catholic** Christians celebrate on 25 December; **Orthodox** Christians celebrate it on 6 January. Mary gave birth to Jesus in Bethlehem and laid him in a manger. There, according to the Gospels he was visited by kings and shepherds who had heard about his birth. In the UK, Christmas is celebrated in both a religious and a **secular** way. There are church services with carols on Christmas Eve and Christmas Day as Christians thank God for his gift of Jesus. Christian churches often run events for those in need over the Christmas period, as the idea of Christmas is to spread love and peace.	Easter is the most important festival for Christians marking Jesus' victory over death. Easter begins with Lent, a period of 40 days leading up to the day of **resurrection**. The days leading up to the resurrection are known as **Holy Week:** **Palm Sunday** - Jesus entered Jerusalem on a donkey. Palm crosses are given out during Christian services as a symbol of this event. **Maundy Thursday** - Jesus hosted the **Last Supper**, which was followed by his arrest in the **Garden of Gethsemane**. This day marks the beginning of a time of sadness and reflection. **Good Friday** – Jesus' crucifixion and death. Many churches hold services at a similar time to when Jesus died (3pm). Some Catholics may hold a procession called the **Stations of the Cross**, which re-enacts the final journey of Jesus, carrying his cross to his crucifixion. **Easter Sunday** - Jesus' resurrection. For Christians, this is a day to celebrate what God has done for people. Easter eggs are given and eaten as a symbol of new life.	Many Christians work to help their communities. They see this as putting their Christian faith into action. Jesus spent time helping those who were in need, and Christians try to reflect Jesus' deeds in their actions. Churches are often open all day for quiet reflection, and services are regularly held with all being made welcome. In this way, churches can help those who are lonely and provide support. Churches also often run youth groups giving children a place to participate in activities. Churches often provide help and advice for those in need, and many Christians volunteer for local charities. Many churches and Christians run **food banks** from their church halls. Some Christians volunteer as **street pastors**, going out onto the streets at night to care for those in need and those who are at risk of harm. An example of a Christian organisation which supports the local community is the **Salvation Army**. Quote: "Love your neighbour as yourself." Mark 12:31	**Mission** • According to the **Gospel** of Matthew, Jesus told his disciples to spread his message throughout the world and try to **convert** people to Christianity. • **Missionaries** spread the Christian message abroad, not necessarily only through **preaching**, but through their actions too - for example, helping with development projects • Christianity is rapidly growth in South America and Africa, where missionaries have spent time working for **social justice** and setting up churches. **Evangelism** • **Evangelism** involves converting people to Christianity. • Some Christians do this as they believe that they can help people to discover their real purpose in life. • While some evangelists tell people directly about God, others try to show God's love through their actions. Gideon's International, donates copies of the Bible to hotels and hospitals in the UK and worldwide.	Throughout history, Christians have faced **persecution**. They are taught to trust God and forgive people, rather than hold on to hatred towards others. There are still many Christians who are persecuted today. They can be put in prison or put to death for their beliefs. Christians believe in justice and in the idea that all people should be treated equally. Many Christians, e.g. **Quakers** are **pacifists** or believe in non-violence. "Blessed are the Peacemakers." **Matthew 5:9** **Reconciliation** is very important for Christians. Some Christians act as mediators to help bring an end to conflicts, e.g. **Archbishop** Desmond Tutu, who tried to bring together black and white people in South Africa following the end of **apartheid**. Christians believe that they should follow the teachings in the **Parable of the Sheep and Goats.** However, all of these actions must be done with love, as St Paul said, If I give all that I possess to the poor, but do not have love, I gain nothing." (1 Corinthians 13:3)

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 SPORTS STUDIES
R185 - Performance & Leadership - TA2: Measuring Improvement in Performance

Week 1:

Key components in performance:
- **Skill:** The learned ability to bring about an end outcome , with maximum certainty and the minimum outlay of time or energy.
- **Examples of skills:** Passing, shooting and catching in handball.
- **Tactic:** An action or strategy planned to achieve a certain aim.
- **Examples of tactics:** Aiming for an opponent's backhand in badminton.
- **Compositional idea:** They way a performer arranges and develops their performance.
- **Examples of compositional ideas:** Using canon or unison in dance.

Week 2:

Types of skill:
Skills can be classified into different types on a continuum.

- **Continuum:** A scale used to categorise something between two extremes.
- **Simple:** A skill that is straight forward and requires little concentration, both physically and mentally. Simple skills involve a limited amount of information processing. For example, sprinting in athletics.
- **Complex:** A skill which is more complicated and requires greater practice. Complex skills require large amounts of information processing. For example, a serve in tennis.

Week 3:

Types of Skill:
- **Open:** A skill affected by the environment, movements must be adapted.
  - The environment can be defined as the playing field or the players around you.
  - Players must consistently adapt their thought process or skill to the environment.

- **Closed:** A skill not affected by the environment, involving set movements and is self-paced.
  - Performed in the same situation and have no variation.
  - The actions follow a set routine.

Week 4:

Types of Practice
- **Fixed:** Repeatedly practising a skill the same way each time.
  - This is best for closed skills.
  - For example, practicing the short serve in badminton.
- **Variable:** Varying how you complete your practice.
  - This is best for open skills where the environment varies.
  - For example, shooting in football for different angles and with a different number of defenders.
- **Whole:** Performing the skill in its entirety without breaking it up into parts.
  - This is useful for closed skills.
  - For example, a basketball free throw.
- **Part:** Breaking the skill down into its constituent parts, which are practiced separately.
  - This is used for complex skills.
  - For example, the triple jump.

Week 5:

Types of Practice: Advantages & Disadvantages:
- **Fixed:**
  Advantage:
  - Skill becomes ingrained and perfected as it is repeated continuously.
  Disadvantage:
  - Can be boring and led to fatigue.

- **Variable:**
  Advantage:
  - Skills can be adapted.
  Disadvantage:
  - Can take a long time.

- **Whole:**
  Advantage:
  - Gives a feel for the whole skill, giving a sense of fluency.
  Disadvantage:
  - Can be physically demanding.

- **Part:**
  Advantage:
  - Good for sequencing.
  Disadvantage:
  - Can take a long time.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 SPORTS STUDIES
R185 - Performance & Leadership - TA2: Measuring Improvement in Performance

Week 6:	Weeks 7 & 8:	Weeks 9 & 10:

Other Methods of Improving Performance:
- **Altering the context:**
  - This could be by playing against a greater number of players.
  - For example, a 2 v 1 in football or handball.
  - This could also be by playing against players who perform to a higher level than you.
  - For example, playing against a county or academy player in rugby.

- **Advantages of altering the context:**
  - This provides a challenge for you to try and improve.
  - This can allow you to identify you areas of development.

- **Disadvantages of altering the context:**
  - If you continue to lose it could be demotivating and have a negative impact on your confidence.
  - Can leave you relying on others to improve.

**Measuring Improvement in Performance**
- **Video Analysis:**
  - Allows examination of performance to improve skill and prevent injury.
  - Can identify small details which are missed during live performance.

  - Advantages:
    - Can lead to better performance.
    - Injury prevention.
    - Tracks improvement.
    - Performers can watch themselves.
    - Feedback can be more focused.

  - Disadvantages:
    - Can be expensive.
    - Can be difficult to complete.
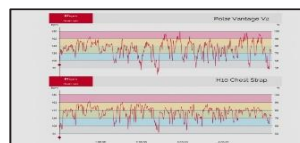
- **Other Assistive Technologies:**
  - Using technology such as GPS trackers to monitor how far you run and heart rate (HR) monitors to track how high you heart is beating.

  - Advantages:
    - Can lead to better performance.
    - Tracks health/fitness levels.
    - Displays can cause you to raise your effort.

  - Disadvantages:
    - Can be expensive.
    - Focusing on statistics may not show everything!
    - Can impact team performance as you focus on yourself.

Measuring Improvement in Performance
- **Monitoring Competition Results:**
  - Recording how many games or matches you have won, drawn or lost.
  - Recording how many points or goals you have scored.
  - Recording how many points or goals you have conceded.

  - Advantages:
    - Can lead to better performance.
    - Allows you to identify any trends.
    - Tracks improvement.
    - Feedback can be more focused.

  - Disadvantages:
    - Can be difficult to complete.
    - Can have a negative impact on the athlete's confidence and motivation.
    - Results may not truly reflect the high levels of effort an athlete is giving.

Pos	Team	Played	Win	Draw	Loss	Points	Change
1	Liverpool	38	35	1	2	106	0
2	Manchester City	38	24	4	10	77	0
3	Leicester	38	19	7	12	64	0
4	Chelsea	38	17	10	11	61	0
5	Manchester United	38	16	11	11	59	0
6	Sheffield United	38	15	13	10	58	1
7	Arsenal	38	13	18	7	57	2
8	Wolves	38	13	17	8	56	-2
9	Burnley	38	15	9	14	54	1
10	Tottenham	38	14	10	14	52	-2
11	Crystal Palace	38	13	12	13	51	0
12	Everton	38	13	10	15	49	0
13	Southampton	38	14	4	20	46	1
14	Newcastle	38	11	12	15	45	-1
15	Watford	38	9	11	18	38	2
16	Brighton	38	6	17	15	35	-1
17	West Ham	38	9	8	21	35	-1
18	Aston Villa	38	10	5	23	35	1
19	Bournemouth	38	9	7	22	34	-1
20	Norwich	38	7	8	23	29	0

- The tools selected to measure improvement in performance will be dependent upon the chosen activity and the ability level of the performer.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 STATISTICS

Statistics, Yr 9 Cycle 1, Unit 1

The collection of data

Types of data
Population and sampling
Sampling methods
Planning and collecting data

Week 1

What is **primary** data?	When you collect the data yourself (e.g. By conducting a survey).
What is **secondary** data?	When someone else has collected the data (e.g. Data from the internet).
Advantages of **primary** data	You can be sure about the accuracy of the data.
Disadvantages of **primary** data	Can take a long time. Can be expensive. It might be difficult to collect (e.g. Wind Speed).
Advantages of **secondary** data	Quicker and cheaper than primary.
Disadvantages of **secondary** data	You can't be sure about the accuracy of the data.
What is **raw** data?	Data that has just been collected but not processed or cleaned in any way.
What is meant by **cleaning the data**?	This is the process of detecting and correcting (or removing) inaccurate items of data.

Week 2

What is **quantitative** data?	**Quantitative** data is numerical - either counted or measured.
What is **qualitative** data?	**Qualitative** data relates to the qualities of something (e.g. colour, texture, style, name). Usually words.
What is **discrete** data?	Discrete data can only take **certain values**. Usually **counted** data (such as how many people….) but can also be other e.g. shoe size, clothing sizes.
What is **continuous** data?	Continuous data can take ANY value in a given range and is measured data such as distance, weight, time, speed.
What is **Categorical** Data?	Data which may be divided into groups. (e.g. Race, gender, Age Group).
What is **bivariate** data or **multivariate** data?	Bi-variate data has two variables. (Multi-variate is more than 2). We can see if there is correlation in bi-variate data by drawing a scatter graph.

Week 3

What is a **pilot survey** or pilot study?	A **pilot survey** is a small scale study before a full-scale study is done. It is used to check if a questionnaire or survey "works", and to fine tune your method/questions.
What is a **population**?	Every item in a given set. For example every member of a school. (Not just limited to people – It could be the all of the items in a pencil case.).
What is a **census**?	A **census** is a survey of a whole population rather than just a small part of it.
What is a **sample**?	A **sample** is a small part of a population rather than the whole population.
Why do we use **sampling**?	We use samples because they are cheaper, quicker and easier than surveying or experimenting on a whole population. Also an experiment might be destructive so using the whole population will destroy the population! (e.g. testing food).

Week4

What is **bias**?	**Prejudice** for or against one group or opinion or result in a way that is "**unfair**".
What are the three main methods of **collecting data**?	- Experiment - Observation - Questionnaire
Advantages of a **census**.	Unbiased, totally Accurate, takes Account of the whole population.
Disadvantages of a **census**.	Time consuming, expensive, can be difficult to ensure everyone is included.
Advantages of a **sample**.	Cheaper, quicker, less data to be analysed.
Disadvantage of a **sample**.	It could be biased. Not completely representative of the population.

YEAR 9 CYCLE 2 STATISTICS

Week 5

What does **random sampling** mean?	**Random** means that every member of a population has an equal chance of being chosen.
Disadvantage of random sampling	It can sometimes be expensive and time consuming.
Advantage of random sampling	Your sample is likely to represent the target population.
Describe how to take a **random sample** of 50 from 1000 pupils in a school.	Give every pupil a **unique number** using the school register. Use a **random number generator** to select 50 random pupil numbers.

Week 6

Why do we use **stratified sampling?**	Stratified sampling ensures **each group** in a population is represented **in proportion to its size.**
What is a **control group**?	The group in an experiment or study that don't receive treatment to allow comparison with those that do.
What is **systematic sampling**?	Taking a sample at equal intervals through a population e.g. every third person on a register or every twentieth car that passes on a road. This is **not** a random method.
What is a **sampling frame**?	The list of people or items to be sampled.

Week 7

What is **quota** sampling?	The amount of each specific group is specified. E.g. 30 women are needed. Good when impossible to use a stratified sample. Bad because not truly random.
Advantage of **quota** sampling.	Good when impossible to use a stratified sample.
Disadvantage of **quota** sampling.	Bad because not truly random.
What is **cluster** sampling?	The population is divided into groups and then a group is chosen at random.
Advantage of **cluster** sampling.	Cheaper and Quicker.
Disadvantage of **cluster** sampling.	It may not be representative of the sample.

Week 8

What is **convenience** sampling?	When items are selected because of convenience. Eg. Asking people in your class rather than in the whole school.
Advantages of **convenience** sampling.	Easier and cheaper.
Disadvantage of **convenience** sampling.	Much more likely to be biased.
What is a **Random Response Method**?	Uses a random event (coin toss) to decide how to answer the question. It helps with sensitive topics, such as drug use, medical issues, personal issues.

Week 9

What is a **hypothesis**?	A **hypothesis** is an idea or opinion that you start with, and which you **test** using **statistical techniques**. E.g. "*Gromow* makes plants grow taller"
Closed Questions.	Gives a set of answers to choose from. Restricts answers making data easier to analyse but might be less detailed.
Open Questions.	When there are no suggested answers. Allows for a range of answers but can be difficult to analyse.
What is a **leading question**?	A **leading question** is one where there is a suggestion that one response is "better" than another. E.g. "Don't you agree that…."

Week 10

Give an advantage of using a **face-to-face interview** for a questionnaire.	-follow up questions are possible - more likely to get an "honest" response - can explain what questions mean more fully
Give a disadvantage of using a **face-to-face interview** for a questionnaire.	- Time-consuming/ labour intensive - People embarrassed answering some questions face to face - May have to ask many people before someone agrees to do it.
Give a disadvantage of using **postal questionnaires.**	-Lot of postal questionnaires are ignored. -People may not answer honestly -Cost of postage & printing
How can you **improve the response rate** to a postal questionnaire?	- Reward or prize draw - Provide a return envelope - Use "Freepost" - Offer to collect