Year 10 Option Subjects

Knowledge Organiser

April - July 2026

AMBITION, CONFIDENCE, CREATIVITY,
RESPECT, DETERMINATION

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FIVE ACRES HIGH SCHOOL

Why do we have knowledge organisers?
Knowledge organisers are a collation of the basic essential knowledge for success in each subject area that will underpin your learning for the term.

They are designed to provide the information you will need to be committing to your long term memory through recall exercises in Low Stakes Quizzing.

How do we use knowledge organisers?
You should be using these KOs to create your homework quizzes so that you are practising retrieving information.

1. You can do this by testing yourself on the definition of key terms (both recalling the key term and then swapping to recall the definition), practice labelling diagrams, retrieves reasons and justifications for the main learning points.
2. They can also be used for 'memory dumps' where you try to recall as much of the information about a topic as possible and then use the KP to fill in the gaps.
3. They can also be used in class to assist with retrieval of the core knowledge needed for each subject.

You should have these with you at all times in school and out on your desk in all lessons.

If you lose your KO or it becomes too dishevelled, please purchase a new one from the Head of Year or the School Office.

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History around us GCSE OCRb Year 10 - Chepstow Castle Knowledge Organiser

1. 1 Timeline of key developments

1067 – 1090: The first Great Hall of Chepstow Castle is built.
1067: Earl William Fitz Osbern begins the construction of Chepstow Castle in the Marches between England and Wales.
1072: The tower keep of Chepstow Castle is built.
1190: Sir William Marshal begins rebuilding Chepstow Castle. He has married Isabella De Clare
July 1217: Henry III of England visits Chepstow Castle. It has a tower, new walls, arrow slits and an improved defensive entrance.
1244: Anselm Marshall adds new parts to the castle in a rich red sandstone – quarried locally (cheaper than the yellow limestone used by his father. Old hall keep turned into a tower. Larger windows installed
1272: Roger Bigod, 5th Earl of Norfolk, builds the western gatehouse at Chepstow Castle.
1285: A new Great Hall is completed at Chepstow Castle.
Dec 1285: Edward I of England visits Chepstow Castle.
1287 – 1293: The Marten's Tower is added to Chepstow
1300- Roger Bigod III: Builds more comfortable living areas in the castle. Strengthen the upper gatehouse in the barbican with a gate and portcullis. Built a wall around all of Chepstow. Roger needed to make sure the Welsh would not revolt and attack. He placed catapults on all four towers during the Welsh uprisings. Built a fine hall and kitchen, a cellar and grand apartments. Castle has separate buildings for the baron and top men in the household. Lodging areas for quests and servant quarters.
1306: Roger Bigod III dies and the castle passes to King Edward I. The castle no longer has any military significance.
1642 English Civil War: In the 17th C firearms became more common in warfare, Chepstow's battlements were modified to allow the use of cannons. For the same reason, circular windows were made in some of the walls which were thickened on the eastern side to withstand the firepower of would-be attackers. Chepstow was indeed finally attacked and breached during the English Civil War of the 1640s when the castle's commander, Sir Nicholas Kemeys, was killed.
Modern times: Today, Chepstow Castle is open to the public and managed by Cadw as a tourist attraction/historical site.

1.2 The site of the castle: Chepstow is a Norman castle perched high above the banks of the river Wye in southeast Wales. Construction began at Chepstow in 1067, less than a year after William the Conqueror was crowned King of England. Earl William Fitz Osbern was chosen to build the castle as he was a loyal supporter of William. The site of the castle is in the Marches, the area of land between England and Wales.

Point	Physical feature	Explanation
Built on River Wye	River Wye -control River Wye -defensive feature	To allow William Conqueror to control the area of the River between England and Wales. For added defence as River used for bringing in food during sieges
Topography	26 metre Limestone cliff - strategic	Used as a lookout-height. Hard to attack, cliff edge gives added protection
Marches	Location of castle	Built between England and Wales by supporters of William the Conqueror to secure lands and allow easy attack of Wales
Defensive	Gatehouse/portcullis	Barbican built to protect the gatehouse
Defensive	Round Tower	Strong towers were added to curtain walls to watch out for enemies. Hard to undermine
Defensive /Protection	Thick walls	From 1200 a curtain wall which is high and thick stop enemies getting access to the bailey
Storage	Cellar	On Wye side so boats could bring in food. Vast area to store food and drink
Living/society	Kitchen	Preparation of food area. Near Wye for waste
Protection	Battlements	The parapet of a wall consisting of alternating low portions known as crenels and high portions called merlons
Protection	Arrow Slits	An arrow slit (often also referred to as a balistraria) is a narrow vertical aperture in a fortification through which an archer can launch arrows or a crossbowman can launch bolts
Defensive	Keep	The main building inside the castle is the keep, which was protected by thick walls and towers
Defensive	Castle doors (oldest surviving castle doors in Britain today)	Doors in the original gatehouse date from 1190 and are made using iron plates clad in oak to stop attackers from burning them down

1.4 People in the castle

1. Ownership of the castle – a, William FitzOsbern -1066-1071, b De Clare family 1071- 1189, c- William Marshal 1189-1219, d-1245 Bigod family, e-1306 pass to the Monarch Edward II
2. Lord and Lady-In charge of local area, administered law and order, Lady run the household/entertaining
3. Soldiers-for protection and to keep watch/patrol
4. Gardner-to grow food in baily areas ie herbs, spices and a kitchen garden. To keep plant clear of walls
5. Carpenter/stonemason -for castle building and maintenance and repairs
6. Fletcher – arrow maker – to provide weapons
7. An English medieval castle, if a large one, could have a household staff of at least 50 people, which included all manner of specialised and skilled workers such as cooks, grooms, carpenters, masons, falconers, and musicians, as well as a compliment of knights, bowmen, and crossbow operators.

1.5 Chepstow Castle after 1300: The Later Middle Ages

1. *Edward II* takes control in 1307 and passes the castle to his favourites, including Hugh Despenser. The castle was garrisoned with 12 knights and 60 footmen for protection from Welsh invasions. 2. *Welsh wars* -Owain Glyn Dwr was likely to attack the castle so it was garrisoned (had an army situated there) in 1415 but he never attacked Chepstow during the Welsh Wars as his army was stopped at Usk 3. *Tudor times* – Sir Charles Somerset who was related to Henry VIII became Earl of Worcester and made key change as custodian of Chepstow castle in the 1500's. He transformed the lower bailey area into a great court and added new windows and fireplaces in Marten's tower. He improved the kitchen area with a new oven and fireplace and made the castle more comfortable and easier for entertaining.

1.6 Changes during the English Civil War: The English Civil war began in England in 1642 between Charles I -Royalist and Oliver Cromwell- Parliamentarian. Chepstow was a strategic location as it controlled the entrance to South Wales and links to Bristol with the River Severn. In 1643 the parliamentarian army advanced into Monmouthshire but did not take Chepstow castle so they forced to retreat. In October 1645 Bristol fell to parliament and Chepstow castle (Royalist) had to surrender after their forces breached the castle defences by concentrating their cannon fire on the curtain wall to the west of Martens tower. Chepstow castle had a store of gunpowder, ammunition and cannons which was taken by parliament. At the end of the war Chepstow castle became a barracks and a prison for political dissidents of Oliver Cromwell. Following the war, the whole southern face of the castle was reinforced with earth and stone as a prevention against further cannon fire. The parapets were remodelled with musket loops. Modern warfare showed that Chepstow castle was no longer protection in times of war. Castles were now obsolete.

1.7 Typicality of Chepstow castle in Medieval times: The Great Hall (built of stone) and dramatic cliff-side at Chepstow are the castle's two most interesting features. The rest of the castle is a typical Norman structure - a large gatehouse with high curtain walls connecting a series of tall towers. It was the first stone castle built as other Norman castles were first built as motte and baileys. Chepstow was built in stages along the river Wye, the castle is constructed in a long, terraced fashion as opposed to a typical concentric layout. The largest castle in Wales, and the second-largest in Britain, Caerphilly Castle was locked within water defences when it was built by the English in the 13th century. Remains of wall-walk and battlements. South-west tower: an open-backed fighting platform on three levels to defend a vulnerable corner of the castle. Arrow loops provide extensive coverage along the curtain wall outside. Gatehouse with murder holes, a portcullis and a drawbridge.

1.8 Decline and Modern times: By 1690 Chepstow Castle was decommissioned and was left empty, falling into disrepair and ruin until it was sold by the Beaufort's in 1914. The final family to own Chepstow Castle was the Lysaghts who acquired the property in 1914, led by tycoon William Royse Lysaght who ordered extensive restoration and conservation work. Chepstow Castle became a popular destination for tourists navigating the Wye Tour, a famous excursion through various scenic buildings and monuments along the River Wye that was popular with British visitors. In 1984, Chepstow Castle came under the ownership of Cadw, the Welsh Government's historic environment division. Today, Chepstow Castle is open to the public as a historical museum and visitor's centre. It continues to be used as a filming location—music videos, feature films, and live performances. It is a historical tourist attraction.

Year 10 Geography - The Challenge of Natural Hazards – Introduction and Tectonic Hazards

KPI1 - Key terms

1. **Conservative plate margin:** Tectonic plate margin where two tectonic plates slide past each other.
2. **Constructive plate margin:** Tectonic plate margin where rising magma adds new material to plates that are diverging (*going apart*).
3. **Destructive plate margin:** Tectonic plate margin where two plates are converging (*coming together*). It can be linked to violent earthquakes and explosive volcanoes.
4. **Earthquake:** A sudden or violent movement within the Earth's crust followed by a series of shocks.
5. **Immediate responses:** The reaction of people as disasters happen in the immediate aftermath (*after-effects of an unpleasant event)*
6. **Long-term responses:** Later reactions that occur in the weeks, months of years after an event.
7. **Monitoring:** Recording physical changes, such as earthquake tremors (*ground shaking)* around a volcano, to help forecast when and where a natural hazard might strike.
8. **Plate margin:** The margin (or boundary) between two tectonic plates.
9. **Planning:** Actions taken to allow communities to response and recover from natural disasters.
10. **Prediction:** Attempts to forecast (predict) where and when a natural hazard might strike based on current knowledge.
11. **Primary effects:** The initial impacts of a natural event on people and property, caused directly by it.
12. **Protection:** Actions taken before a hazard strikes to reduce its impact, such as educating people.
13. **Secondary Effects:** The after-effects that occur as indirect impacts of a natural event.
14. **Tectonic Hazards:** A natural hazard caused by the movement of tectonic plates.
15. **Tectonic Plate**: A rigid (*not flexible*) part of the Earth's curst which moves across semi-molten (*melted)* rock below.

KPI2: What are natural hazards?

Definition: Natural hazards are physical events such as earthquakes and volcanoes that have the potential to do damage to humans and property. Hazards include tectonic hazards, tropical storms and forest fires.

Hazards become risks when...

- The population has grown.
- Climate change is leading to more extreme weather events.
- Wealth - LICs are particularly at risk as they do not have the money to protect themselves.

KPI3 Plate tectonic theory

Plate tectonic theory suggests that the outermost solid layers of the Earth (the crust) is divided into tectonic plates. There are two types of crustal plate.

- Oceanic plate – recently formed, thin and dense (*heavy)*
- Continental plate – older, thicker and less dense (*heavy)*

What mechanisms drive plate movements?

Tectonic plates are constantly moving due to:

Convection currents:

1. The Earth's core is extremely hot which causes the mantle to be heated near the core.
2. The hot rock rises towards the surface and cools down.
3. When it reaches the crust, it is forced sideways because it cannot pass through the solid rock above. It continues to cool and become denser, and sinks back towards the crust.
4. Once more in contact with the core, it is re-heated and starts to rise to the surface again.

Gravitational Sliding: Scientists believe that gravity plays an important role in plate movement – this is called gravitational sliding. There are two types of gravitational sliding.

- *Ridge Push* – At constructive plate margins, fresh magma rises at the mid-ocean ridge. The two plates are forced apart, away from the ridge. As the ridge rises at a higher than the ocean floor, gravity causes the plates to slide downwards.
- *Slab Pull* – at destructive plate margins, gravity acts upon the thicker, denser plate, causing it to sink under it's own weight, 'pulling' the rest of the plate with it.

KPI5 – Plate margins

Earthquakes occur along plate boundaries. On the edge of continents. Around the edge of the Pacific.

Constructive plate margins –

1. At a **constructive plate margin** the plates move **apart** from one another, causing earthquakes.
2. When this happens the magma from the mantle rises up to make (or construct) new land in the form of a **shield volcano**.

Destructive Plate Margin –

1. As the plates collide, the oceanic plate is forced beneath the continental plate. This is known as **subduction**. This happens because the oceanic plate is denser (heavier) than the continental plate.
2. When the plate sinks into the mantle it melts to form magma. The pressure of the magma builds up beneath the Earth's surface. The magma escapes through weaknesses in the rock and rises up to from a volcano. The volcanic eruptions are often violent.

Conservative Plate Margin –

1. At a **conservative plate margin**, the plates move past each other or are side by side moving at different speeds.
2. As the plates move, friction occurs and plates become stuck.
3. Pressure builds up because the plates are still trying to move. When the pressure is released, it sends out huge amounts of energy, causing an earthquake.

KPI6 – Effects from and responses to Earthquakes

There are two different types of effects from natural disasters such as earthquakes.

- Primary effects are caused by the ground shaking and can include deaths and injuries associated with the collapse of buildings and infrastructure such as roads.
- Secondary effects are associated with events triggered by the ground shaking, such as landslides, avalanches, fires and deadly tsunamis.

There are two different types of responses to natural disasters such as earthquakes.

- Immediate responses: these initially focus on search and rescue and providing emergency resources such as water, food, medicine, shelter and safety.
- Long term responses: These involve re-building and reconstruction, returning society to normal and reducing future risk.

	Nepal Earthquake (2015)	**Christchurch Earthquake (2011)**
Primary Effects	• 9000 people died and over	• 185 people were killed.
Secondary Effects	• Avalanches on Mount Everest killed at least 19 people	• Christchurch was no longer able to host the rugby world cup match.
Immediate Responses	• Search and rescue teams arrived quickly from the UK, India and China.	• 30,000 residents were provided with chemical toilets.
Long-term responses	• Over 7,000 schools to be re-built or repaired.	• The construction of around 10,000 affordable homes.

KPI7 – Reducing the impact

1. Monitoring: Seismometers measure earth movement. Volcanoes give off gases.
2. **Protection:** Reinforced buildings and making building foundations that absorb movement.
3. **Planning:** Training for emergency services and planned evacuation routes and drills.
4. **Prediction:** observing monitoring data, this can allow evacuation before event.

Page 2 Year 10 Geography - The Challenge of Natural Hazards – Weather Hazards

KPI8 - Additional Key terms

1. **Economic impact:** The effect of an event on the wealth of an area or community.
2. **Environmental impact:** The effect of an event on the landscape and ecology of the surrounding area.
3. **Extreme weather:** When a weather event is significantly different from the average or usual weather pattern, and is especially severe or unseasonal.
4. **Global atmospheric circulation:** The worldwide system of winds, which transports heat from tropical to polar latitudes.
5. **Management strategies:** Techniques of controlling, responding to, or dealing with an event.
6. **Social impact:** The effect of an event on the lives of people or community.
7. **Tropical storm** (hurricane, cyclone, typhoon) An area of low pressure with winds moving in a spiral around the calm central point called the eye of the storm. Winds are powerful and rainfall is heavy.

KPI9 – Global Atmospheric Circulation

What causes wind?
Wind is caused by differences in atmospheric pressure (*weight of the air).* When there is a difference air moves from one area of low pressure, resulting in winds.

Solar Radiation:
- Towards the poles, the Sun's energy spreads over a large area, resulting in low temperatures and high pressure.
- At the Equator, the Sun's energy is concentrated over a small area, causing high temperatures and low pressure.

This difference in air pressure on Earth's surface causes global patterns of air circulation (cells) from areas of high pressure to areas of low pressure.

Global Atmospheric Circulation Model:

1. Warm air rises from the Equator, creating a belt of low pressure. As the air rises, it cools.
2. The resulting condensation creates clouds and rain that moves north and south of the Equator.
3. At 30° north and south of the Equator, the cold dry air sinks, creating high pressure and clear skies.
4. When the sinking air reaches the Earth's surface, it moves either back to the Equator or towards the Poles.
5. At 60° north and south of the Equator, the surface air meets colder air from the poles, which causes it to rise, creating a belt of low pressure.
6. The air rises and cools. At a high level, this moves either back to the Equator or towards the poles.
7. At the poles, the cool air sinks back to the Earth's surface, creating high pressure. The air then moves back towards the Equator.

KPI10 – Location of Tropical Storms
Tropical storms will only form when the following conditions are met:
1. Ocean temperatures above 26.5°C
2. Water depth 60-70m
3. Between 5° and 30° north and south of the equator.
4. Tropical storms cannot form more than 30° north or south of the equator as the water is not warm enough and the Coriolis force (spin) is not great enough.

KPI11 – Formation of Tropical Storms
1. Solar insolation heats the tropical water to above 26.5°C.
2. Warm, moist, unstable air above the ocean rises, creating an area of low pressure below.
3. The large mass of rising warm air cools and condenses to form large cumulonimbus clouds and heavy rain.
4. Surrounding cooler air is drawn into the area of low pressure, causing winds to form.
5. The system of clouds and winds spin due to the trade winds and the earth's rotation (Coriolis effect). Tropical Storms in the northern hemisphere move anticlockwise and those in the southern hemisphere move clockwise.
6. Colder drier air sinks into the center (eye) of the storm, creating calm conditions.
7. Prevailing winds push the storm towards the land.
8. The storm continues to get bigger and stronger until it reaches land or colder seas. Landfall and friction slow the storm down.

KPI12 – Tropical Storm Case Study: Typhoon Haiyan
Typhoon Haiyan, a category five typhoon, struck the Philippines, close to Tacloban on 8th November 2013.

Primary Effects:
- Approximately 6,300 deaths
- 90% of Tacloban City destroyed
- 1.1 million tonnes of crops destroyed.

Secondary Effects:
- Looting *(robbing)*
- Rice prices rose by 11.9%

Immediate Responses
- US aircraft carrier and helicopters helped with search and rescue
- 1200 evacuation centres set up
- UK government sent shelter kits for families

Long-term responses
- 'Cash for work' programmes -people paid to help clear debris
- Oxfam replaced fishing boats
- Rebuilt roads, bridges, airport .

KPI13 – Reducing the impact of tropical storms

Tropical storms can be predicted, so having effective prediction, planning and protection systems can significantly reduce the effects of storms.

1. Prediction: Scientists use technology to predict when and where a storm is likely to occur. Hurricane warnings give people advice on the necessary actions to take e.g. evacuation.
2. Protection: Buildings can be constructed from reinforced concrete or built on silts to protect against winds and flooding,
3. Planning: Disaster kits can be provided for people in high-risk areas. Evacuation routes can help to get people away from danger quickly.

KPI14 – Evidence of UK Extreme Weather

- Temperatures are becoming more extreme: 2014 was the warmest year since 1910 and December 2014 was the coldest month for over 100 years.
- Rainfall is heavier and storms are more intense and frequent. December 2015 was the wettest UK month on record.

KPI15 – Extreme Weather in the UK Case Study: Beast from the East

Under normal circumstances, winters in the UK are mild compared to some places on the same latitude because of the jet stream (a warm air mass). However, in February 2018, a weather event disturbed the jet stream – allowing cold winds from Russia to travel as far as the UK.

Primary Effects
- A man died in London after being pulled from a frozen lake, whilst there were 3 other reported deaths

Secondary Effects
- British Airways cancelled hundreds of short-haul flights from Heathrow, and London City
- Hospitals in Glasgow, Grimsby, Scunthorpe and Goole cancelled all outpatient appointments while Harrogate hospital asked staff who can walk to work to go in to cover shifts

Responses
- Stranded drivers given foil blankets
- Red weather warning -do not travel
- Greggs Delivery van gave out free food to stranded drivers on A1

Page 3 Year 10 Geography - The Challenge of Natural Hazards – Climate Change

KPI16 – Key words continued

1. **Adaptation**: Actions taken to adjust to natural events such as climate change, to reduce potential damage, limit the impacts, take advantage of opportunities, or cope with the consequences.
2. **Climate change**: A long-term change in the Earth's average temperature and weather patterns.
3. **Mitigation**: Action taken to reduce or eliminate the long-term risk to human life and property from natural hazards, such as building earthquake-proof buildings or making international agreements about carbon reduction targets.
4. **Orbital changes**: Changes in the pathway of the Earth around the Sun.
5. **Quaternary period**: The period of geological time from about 2.6 million years ago to the present. It is characterised by the appearance and development of humans and includes the Pleistocene and Holocene Epochs.
6. **Epoch**: a smaller period of time.
7. **Enhanced Greenhouse effect:** When there is an increased concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere.

KPI17 – Evidence of Climate Change

The Met Office has reliable climate evidence since 1914 – but we can tell what happened before that using several methods.

- **Ice and Sediment Cores**: Ice sheets are made up of layers of snow, one per year. Gases trapped in layers of ice can be analysed. Ice cores from Antarctica show changes over the last 400 000 years.
- **Pollen Analysis**: Pollen is preserved in sediment. Different species need different climatic conditions e.g. warmer/colder climates
- **Tree Rings**: A tree grows one new ring each year. Rings are thicker in warm, wet conditions This gives us reliable evidence for the last 10 000 years
- **Temperature Records**: Historical records date back to the 1850s. Historical records also tell us about harvest and weather reports.

KPI18 – Causes of Climate Change

The evidence shows that the Earth's climate has changed both naturally but over the last 200 years human actions have led to the Enhanced Greenhouse Effect.

Natural Factors:

1. Orbital changes – The Earth's orbit has changed from circular to elliptical, which affects its distance from the Sun. When the orbit is more circular, the temperature will increase as the Earth is closer to the Sun. When the orbit is elliptical, the temperature will decrease as the Earth is further from the Sun.
2. Volcanic Activity – Volcanic eruptions release particles of Sulphur Dioxide which reflect the Sun's rays, reducing temperatures. It also releases carbon dioxide which traps the Sun's heat resulting in warmer temperatures.
3. Solar Output – The Sun's solar energy output varies over time. More sunspots can mean that temperatures increase.

Human Factors:

1. Fossil fuels – burning fossil fuels release carbon dioxide into the atmosphere
2. Agriculture – livestock and rice farming produce methane into the atmosphere.
3. Deforestation – Burning wood releases carbon dioxide into the atmosphere.

All these methods lead to the Enhanced Greenhouse Effect which is where:

1. The Sun's solar radiation reaches the Earth's surface where most is absorbed.
2. The radiation is trapped by the additional greenhouse gases such as methane and carbon dioxide.

KPI19 – Effects of Climate Change

General Effect:

- Sea level rise leads to flooding and coastal erosion.
- Sea level rise leads to flooding and coastal erosion.
- Warmer rivers affect marine wildlife.

Specific Example:
The Maldives are a group of small islands in the Indian Ocean some 500km west of India. Some climate models suggest that the islands may be uninhabitable by 2040 and submerged by 2100. The current 380,000 inhabitants have a very uncertain future as sea levels rise.

KPI20 – Managing Climate Change

Mitigation: Strategies which aim to reduce the causes of global warning by reducing the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere.

Examples:

1. Alternative energy production: Using nuclear power, hydroelectric power and solar power releases less greenhouse gases than burning fossil fuels.
2. International agreements: Countries agree common policies such as reducing greenhouse gases by a set amount by a certain date. The Paris Agreement (signed by over 170 countries) is one of the main agreements.
3. Planting trees: Reforestation aims to reverse deforestation by planting trees.
4. Carbon Capture and storage: Involves capturing Co2 released by industry of through burning fossil fuels and then storing it underground. According to the International Energy Agency, CCS can provide 20% of carbon cuts needed by 2050.

Adaptation: Strategies that aim to limit the negative effects of climate change on humans.

Examples:

1. Changing Agricultural Systems: Modifying (*changing)* farming to cope with the changing temperatures and rainfall.
2. Managing Water Supplies: Ensuring that all areas can access water by using water efficient devices and increasing supply through desalination plants. Additionally Ice Stupas can be used (*artificial glaciers)* to ensure all places can access water,
3. Reducing risk from rising sea levels would involve constructing defences such as the Thames Flood Barrier or restoring mangrove forests in Maldives, or raising buildings on stilts.

Year 10 – Physical Landscapes in the UK – River Landscapes

Key words .

- Hard engineering Involves the building of entirely artificial (man made) structures using various materials such as rock, concrete and steel to reduce, disrupt or stop the impact of river processes.
- Hydraulic action The force of the river against the banks can cause air to be trapped in cracks and crevices. The pressure weakens the banks and gradually wears it away.
- Hydrograph A graph which shows the discharge of a river, related to rainfall over a period of time.
- Interlocking spurs A series of ridges projecting out on alternate sides of a valley and around which a river winds its course.
- Lateral erosion Sideways erosion by a river on the outside of a meander channel. It eventually leads to the widening of the valley and contributes to the formation of the flood plain.
- Levees Embankment of sediment along the bank of a river. It may be formed naturally by regular flooding or be built up by people to protect the area against flooding.
- Long profile The gradient of a river, from its source to its mouth.
- Meander A pronounced bend in a river.
- Ox-bow lake An arc-shaped lake which has been cut off from a meandering river.
- Precipitation Moisture falling from the atmosphere - as rain, hail, sleet or snow.
- Saltation Particles bouncing down the river bed.
- Soft engineering Involves the use of the natural environment surrounding a river, using schemes that work with the river's natural processes.
- Solution Soluble particles are dissolved into the river.
- (Channel) straightening Removing meanders from a river to make the river straighter this allows it to carry more water quickly downstream, so it doesn't build up and is less likely to flood.
- Suspension Fine solid material held in the water while the water is moving.
- Traction The rolling of boulders and pebbles along the river bed.
- Vertical erosion Downward erosion of a river bed
- Waterfall Sudden descent of a river or stream over a vertical or very steep slope in its bed. It often forms where the river meets a band of softer rock after flowing over an area of more resistant material

KPI 1 To describe how the long profile changes

The long profile of a river refers to the changes in elevation from the source to the mouth.

- Upper Course: close to the source, the river tends to have a steep gradient, resulting in a rapid flow. The river channel is often narrow and shallow, with rocky or uneven terrain. This section is characterized by vertical erosion as the river cuts through the underlying rock and creates a V-shaped valley. Waterfalls, rapids, and gorges are common features in the upper course.

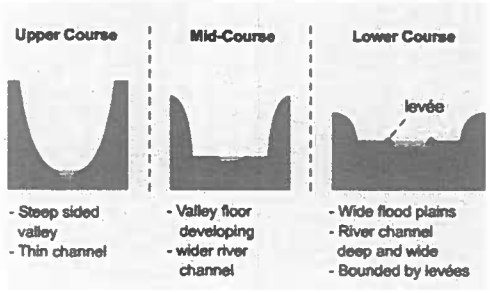
- Middle Course: As the river progresses into the middle course, the gradient becomes less steep. The river channel widens, and the flow of water becomes more meandering. The dominant erosional process shifts from vertical erosion to lateral erosion. The river starts to erode the valley sides and transport sediments downstream. Floodplains and meanders (bends in the river) begin to form in this section. The valley widens, and the river becomes deeper and wider.

- Lower Course: In the lower course, near the mouth of the river, the gradient is very gentle. The river channel becomes wider and deeper, and the flow slows down. Deposition becomes the dominant process, as the river has less energy to transport its load. As a result, the river deposits sediments, creating a wide floodplain. Meanders are well-developed, and oxbow lakes (abandoned meander loops) may be present. The river may also split into several distributaries as it enters the sea or a large body of water.

KPI 2 To describe how the cross profile of a river and its valley changes continued

- The cross profile of a river refers to the shape of the river channel and its valley from one bank to the other. The cross profile changes as the river progresses from the upper course to the lower course.
- Upper Course: In the upper course, the cross profile is typically narrow and V-shaped. The river channel is narrow, with steep valley sides. The river channel is often rocky, with rapids and waterfalls present. The valley sides are steep and may have interlocking spurs, which are ridges of hard rock that jut out into the valley.
- Middle Course: In the middle course, the cross profile becomes wider and more gently sloping. The river channel meanders within the valley, creating a wider floodplain. The valley sides are less steep and may feature gentle slopes or bluffs. Point bars (depositional features) can form on the inside of meander bends, while cut banks (erosional features) can be found on the outside of bends.
- Lower Course: In the lower course, the cross profile is the widest and flattest. The river channel is broad, and the valley sides are gentle. Floodplains are extensive, and the river may have multiple channels or distributaries. Natural levees, formed by successive flooding and deposition of sediments, can be found along the riverbanks.

The actual characteristics of a river and its valley can vary depending on local geology, climate, and other factors.



KPI 3 To explain how a river erodes

A river erodes by wearing away the land and rocks in its path. It does this through different processes:

- Hydraulic Action: The river's moving water can be very powerful, like a bulldozer. It pushes against the riverbanks and riverbed, causing bits of the land to break off and get carried away by the water.
- Abrasion: As the river flows, it carries tiny rocks, sand, and pebbles. These particles act like sandpaper, rubbing against the riverbanks and riverbed.
- Attrition: When the rocks, sand, and pebbles are being carried by the river, they bump into each other and they start to break into smaller pieces. The rocks in the river gradually become smaller and rounder as they keep bumping into each other
- Solution: River water can dissolve certain types of rocks and minerals that it comes into contact with. some rocks, like limestone, are made up of minerals that easily dissolve in water. When a river flows over or through these rocks, the water can react chemically with the rock and make it dissolve. I.

KPI 4 To explain how a river transports

- Traction: Larger, heavier materials like rocks and pebbles are rolled or pushed along the riverbed by the force of the water.
- Saltation: Smaller particles like sand and gravel are lifted up and bounced along the riverbed in a hopping motion before settling back down.
- Suspension: Fine particles like silt and clay are carried within the water, staying suspended and moving with the flow.
- Solution: Some dissolved minerals are transported within the river water itself, without being visible.

As the river flows, it carries its load downstream. The speed and strength of the river's current determine how much load it can transport. During floods or heavy rainfall, when the river's flow is faster and stronger, it can carry more material

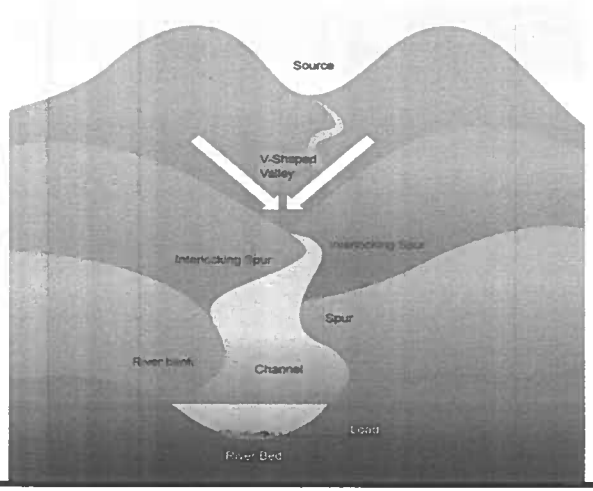
Year 10 – Physical Landscapes in the UK – River Landscapes

- **Abrasion:** Rocks carried along by the river wear down the river bed and banks.
- **Attrition:** Rocks being carried by the river smash together and break into smaller, smoother and rounder particles.
- **Cross profile:** The side to side cross-section of a river channel and/or valley.
- **Dam and reservoir:** A barrier (made on earth, concrete or stone) built across a valley to interrupt river flow and create a man-made lake (reservoir) which stores water and controls the discharge of the river.
- **Discharge:** The quantity of water that passes a given point on a stream or river-bank within a given period of time.
- **Embankments:** Raised banks constructed along the river; they effectively make the river deeper so it can hold more water. They are expensive and do not look natural but they do protect the land around them.
- **Estuary:** The tidal mouth of a river where it meets the sea; wide banks of deposited mud are exposed at low tide.
- **Flood:** Occurs when river discharge exceeds river channel capacity and water spills out of the channel onto the floodplain and other areas.
- **Flood plain:** The relatively flat area forming the valley floor on either side of a river channel, which is sometimes flooded.
- **Flood plain zoning:** This attempts to organise the flood defences in such a way that land that is near the river and often floods is not built on.
- **Flood relief channels:** Building new artificial channels which are used when a river is close to maximum discharge.
- **Flood risk:** The predicted frequency of floods in an area.
- **Flood warning:** Providing reliable advance information about possible flooding. Flood warning systems give people time to remove possessions and evacuate areas.
- **Fluvial processes:** relating to erosion, transport and deposition by a river.
- **Gorge:** A narrow, steep sided valley, often formed as a waterfall retreats upstream

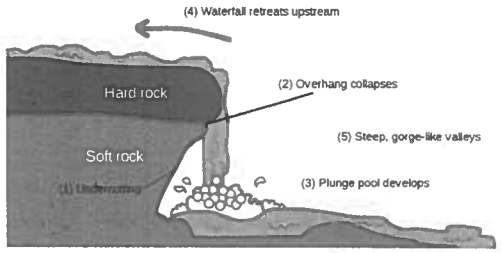
KPI 5 Describe the formation of interlocking spurs

Interlocking spurs are landforms that occur in the upper course of a river and are shaped by the river's erosion and the resistance of the surrounding rock

1. In the upper course of a river, the land is usually steep and uneven. As the river flows downhill, it encounters resistant rock outcrops or harder areas that are more difficult to erode.
2. The river's erosional processes, such as hydraulic action and abrasion, begin to wear away the less resistant rock layers. Over time, the river cuts a narrow and deep channel through the softer rock, forming a V-shaped valley.
3. As the river continues to erode the valley, it encounters areas of more resistant rock. Instead of cutting straight through these areas, the river is forced to flow around them, creating bends or meanders.
4. The river follows the path of least resistance, meandering around the hard rock areas, which act as obstacles. The river winds its way in a zigzag pattern, flowing around one side of the resistant rock and then switching to the other side.
5. As the river flows around these resistant rock features, it leaves behind sections of less eroded land that project out into the valley. These are called interlocking spurs. They appear like a series of projections or fingers that interlock with each other, extending from the valley sides into the river channel.



KPI 6 To describe and explain the formation of waterfalls and gorges



1. Step 1 - Differential Erosion: The formation of a waterfall begins with the presence of alternating layers of hard and soft rock in the river's course.
2. Step 2 - Erosion of the Soft Rock: As the river flows over the less resistant rock, such as softer sedimentary rock or clay, it erodes it more easily through processes like hydraulic action and abrasion. The continuous flow of water gradually undermines the softer rock, creating a plunge pool at the base.
3. Step 3 - Overhang Formation: Over time, the erosion of the softer rock creates an overhang or an unsupported ledge of the resistant rock above it. The overhang becomes more pronounced as the soft rock erodes at a faster rate compared to the resistant rock.
4. Step 4 - Plunge Pool Formation: The erosion process causes the waterfall to retreat upstream, as the soft rock gets worn away by the plunge of the falling water. As the water plunges from the overhang, it creates a powerful force that erodes and deepens a plunge pool at the base of the waterfall.
5. Step 5 - Recession of the Waterfall: Over time, the continued erosion of the soft rock and the undercutting of the resistant rock cause the overhang to become unsupported. Eventually, the overhang collapses, and the waterfall retreats further upstream. This process continues, leading to the backward migration of the waterfall.
6. Step 6 - Gorge Formation: As the waterfall retreats, it leaves behind a steep-sided gorge in the river's course. The process of vertical erosion by the falling water creates a deep, narrow channel downstream of the waterfall

KPI 7 To describe and explain the formation of meanders and ox-bow lakes

1. Formation of a Meander: A meander is a bend or curve in a river's course. Initially, the river may flow in a relatively straight path. However, as it travels across a floodplain or through an area with more easily erodible sediment, the river begins to erode laterally (sideways).
2. Erosion on the Outside Bend: The fastest flow of water occurs on the outside bend of a meander. As a result, the river's erosional forces, such as hydraulic action and abrasion, are concentrated on the outer bank of the bend. The water's force erodes and undercuts the bank, creating a river cliff or a steep slope.
3. Deposition on the Inside Bend: On the inner bank of the meander bend, the flow of water slows down. This slower flow allows for deposition to take place. The river deposits sediment, such as sand, silt, and clay, on the inside bank, creating a gently sloping feature called a slip-off slope.
4. Meander Migration: Over time, erosion and deposition cause the meander to migrate downstream. The erosion of the outer bank creates a wider bend, while the deposition on the inner bank makes the opposite side more pronounced.
5. Neck Formation and Oxbow Lake Formation: As the meander continues to migrate, the neck of the meander, the narrow strip of land between the two bends, becomes narrower. Eventually, due to erosion and natural processes, the river may cut through this narrow strip of land during a flood event, creating a new straighter channel.
6. Oxbow Lake Formation: Once the river has cut through the neck, it takes a shorter, straighter path. The abandoned meander bend is now called an oxbow lake. The oxbow lake is often crescent-shaped and remains filled with water, separated from the main river channel. Overtime it may fill with sediment, vegetation may grow in it, and it may eventually become a marsh or a meadow

Year 10 – Physical Landscapes in the UK – River Landscapes

KPI 8 To explain how a levees is formed

Levees are natural embankments or raised banks that are formed alongside a river channel.

Step 1 - Flooding and Deposition: Levees are typically formed during periods of flooding when the river's water level rises and exceeds the capacity of the river channel. During a flood, the river carries a large volume of sediment, including sand, silt, and clay.

Step 2 - Loss of Velocity: As the river floods, the water spreads out over the floodplain, and its velocity decreases. The slower-moving water loses its ability to carry and transport sediment, causing the sediment to settle or deposit along the edges of the river channel.

Step 3 - Coarse Sediment Deposition: Due to the loss of velocity, the first sediments to be deposited are the larger and coarser particles, such as sand and gravel. These materials are deposited closest to the river channel, forming a layer of coarser sediment.

Step 4 - Fine Sediment Deposition: Beyond the layer of coarser sediment, finer particles like silt and clay settle out of the water as the velocity decreases even further. These finer sediments settle on top of the coarser layer, gradually building up the levee's height.

Step 5 - Repeated Flooding Events: Over time, with each recurring flood event, additional layers of sediment are deposited on top of the existing levee. This process results in the gradual growth and heightening of the levee.

Step 6 - Vegetation Colonization: As the levee builds up, it becomes a raised and relatively stable area compared to the surrounding floodplain. This makes it more suitable for the growth of vegetation, such as grasses and shrubs. The vegetation helps to stabilize the levee by further trapping sediment and reducing erosion.

Step 7 - Reinforcement: As the levee becomes vegetated, the roots of the plants bind the sediment together, strengthening the structure and making it more resistant to erosion.

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KPI 9 Describe the formation of floodplains and estuaries

Floodplain Formation:

- Step 1: Erosion and Deposition: Floodplains are created by the erosion and deposition of sediment by a river over time. In the upper course of a river, erosion processes like hydraulic action and abrasion remove material from the riverbed and banks. This eroded material, such as sand, silt, and clay, is then transported downstream.

- Step 2: Deposition on the Floodplain: As the river reaches the middle and lower courses, its velocity decreases, and it loses its ability to carry the sediment. The sediment is then deposited on the floodplain during periods of flooding. Floods occur when the river's water level exceeds its channel capacity, and the excess water spreads out onto the adjacent land.

- Step 3: Building Up of Sediment Layers: Each time a flood occurs, a new layer of sediment is deposited on the floodplain. Over time, this accumulation of sediment builds up the height and extent of the floodplain.

- Step 4: Formation of Natural Levees: During flooding events, the river's water velocity decreases, causing sediment to be deposited near the river channel. Coarser particles, such as sand and gravel, are deposited closest to the channel, forming natural embankments known as levees. These levees help confine the river within its channel during subsequent floods.

Estuary Formation:

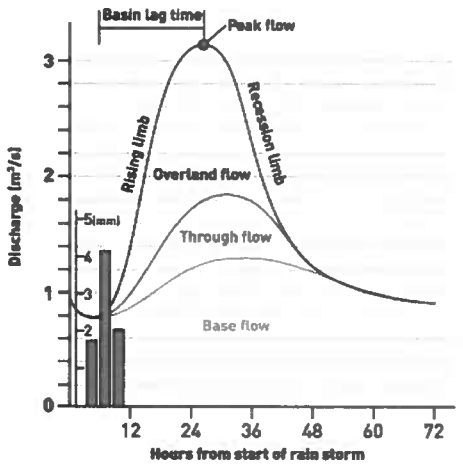
- Step 1: An estuary is formed at the point where a river meets the sea or ocean. The river carries sediment and freshwater downstream, while the sea or ocean brings in tidal currents and saltwater.

- Step 2: As the river flows into the estuary, the slower-moving water loses its capacity to transport sediment. This leads to the deposition of fine sediment, such as silt and clay, within the estuary.

- Step 4: Tidal currents play a significant role in shaping estuaries. As tides rise and fall, they cause the water to move in and out of the estuary, resulting in the erosion and deposition of sediment. The tidal currents can create channels, sandbars, and tidal flats within the estuary.

- Step 5: Development of Salt Marshes and Mudflats: The deposition of sediment and the interaction of freshwater and saltwater create favourable conditions for the growth of salt-tolerant vegetation, such as salt marsh grasses. Salt marshes and mudflats are common features in estuaries, providing habitats for a variety of plant and animal species.

KPI 10To describe how hydrographs to show the relationship between precipitation and discharge



Hydrographs are graphs that show the flow or discharge of water in a river over a specific period of time, usually in response to a rainfall event:

Discharge: Discharge refers to the volume of water passing through a specific cross-section of the river per unit of time.
Rising Limb: The rising limb of the hydrograph represents the increasing flow of water in the river following the onset of rainfall. As the rainfall infiltrates the ground and generates surface runoff, the river's discharge begins to rise.
Peak Flow: The peak flow is the highest point on the hydrograph and represents the maximum discharge reached during the rainfall event. It indicates the intensity of the rainfall and the river's response to it.
Lag Time: Lag time is the time delay between the peak rainfall and the peak flow in the river. It reflects the time it takes for the rainfall to reach the river, considering factors such as the rainfall intensity, soil conditions, and river characteristics.
Falling Limb: The falling limb of the hydrograph represents the decrease in river discharge following the cessation of rainfall. As the rainfall stops and the runoff diminishes, the river's discharge gradually returns to its base flow or pre-rainfall level.
Base Flow: The base flow represents the normal or background discharge of the river during non-rainfall periods. It is the flow sustained by groundwater sources and other ongoing inputs to the river.

KPI 11 To identify the factors that can affect flood risk

Several factors can affect flood risk in a particular area.

Natural Factors:

- Precipitation: The amount, intensity, and duration of rainfall are significant factors in flood risk. Heavy or prolonged rainfall can lead to increased runoff and overwhelm the capacity of rivers and drainage systems to handle the water, resulting in flooding.

- Drainage Basin Characteristics: The characteristics of the drainage basin, such as its size, shape, slope, and vegetation cover, influence how water is collected and transported within the basin. Areas with larger drainage basins, steep slopes, or insufficient vegetation cover are more prone to rapid runoff and increased flood risk.

Human Factors .

- Urbanisation and Land Use: The construction of buildings, roads, and other impervious surfaces reduces the natural infiltration of water into the soil, leading to increased surface runoff and a higher likelihood of flooding.

- Deforestation: deforestation less vegetation to intercept precipitation leads to increased surface run-off

Year 10 – Physical Landscapes in the UK – River Landscapes

KPI 12 Describe and explain the costs and benefits of hard engineering

Hard engineering refers to the use of artificial structures and techniques to manage and control the flow of rivers and prevent flooding.

Method	Benefits	Disadvantages
Dams and reservoirs (hard)	Reservoirs store water reducing the volume of water downstream. Water can be used for drinking and HEP.	Dams are very expensive to build and reservoirs can flood existing settlements. Material is deposited in the reservoir affecting farmland downstream
Channel straightening (hard)	Water moves quickly reducing the risk of flooding	Flooding risk and erosion rates increase downstream as the water ins moving faster.
Embankments (hard)	Increasing the volume of the channel	Very expensive and they can break

KPI 13 Restore rivers and their surrounding areas. Unlike hard engineering, which relies on artificial structures, soft engineering aims to work in harmony with the natural environment to achieve sustainable river management

Method	Benefits	Disadvantages
Flood warnings (soft)	People have time to move belongings upstairs and evacuate	They don't prevent flooding and people may not hear them
Flood plain zoning (soft)	The risk of flooding is reduced as building work does not happen on the floodplain	Space is limited in some urban areas which can cause conflict and some floodplains are already built on
Afforestation (soft)	Interception increases which reduces discharge. Creates habitats.	Less land available for farming
River restoration (soft)	Removing land made levees allows flood plains to flood. River is in its natural state	Local flood risk increases if nothing else is done

KPI 14 Describe an example of a flood management scheme in the UK

Location: located in Oxfordshire, England
Why was the Banbury Flood Management Plan needed? Banbury has been affected by flooding of the River Cherwell numerous times. The 1998 flood led to the closure of the railway station and caused £12.5 million in damage. There was further flooding in 2007.
What is the Banbury Flood Management Plan? 2012 construction of flood storage reservoir costing £18.5 mill.
The key features of the scheme included: raising the A36, constructing new pumping stations to transfer water, controlling the flow of the River Cherwell through the Hardwick and Huscote flow control structures, a biodiversity Action Plan (BAP) habitat with ponds, trees and hedgerows, constructing 4.5m high embankments using soil taken from the borrow area, which is now a small reservoir used for storing water that would otherwise have caused the River Cherwell to flood

What issues resulted from the scheme?

Social	Economic	Environmental
• The A361 is no longer affected by flooding, reducing transport disruption for local people. • The new green areas and footpaths have improved the quality of life for local people. • Reduced anxiety in local communities as the risk of flooding has been reduced.	• The cost of the scheme was £18.5 million. • The benefits are estimated at over £100 million. • 441 houses and 73 commercial properties are protected from flooding. • Property values have increased as they are no longer at risk of flooding.	• Around 100,000 tonnes of earth were required to make the embankment resulting in some habitat destruction. • The Biodiversity Action Plan (BAP) has resulted in planting trees and hedgerows and constructing ponds. • The BAP has created new ponds, trees and hedgerow habitats. • Part of the floodplain will be left to flood if river levels get too high. • The reservoir provides a temporary habitat for waterbirds.

Year 10 French Term 3 – Numéro vacances et notre planète (Holiday and Our Planet)

5.1	I would like to spend my holidays in the countryside.	Je voudrais passer mes vacances à la campagne.
	We would like to visit the beautiful sites.	On voudrait visiter de beaux sites.
5.2	You must try the local desserts.	Il faut essayer les desserts locaux.
	The castle opens at 8 am and closes at midday.	Le château a huit heures et ferme à midi.
5.3	Last month I went to my uncle's house.	Le mois dernier, je suis allé chez mon oncle.
	I saw the dancer and I listened to the music.	J'ai vu des danseurs et j'ai écouté de la musique.
5.4	I spent a week at this hotel.	J'ai passé une nuit dans cet hôtel.
	There was a pool but my room was not very clean.	Il y avait une piscine mais ma chambre n'était pas très propre.
5.5	If the weather is good, I am going to do cycling.	S'il fait beau, je vais faire du vélo.
	This summer I am going to go to Paris by car.	Cet été je vais aller à Paris en voiture.
6.1	My region is well known for its forests	Ma région est bien connue pour ses forêts.
	In the north it rains a lot in spring.	Dans le nord, il pleut beaucoup au printemps.
6.2	The most important problem for the planet is climate change.	Le problème le plus important pour la planète est le changement climatique.
	Air pollution is a huge problem.	La pollution de l'air est un problème énorme.
6.3	To protect the environment, you should respect nature.	Pour protéger l'environnement, il faut respecter la nature.
	You should stop using plastic products.	Il faut arrêter d'utiliser des produits en plastique.
6.4	I take public transport.	Je prends les transports en commun.
	It is better for the environment.	C'est mieux pour l'environnement.

6.5	At our school we avoid food waste.	Dans notre collège on évite le gaspillage de nourriture.
	We are going to speak at a conference.	On va parler à une conférence.

MFL key classroom language:

Term 3.1 Numéro vacances

Key term: Infinitive

Definition: The 'to' form of the verb

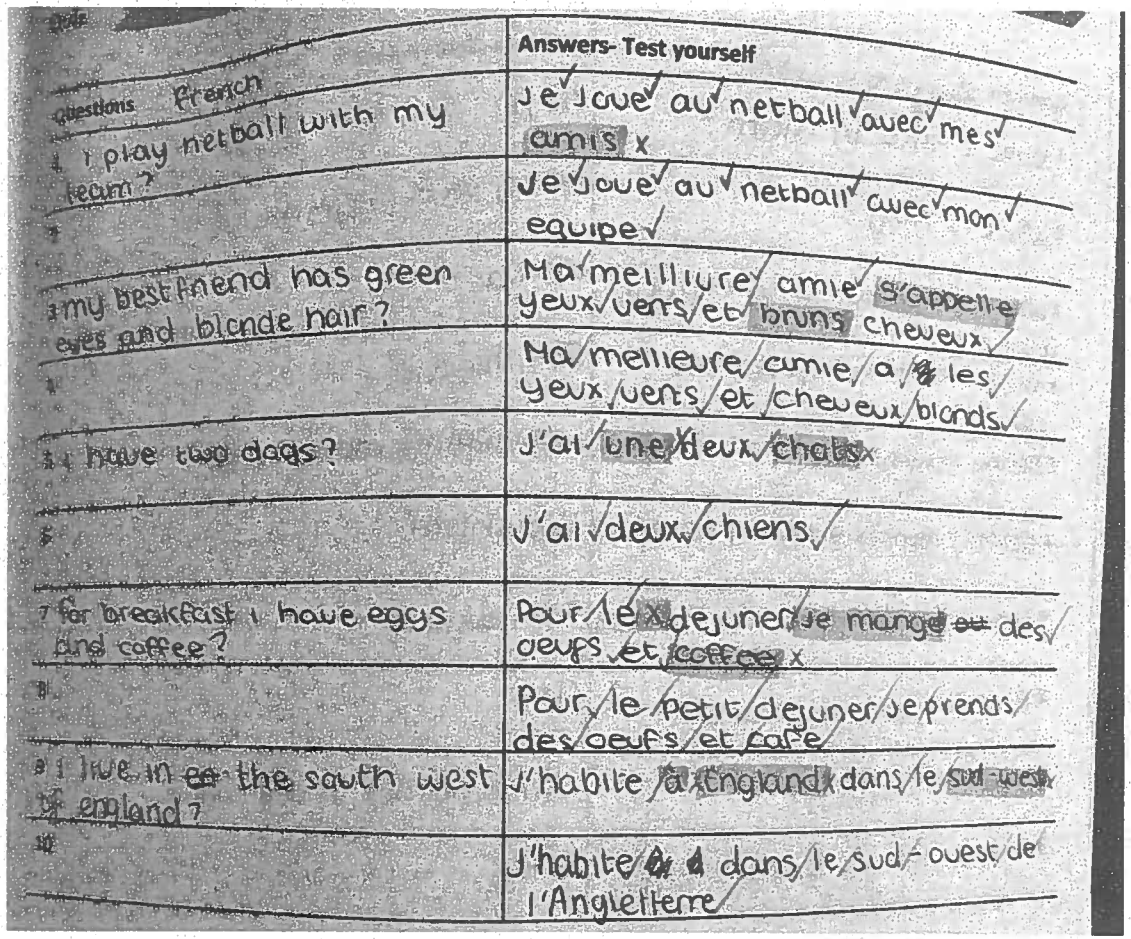
Example: voyager (to travel)

Term 3.2 Notre planète (Our Planet)

Key term: Subjunctive

Definition: A form of the verb used when there is an element of doubt or necessity.

Example: il faut qu'on fasse quelque chose (we must do something)



Questions French	Answers- Test yourself
1 I play netball with my team?	Je joue au netball avec mes amis x
2	Je joue au netball avec mon equipe
3 my best friend has green eyes and blonde hair?	Ma meilleure amie s'appelle yeux verts et bruns cheveux
4	Ma meilleure amie a les yeux verts et cheveux blonds
5 I have two dogs?	J'ai une deux chats x
6	J'ai deux chiens
7 for breakfast I have eggs and coffee?	Pour le x dejuner je mange ~~et~~ des oeufs et coffee x
8	Pour le petit dejuner je prends des oeufs et cafe
9 I live in ~~en~~ the south west of england?	J'habite a x england x dans le sud west
10	J'habite dans le sud-ouest de l'Angleterre

Year 10 Term 3 Spanish - A clase / Mi barrio y yo

SB 5.1	Normally I go to school by foot.	Normalmente voy al insti a pie
	I am a member of the dance club	Soy miembro del club de baile
SB 5.2	My favourite subject is Spanish	Mi asignatura favorita es el espanol
	because it allows you to learn about other cultures	porque te permite aprender sobre otras culturas
SB 5.3	I would improve the food in the canteen.	Mejoraría la comida en el comedor.
	The bad thing is that the facilities are old	Lo malo es que las instalaciones son viejas.
SB 5.4	I'm a good student and I study a lot for exams.	Soy un buen alumno y estudio mucho para los exámenes.
	My maths teacher is hardworking but strict.	Mi profe de matemáticas es trabajador pero estricto.
SB 5.5	Recently I went to Mardid with my class.	Recientemente fui a Madrid con mi clase.
	The first day the weather was bad.	El primer día hizo mal tiempo.
SB 6.1	I have visited the science museum.	He visitado el museo de ciencias.
	We have done many things.	Hemos hecho muchas cosas.
SB 6.2	Now my town is modern and quiet.	Ahora mi pueblo es moderno y tranquilo.
	Before, my town was more industrial.	Antes, mi pueblo era más industrial.
SB 6.3	I go shopping in second hand shops	Voy de compras en tiendas de segunda mano.
	Last Saturday I bought black shoes and a skirt.	El sábado pasado compre zapatos negros y una falda.

SB 6.4	I prefer to live in a city more than the countryside.	Prefiero vivir en una ciudad más que en el campo.
	When I am older I will live with my boyfriend.	Cuando sea mayor viviré con mi novio.
SB 6.5	First I am going to go shopping.	Primero voy a ir de compras
	Later I am going to play video games.	Luego voy a jugar a los videojuegos.

MFL key classroom language:

A clase (School) Key term: Conditional Definition: The 'would' form of the verb. Example: Cambiaría el uniforme (I would change the uniform).
Mi barrio y yo (My town) Key term: Perfect vs imperfect Definition: The perfect tense describes a completed action in the past. The imperfect tense is used for repeated actions or descriptions in the past. Example: Antes mi pueblo era más limpio (before my town was cleaner)

Art - Year 10 - Unit 1 - Project 2: Identity

Big Idea 1: Technical Skill and Mastery (AO3)		Big Idea 2: Art in Context (AO1)	Big Ideas 3: Critical Thinking & Evaluation (AO1/ AO3)
Formal Elements **Line** A mark that connects two or more points. These can be straight, curved, short or long. **Tone** The lightness or darkness or something. For darker tones use a higher grade B pencil. **Colour** Colour is what you see when light reflects off something. Colours are often used to create a range of emotions. **Texture** How something looks or feels e.g. fluffy, rough, smooth etc. **Pattern** A symbol, shape or colour that repeats. **Shape/Form** Shape is 2D e.g. rectangles. Form is 3D e.g. cubes, spheres etc. **Primary Colours** Colours that can't be mixed/ made from other colours e.g. red, yellow and blue. **Secondary Colours**	**Shading Techniques** Hatching, Cross-Hatching, Stippling and Scumbling. **Composition** This is where you decide to place 'things' within your work. Things can refer to lines, shapes, colours, textures, objects etc. **Watercolour Wash** Making watercolours lighter by adding more water. **Collage** Ripping/ Cutting materials such as paper, photographs or fabric and sticking them to a surface to create an image. **Mixed Media** Using more than one material within a piece of work. **Proportion** The correct size and placement of objects within a piece of work. **Grid Method** Splitting an image into smaller equal squares or rectangles to accurately copy an image. This method helps you draw in proportion.	**Portrait** A piece that depicts a human face or figure. **Facial Expressions** The arrangement of facial features (eyes, eyebrows, nose and mouth) to show specific emotions. **Body Language** How a figure is positioned to express emotions. **Anatomy** The structure and physical makeup of living things such as organs, tissues and cells. **Landscape** A piece that depicts a view of some sort e.g. mountains, the sea, fields, woodlands, buildings etc. **Still Life** A piece that depicts an object or group of objects. **Identity** The qualities, beliefs, personality traits, appearance, and/or expressions that characterize a person or group.	**Analyse** To break something e.g. an artwork into smaller parts so you can examine it more easily. In art we analyse a work by identifying the Formal Elements (**Form**), explaining how it is made (**Process**) and why it has been made (**Mood**). **Evaluate** To determine the quality of your work as well as your understanding of how you can develop and improve your work. This is often done during a project and at the end of a project. **Annotate** Providing written notes on your work as it develops as well as the process of writing notes during artist research. **Copy of an Artwork** Copying the style and technique of an artist's work to enable you to understand the process of how it has been made. **Own Interpretation** Developing your own work by applying artist style or technique to your own ideas.

Colours that can be made by mixing two primary colours.
Red + Blue = Purple
Yellow + Blue = Green
Yellow + Red = Orange

Tertiary Colours
Colours that can be made by mixing a primary and secondary colour together e.g. Blue + Green = Turquoise.

Complementary Colours
Colours that are opposite each other on the colour wheel.
Blue & Orange
Red & Green
Purple & Yellow

Analogue Colours
Colours that are next to each other on the colour wheel e.g. Red, red-orange and orange.

Tints/ Shades
Tint - Adding white to a colour to make it lighter.
Shades - Adding black to a colour to make it darker.

Blender Stick
A paper stump that allows you to blend tones.

Blending
The smooth transition between tones.

Fragmentation
The process of breaking or splitting an image.

Mono-Printing
A form of printmaking that has lines or images that can only be made once.

Relief Printing
Carving/cutting into a surface.
Carved/cut areas remain untouched by ink, only uncarved areas transfer colour e.g. poly-tile and lino printing.

Impasto
Paint is laid on an area of the surface in very thick layers, usually thick enough that the brush or painting-knife strokes are visible.

Cultural Identity
A shared sense of belonging to a group based on factors such a nationality, race, religion, tradition or social habits.

Social Injustice
The unfair treatment or discrimination against individuals or groups, resulting in unequal rights and opportunities.

Discrimination
The unfair treatment of individuals or groups based on protective characteristics such as age, disability, race, sex, religion or sexual orientation.

Social Class
The grouping of people based on factors such as wealth, income, education and your job.

Symbolism
The use of an image, object or colour to express more complex themes, ideas or emotions beyond their actual physical appearance e.g. a rose can be a rose or symbolise love/beauty.

Artist who link to the theme Identity:
Beau Bernier Frank, Barbara Kruger, Molly Crabapple, Frida Kahlo, Cindy Sherman, Sandra Chevrier, Shirin Neshat, Tracy Emin, Pepon Osorio, Jenny Saville, Kehinde Wiley, Alexandra levasseur, Aldo Tambellini and Loui Jover.

Refining Ideas
Annotating and evaluating experiments and as a result making decisions to improve work.

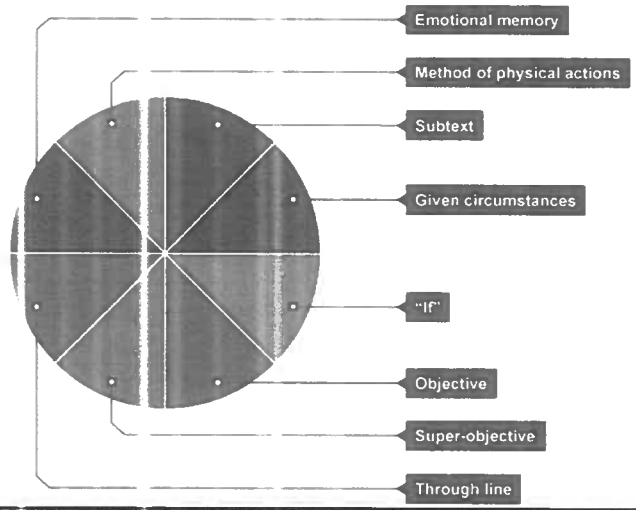
Big Idea 4: Personal Expression & Reflection (AO4/AO3)

Personal Expression
The act of using your imagination, thoughts and feelings to develop your artwork.

Final Piece
The final outcome to a project where you apply what you have learnt throughout the project e.g. theme, skills & techniques and links to artists.

Links to Artists
Using elements of artist work e.g. theme, colour or techniques in your own work.

Stanislavski's Method



Skills	Aspects of skills
Facial Expressions	Eye contact, eye brows, straight, emotions, gritting teeth, tense, relaxed, wrinkled, creased, staring, twitching.
Voice	Tone, pitch, pace, emotion, volume, projection, dialogue, dialect, accent, intonation, whistling, SFX, interjection.
Body language	Posture, blocking, positioning, front on, side on, emotions, age, open or closed.
Gestures	Hands, arms, speed, clicking, rubbing, waving, mannerisms
Movement	Speed, pace, acceleration, gait, mannerisms, special awareness, stage presence.

LEARNING AIMS

A **Develop skills and techniques for performance**
B **Apply skills and techniques in rehearsal and performance**
C **Review own development and performance**

L2 Distinction— Analyse own development and application of skills and techniques, using considered examples to identify strengths and set targets for improvement.

Year 10—Drama

Example of *Pass* standard self-evaluation—DESCRIBE

(Say what you did)

At the moment, I am good at creating characters as I start acting as soon as I get a script. I use a variety of vocal skills including pace, accent and projection to create these characters. My movement skills need some work, for example - I think I need to focus on improving my gestures.

Example of *Merit* standard self-evaluation—DISCUSS

(Say what you did and why you did it)

At the moment, I am good at creating characters from scratch as I begin improvising and rehearsing as soon as I get a script. I use a variety of vocal skills including pace, accent and projection to create these characters, for example - when playing an older character recently, I spoke in an exaggerated tone and the raised the volume of my voice. My movement skills need some work, for example - I think I need to focus on improving my gestures as last time, I didn't use enough. My posture also needed work as my back was too straight.

Example of *Distinction* standard self-evaluation—EVALUATE

(Say what you did, why you did it and what the effect on the audience would be)

At the moment, I would say that my improvisation skills are good as I feel comfortable enough to create characters almost immediately after reading a script. I use a variety of vocal skills including pace, accent and projection to create these characters, for example - when playing an older character recently, I spoke in an exaggerated elderly tone to express an element of humour to an audience and raised the volume of my voice to have the effect of this older person not having good hearing and wanted people to speak up. I feel that my movement skills need improvements however, if I am to become a better actor. For example, I think I need to focus on improving my gestures as last time, they weren't expressive enough and it made my character less believable. Also, my posture needed to be more hunched over as my back was too straight and I think I could've moved in a more staggered manner to express to the audience how unstable this character was on their feet. All in all, I feel that I have a pretty good understanding of how to vocally convey characters but need some work on how to physically portray them.

Terminology	Definition
Interpretation	Finding the meaning/action within a script
Stage directions	Guidelines/hints for actors within a script
Blocking	Where actors are positioned on stage
Proxemics	How close actors are on stage
Semiotics	Study of words and symbols
Characterisation	Skills used to create a character
Given circumstances	Stanislavski technique - looking at the script, what do we definitely know to be fact?
Status	The amount of power/dominance each character has over others
Levels	How high or low your body is positioned
Long term targets	What do you want to achieve by the end of this unit?
Short term targets	What do you want to achieve within the next few rehearsals?
Physical skills	Everything you can do with your face, hands, movement and body.
Vocal skills	Everything you can do with your voice—be specific with terms.
Interpretive skills	How well you interpret a script or a character. How do you become the charac-

Notice the difference in wording between pass, merit and distinction. The best way to get a distinction is to keep on top of your logbook, write in detail—often.

QUALITY AND QUANTITY!

See Mr Thomas for assistance with learning lines.

Interpreting a script

Line learning methods

1. Read the line, cover it up, read it out loud, check for accuracy.
2. Break script up into sections, read one section over and over again.
3. Read over your lines for short periods of time numerous times a day.
4. Write them out on lined paper repeatedly.
5. Record yourself (video or voice note) performing the lines and listen to it on repeat.
6. Write out the first word of each line.

Skills	Aspects of skills
Facial Expressions	Eye contact, eye brows, straight, emotions, gritting teeth, tense, relaxed, wrinkled, creased, staring, twitching.
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Evaluating a rehearsal - DISTINCTION Example

In today's rehearsal, my group worked really well and blocked a new part of our script which showed my character becoming aggressive with his wife. We first thought about the using mime during this part of the scene with a piece of tense music to effectively show the build up in tension. However, after trying this, we discovered two things; firstly, the dialogue was more effective if it flowed naturally and secondly, the music didn't suit our style of performance (naturalistic scenes do not feature mime). We decided that I needed to pause and give a wide-eyed stare at my wife with an angry facial expression, showing that I was becoming more tense and giving the audience a clear sense of foreboding. After a deep breath, I suddenly tried to shout at her to provoke a natural reaction. We felt that this worked really effectively because the audience would be on the edge of their seats and feeling tense. Overall, the rehearsal went really well and we agreed that this was a high point of drama that should definitely remain in our final performance.

Types of Staging

Proscenium Arch - most famous variety, raised stage with fixed arch above it, auditorium looking on.

Traverse - like a catwalk, stage down middle and audience on either side.

Thrust - stage thrusts out into the audience so that they are closer to the action.

In the round - audience surrounds stage, action takes place in the middle.

End on - stage is on level ground with auditorium and no arch above the stage.

Black Box Studio - studio room kitted out with lighting and sound, adaptable staging types and open canvas.

Auditorium - where the audience sit to watch the performance.

The diagram on your right shows the most powerful positions on stage with 1 (centre stage) being most powerful, 9 (upstage right) being least powerful.

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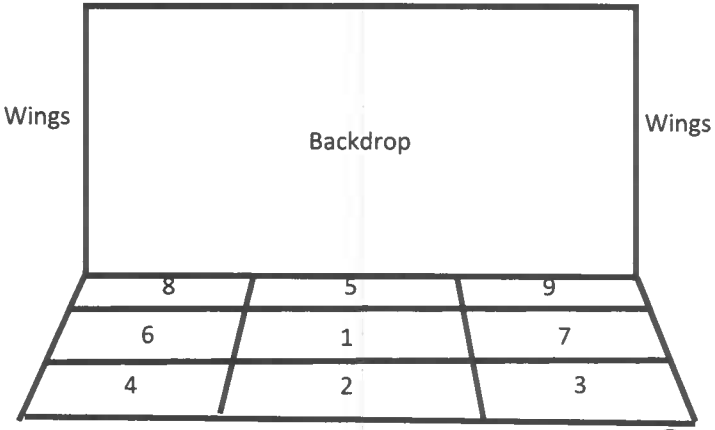
Characterisation	Skills used to create a character
Given circumstances	Stanislavski technique - looking at the script, what do we definitely know to be fact?
Status	The amount of power/dominance each character has over others
Levels	How high or low your body is positioned
Props	Items or objects used on stage
Set	Arrangement of scenery and props to create a place on stage
LFX	Lighting effects
SFX	Sound effects

YOU NEED TO ENSURE YOU HAVE RESEARCHED YOUR CHOSEN TEXT, STYLE AND PLAYWRIGHT SO THAT YOU ARE AWARE OF THEIR DRAMATIC INTENTIONS AND PRESENT THEM ACCURATELY.



Year 10 Photography—Unit 1 Term 3

AO1- Develop ideas through investigations and research.

Artist Research!!

Evidence can include:

Selecting relevant photographers and artists.

Assessing the reliability of a source.

Detailed artist research.

In-depth analysis of the work of others.

Grading criteria for level 9:

Demonstrate independent critical investigation and in-depth understanding of sources to develop ideas convincingly.

AO2- Refine work by exploring ideas and experimenting.

Experimenting!!

Evidence can include:

Developing a range of edits using Affinity photo.

Physical photo manipulation techniques explored.

Experiment with a variety of camera angles, compositions and lighting.

Grading criteria for level 9:

Effectively apply a wide range of creative and technical skills, experimentation and innovation to develop and refine work

AO3-Record ideas, observations and Insights

Annotations!!

Evidence can include:

Creation of annotated contact pages.

Sketches to show photoshoot setups.

Annotations to explain their process and outcomes.

Grading criteria for level 9:

Record and use perceptive insights and observations with well-considered influences on ideas

Ao4-Present a personal and meaningful response.

Final Response!!

Evidence can include:

Responses to each photographer studied.

Inspiration taken from their styles, techniques and/or process.

Grading criteria for level 9:

Demonstrate advanced use of visual language, technique, media and contexts to realise personal ideas

Photography techniques

Affinity Photo 2 edits:

Threshold– high contrast black and white, to enhance texture.

Halftone– adding the halftone (dot) texture and one colour.

Blending modes– layering images over each other, with different effects.

Gradient map– add colour gradients to an image.

Opacity– making a layer transparent.

Outlining—use of negative line to outline an object.

Adding a **new pixel layer**

Adding an **adjustment layer**

Screenshot– Windows + Shift + S

Camera settings

A-DEP Automatic Depth of Field

M Manual

AV Aperture – Priority

TV Shutter —Priority

P Programmed Automatic

Scene Intelligent Auto

No Flash

Filming

Night Portrait

Sports

Macro

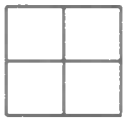
Landscape

Portrait

Creative Auto

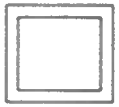
Composition

Centering



Centering is a composition tool, where you arrange your image with the focal point in the middle. This creates a calm and pleasing composition.

Frame within a frame

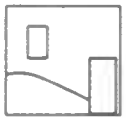


Frame within a frame is a composition tool, where you have the outline of the photograph as the first frame and a second frame within the photograph. One example would be an archway, which frames a scene through the doorway.

Symmetry

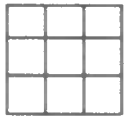
Symmetry is a composition tool, where you have a mirroring in the image. This creates a balanced composition and can create a pattern if repeated.

Balance



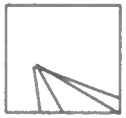
Balance is a composition tool, which pairs well with rule of thirds. If you have a large focal point on the right hand side of the frame, balance would be making sure there is a smaller object on the left to act as a second focal point.

Rule of thirds



Rule of thirds is another composition tool, where you place the focal point off centre using the grid, to create balanced and intriguing images.

Leading lines

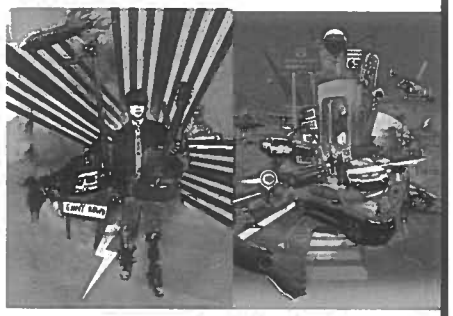


Leading lines is a composition tool, where you have lines in the photo that lead the eye towards the focal point.

Negative space

Negative space is a composition tool, where you have the main object surrounded by a plain background. This avoids any distractions in the background and brings attention to the focal point.

Tim Marrs— British Illustrator



How does Tim Marrs create his work?

In his collages, Tim Marrs pieces together diverse visual elements to create colourful works of art. With computer manipulation, he seamlessly merges drawings, photographs, silk-screen prints and movie posters.

He combines photos with drawings and patterns. Using contrast colours to create striking, eye catching illustrations.

Digital photo manipulation

Using Affinity Photo2:

Scaling– Ctrl T and then you can scale, position and rotate your photo.

Selecting colours—The Eyedropper tool can sample colours from anywhere in an image and add them to your Swatches panel.

Fixing imperfections—Small changes- select spot healing tool.

Click on the imperfection you want to remove.

Bigger changes- Select clone stamp tool.

Use Alt to select what you want to use to cover the imperfect with (e.g. part of the background). Then use the clone stamp tool to paint over the imperfection.

Removing the background—Use quick selection  tool .

Select what you want to keep.

To deselect parts hold Alt and click on them.

Once happy, copy and paste your selection. (Ctrl C, Ctrl V)

Then make the layer with the background invisible or delete it. 

GCSE Business: Year 10 Summer Term

1.5 Stakeholders and External Influences

Stakeholder	Main Objective
Owners/Shareholders	High profits and high dividends (share of the profit).
Employees	Job security, high wages, and good working conditions.
Customers	High quality products and low, competitive prices.
Suppliers	To be paid on time and receive regular, large orders.
Local Community	Jobs for local people and low levels of pollution/noise.
Government	That the business follows the law and pays the correct amount of tax.

1.5 Stakeholders and External Influences

Stakeholder Conflict: Explanations and Outcomes

Conflict occurs because it is often impossible to satisfy all stakeholders at once.

- **Employees vs. Owners:** Employees want a pay rise. **Outcome:** If granted, business costs rise and profit falls. If denied, staff motivation may drop, leading to lower productivity.
- **Customers vs. Owners:** Customers want lower prices. **Outcome:** Lower prices reduce the profit margin. If the owner keeps prices high, customers may switch to a rival.
- **Local Community vs. Owners:** The community wants less traffic/noise. **Outcome:** Restricting deliveries to please locals may limit the business's ability to fulfill orders or grow.

1.5 External Influences (Long Answer Details)

Definition: External influences are factors outside of a business's control that impact its operations. **Importance:** Businesses must monitor these to identify opportunities (e.g., new tech) and threats (e.g., new laws) to ensure they remain profitable and legal.

- **Technology: E-commerce** allows 24/7 global trading but requires expensive maintenance. **Social Media** provides targeted marketing but risks instant negative PR.
- **Legislation (Important Laws):**
  - **Employment Law:** Includes the **Equality Act** (prevents discrimination) and **Health & Safety at Work Act**. Increases costs but improves staff retention.
  - **Quality & Safety:** The **Consumer Rights Act** ensures goods are of "satisfactory quality" and "fit for purpose." Failure leads to legal fines and refunds.
  - **Advertising:** Controlled by the **ASA (Advertising Standards Authority)**; claims must be legal, decent, honest, and truthful.
- **The Economy:**
  - **Taxation:** Includes **Corporation Tax** (on profits) and **VAT** (on sales). Higher taxes reduce the amount of money a business has to reinvest in growth.
  - **Exchange Rates:** The value of the Pound (£). **SPICED** (Strong Pound, Imports Cheap, Exports Dear). A strong pound hurts UK exporters.
  - **Interest Rates:** Set by the Bank of England. High rates make borrowing for expansion expensive and reduce consumer spending power.

GCSE Business: Year 10 Summer Term

2.1 Exporting (Internal Growth) Pros & Cons	
Pros	**Cons**
Massive increase in potential customers and sales revenue.	Risk of **Exchange Rate** fluctuations making prices unstable.
Reduces risk: If the UK economy struggles, other countries may be strong.	High costs for shipping, insurance, and international marketing.
Extends the life cycle of existing products by finding new markets.	Difficulties with language barriers, different laws, and cultural tastes.
Pros	**Cons**
Massive increase in potential customers and sales revenue.	Risk of **Exchange Rate** fluctuations making prices unstable.
Reduces risk: If the UK economy struggles, other countries may be strong.	High costs for shipping, insurance, and international marketing.

2.1 Growing the Business

Internal (Organic) Growth

- **New Products:** Diversifying the range to reach new customers (e.g., Apple moving from computers to the iPhone).
- **New Markets (Exports):** Selling products to customers in other countries.

External (Inorganic) Growth

- **Merger:** Two businesses join to form one larger firm.
- **Takeover:** A larger business buys a smaller one.

2.1 Mergers & Takeovers (External Growth) Pros & Cons	
Pros	**Cons**
Economies of Scale: Larger scale leads to a lower cost per unit.	**Culture Clash:** Staff from different businesses may not work well together.
Fast method of growth that instantly removes a competitor.	**Diseconomies of Scale:** Business becomes too big and hard to manage.
Instant access to new technology, staff expertise, and customers.	High initial cost and the risk that the business was overvalued.

GCSE Business: Year 10 Summer Term

2.1 Sources of Finance for Growth		
Source	**Pros**	**Cons**
Retained Profit	No interest to pay; owner keeps full control.	Once spent, it is gone; may be slow to build up.
Selling Shares (PLC)	Can raise massive amounts of capital with no interest.	Loss of control to shareholders; risk of hostile takeover.
Bank Loan	Fixed repayments allow for easy budgeting.	Interest must be paid; often requires "collateral" (security).

2.1 Globalisation/Ethics

Globalisation: The process of businesses operating internationally. It allows for **Offshoring** (cheaper labor) but creates intense competition from global giants.

Ethics: Moral principles that guide business behavior.

- **Trade-off:** Being ethical (e.g., paying a **Living Wage** or using sustainable materials) increases costs but builds a strong brand image.
- **Sustainability:** Ensuring the business meets today's needs without compromising the ability of future generations to meet theirs.

Calculations	
Calculation	**Formula**
Market Share (%)	(Business Sales ÷ Total Market Sales) x 100
Gross Profit	Sales Revenue - Cost of Sales
Net Profit	Gross Profit - Other Operating Expenses

GCSE Business: Year 10 Summer Term

Glosssary	
Term	**Definition**
E-commerce	Buying and selling goods and services over the internet.
Ethical Sourcing	Buying from suppliers who provide good working conditions and fair pay.
Globalisation	The process by which businesses operate on an international scale.
Merger	When two businesses agree to join together to form one larger firm.
Takeover	When one business buys more than 50% of the shares of another business.
Sustainability	Running a business in a way that does not use up natural resources.
Legislation	The collective name for all the laws that a business must follow.
Pressure Group	An organization that aims to change business behavior (e.g., Greenpeace).
Exchange Rate	The value of one currency compared to another.
Disposable Income	The money a consumer has left to spend after paying essential bills.
Economies of Scale	A reduction in the cost per unit as the business grows in size.
Franchising	Allowing another person to use a business idea in exchange for a fee.

GCSE PE 2.1 a Engagement patterns of different social groups in physical activities and sports

Engagement patterns of different social groups in physical activities and sports

Physical activity and sport in the UK.

Be familiar with current trends in participation in physical activity and sport-

Participation By Gender-

Children and young people-
Boys (51% or 1.8 million) are more likely to be active than girls (43% or 1.5 million)
Adults-
Men (65% or 14.2 million) are more likely to be active than women (61% or 14.2 million).

Participation by age

- The proportion of adults taking part in at least one sport or physical activity decreases with age (except for walking)

Proportion of adults who take part in at least one sport or physical activity (including walking)	
16-24 year olds	65-74 years
84%	83%
Proportion of adults who take part in at least one sport or physical activity (excluding walking)	
16-19 year olds	70+ years
55%	19%

Activity levels of adults generally decrease with age. The sharpest decrease is at age 75+

Disability

Proportion of adults with a long term limiting illness or disability that played sport once a week	
2015/16	2017/18
60.9%	61.8% *

* compared to 81.6% without a disability.

Adults
Activity is less common for adults with limiting disability and long-term health conditions. Activity levels decrease sharply the more impairments and individual has. Just 39% of people with 3 or more impairments are active.
Children
Children and young people with a disability or long term health condition are more likely to be less active than those without.

Socio-economic groups

The rate of participation among people aged 16 and over is greater in those from higher socio-economic groups (more money) than those from lower socio-economic groups(less money).

Proportion of adults who take part in at least one sport or physical activity	
Higher socio-economic groups	Manual and unemployed socio-economic
71%	54%

Ethnicity

Proportion of adults who play sports once a week	
	2017/2018
Black and other minority ethnic groups	57%
White British groups	63%

Among women, those from white backgrounds are more likely to take part in sport compared to those from Chinese, black and other ethnic backgrounds.

Both sources- Sport England – Active Lives Adult Survey 2017/18

Participation in physical activity and sport

Understand strategies which can be used to improve participation-

Promotion- Advertising the opportunities to be involved and offering trials/discounts.

Provision- Funding a range of facilities across many activities and locations.

Access- Ensuring that everyone is able to get their local facilities by improving infrastructure.

Understand how different factors can affect participation-Age- Average life expectancy has risen, so more and more people could participate. There is an increase in the number of teams for older people (veterans teams). Sport is often perceived as a 'young person's activity'.Some older people lack confidence to participate. Some older people's participation may be affected by medical conditions or illness.

Some activities have age restrictions-minimum age for London Marathon is 18 years/minimum age is for Olympic snowboarding is 15 years/some fitness gyms have a minimum age restriction.

Some NGBs have regulations that restrict the age gap between players (2 years etc.)- In rugby players Under 12 years of age cannot 'play up'.

Many NGBs have developed adaptations of their sport that are suitable for older people- Walking netball, walking basketball and walking football are examples.

Gender- There are far more men than women who get involved in sport either to participate or spectate. Women's opportunities at elite level are growing all the time. With an increase in the women's sport profile, sponsorship and financial gain is becoming more readily available. Many female sports have seen a rise in media coverage and ultimately popularity. Opportunities for female officials and management roles within teams have grown too and there are a great deal more female presenters on TV.

Barriers to women playing sport are…
Lack of time and childcare
Lack of self confidence
Personal safety
Parental and adult influence
Male dominated culture of sport
Funding
Body image
Lack of media exposure
Lack of role models
Sexism

Ethnicity/Religion/Culture- The number of both black and minority ethnic and white British adults playing sport is increasing. Taking up a sport or activity may be influenced by ethnic background e.g. cricket is very popular within Asian countries. Some cultures or religious beliefs may act as barriers- can't drive on Jewish Sabbath/women wearing certain clothing/some cultures spend more time with family- less time available/religious commitments such as ceremonies give less time for sport/some ethnicities have larger proportions of lower socio-economic groups- less income for sport.

Family- You are more likely to participate in sport if your parents do. You are less likely to participate if there is little interest shown by your family.

Family support is crucial: Transport/Equipment/kit costs/Membership/match fees/Teaching sporting etiquette/sportsmanship

Negative influences might include: Poor sportsmanship/deviance/Unrealistic expectations/Placing undue pressures on children/Keeping children away from peers to gain higher levels of competitions.

Disability- Participation rates have increased since 2012 London Paralympic Games, but overall those with a disability show a comparatively low percentage in participation. This may be due to the lack of adapted equipment, access, clubs, discrimination and/or a lack of confidence.
Media coverage- some sports get a great deal more media coverage than others which makes them more popular e.g. football vs hockey. Male sport still dominates although there is much more interest in women's sport in recent years due to increased success e.g. GB women's football. The media can stimulate participation in sports e.g. huge increase in tennis participation during Wimbledon as people watch it on TV and want to participate themselves.
Environment and climate – this can dictate which sports/activities people take part in e.g. if you live in an area that receives regular snow and has hills, then you are more likely to ski than someone who doesn't.
Cost/disposable income- Some activities/equipment/kit are too costly for everyone to be able to participate.
Discrimination may prevent certain people from participating in a sports activity, due to: Race/colour: in some countries certain ethnic minorities are prevented from joining clubs/Gender:golf clubs not allowing women to participate at certain times or not at all leisure centres having female only fitness classes/Disability: people with disabilities not being allowed to join certain clubs/Age: clubs making an upper age limit for membership to prevent older people joining.
Opportunity/Access- You may not have appropriate sports clubs or facilities near you which may prevent you from participating. Some local authorities provide transport to help increase participation e.g. buses to leisure centres for elderly people.
Role models- Like parents, other significant others can influence whether you participate in sport. These may include: High level performers you have seen or read about in the media/Players in an older team at your club/PE teachers/Sports coaches who visit your school to coach specific sports activities.
Education- some people are not aware of the benefits of sport.
Time/ Work commitments- Work commitments can get in the way of finding enough time for sport. Travel time to and from work may reduce time available for participating. Family commitments may reduce the time available for parents to participate.

GCSE PE 2.1 b Commercialisation of physical activity and sport

Commercialisation of physical activity and sport

Commercialisation of sport-

The influence of the media on the commercialisation of physical activity and sport.

There are 5 types of media.
-Social Media
-Radio
-Newspapers/magazines
-Internet
-Television/visual

Influences of media include:-
Event time changes

-Live Football and rugby being shown on different days (Friday nights, Sundays, Monday nights)

-Olympic events & International events being shown at irregular times because of the demands of TV companies showing the event live in different countries.

Rules changes

-2016 netball rule changes to make game faster and more attractive to television companies & viewers

-Table tennis, 21 points changed to 11 points to win a game.

Adapted versions of sports

-British basketball championships, 12 minute games with powerplays and shooting zones for 5 points

-1 hour cricket to fit programming times

-Fast 5 netball.

Technological innovations

Replays and slow motion improve the home viewer's experience

'Hawkeye' in tennis, Television match officials in rugby and VAR in football have all improved the viewer's experience.

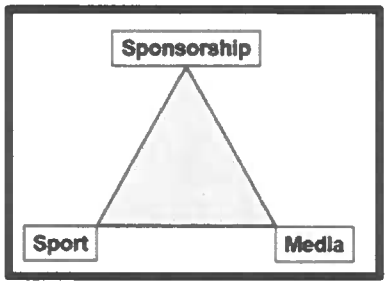
Sponsorship- Due to the extent of coverage, sponsorship and advertising revenue has increased tremendously for players, clubs and National Governing Bodies of sport.

Negative influences of media include:

- Only main sports shown, so minority sports do not gain exposure.
- More money to major sports and performers, so less funds to minority sports.
- Can expose poor behaviour by teams/performers and potential danger of some activities.
- Role models behaviour is exposed, poor behaviour on and off the performance area is exposed, and quickly.
- The exposure/advertising of some sponsors may be unethical. Examples include alcohol, smoking products and gambling companies.
- Pay per view channels/events may make it difficult for low-income families to watch their favourite sports.
- Media's influence on game programming might be seen as too great.
- Where games/events are shown live, spectators may chose to watch on television rather than go to the live game as it is cheaper and they get a better experience from replays, pundits etc.
- If you are watching you are not being active, so media can add to the 'couch potato' syndrome.

What is Commercialisation?
Definition: Commercialisation refers to the influence of commerce, trade
on an industry (e.g. SPORT) to make a profit.

Sport, media and sponsorship are closely linked in a what is known as the **'GOLDEN TRIANGLE'**



- **Each side of the triangle benefits from the other sides in some way**
- **Therefore, each side is dependent on the other sides in some way**
- **Usually financially or for promotion.**

Influence of sponsorship
The exercise and sport market is now very big business, with large amounts of money being spent by commercial companies on sports' participants, clubs and events.

Types of sponsorship
***Facilities* (stadiums and grounds)**
- New stands or grounds will often be named after the sponsor who has put money towards the development.
Financial
-Money may be invested into teams or sports by external sources or wealthy individuals.
Clothing* and *equipment
-Teams usually get a shirt sponsor and often individual players will get deals for footwear. Companies will often sponsor a players equipment, usually one of the companies who manufacture the equipment.

Positive & negative effects of sponsorship for the performer
Positive-
-Allows athletes to earn income as a full time job
-Performers gain maximum exposure to promote their personal brand
-Can lead to additional roles post playing career within the sport (TV pundit)
-Relieves financial worries.
Negative-
-Can result in deviant behaviour due to the pressure of success
-Generally, favours male over female and able bodied over disabled
-Sponsorship might be short term
-Performers may have to advertise a product that they do not like
-Performers might be contracted to put in appearances and attend public speaking.

Positive & negative effects of sponsorship for the sport
Positive-
-Raises the profile of the sport due to increased exposure
-Provides an increased level of funding to improve resources, coaching or facilities
-Gives the sport financial security for a period of time
-Attracts the best players in the world to that sport.
Negative-
-Commercialisation tends to support the popular sports leaving the 'lesser' sports to lose out

-Changes to the sport format and rules have being introduced to make the sport audience friendly
-The influence of TV has caused an increase in adverts and TV timings and lost some of sports traditions.

Positive & negative effects of sponsorship for the official
Positive-
-Offers a professional career and earn an income from officiating
-Media coverage leads to officials gaining a high profile
-Advancements in technology/better equipment/facilities which assists with decisions.
Negative-
-Bad decisions highlighted and analysed by media
-Personal and sporting behaviour has to be controlled as the image of the sport, coaches and players are on view to the world
-Some sports get more funding and therefore officials are paid better.

Positive & negative effects of sponsorship for the audience/spectator
Positive-
-Offers a wider choice of sports available to watch
-Viewing experience has been enhanced due to investment into technology and audience participation
-Fans can watch their team when on holiday
-Cheaper than watching games live.
Negative-
-Can pull fans away from watching their club/team live as it is cheaper to watch at home
-Encourages spectating not participating
-Can become very expensive for fans/spectators
-Can affect view experience due to increased TV breaks and time outs.

Positive & negative effects of sponsorship for the sponsor/company
Positive-
-Sport can offer an excellent opportunity for the sponsor to promote a product/service to a widespread audience
-Advertising brand name
-Promote a caring attitude and increasing goodwill
-Tax concessions help the company.
Negative-
-Poor behaviour from athletes/ clubs can cause negative press
-Smaller sponsors might struggle to compete with larger more global brands
-Some sponsors are not suitable to be promoted within sport. *i.e. tobacco or alcohol, gambling*
-Investing in teams and individuals can backfire if they do not achieve success *i.e. teams not qualifying for major competitions.*

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GCSE PE 2.1 c Ethical and socio-cultural issues in physical activity and sport

Ethical and socio-cultural issues in physical activity and sport

Ethics In Sport

The value of sportsmanship-

Sportsmanship involves behaviour that shows fair play, respect for opponents and gracious behaviour, whether winning or losing.

Showing good sportsmanship means sticking to the rules and regulations.

Sportsmanship shows that you can lose gracefully and win with good humour.

Each sport has its own code of behaviour and 'sportsmanship gestures'

Examples of sportsmanship may include:

-shake hands with your opponent

-thank anyone who has been participating with you or against you

-show concern for others, especially when they are injured or under stress

-never swear or be abusive

The reasons for gamesmanship and deviance in sport

-**Gamesmanship** is the use of unethical, although not illegal, methods to win or gain a serious advantage in a game or sport by 'bending' the rules

Examples of gamesmanship may include:

-sledging to distract batters in cricket-

not walking in cricket

-coughing or stamping feet to distract shooter at free throws in basketball

-grunting in tennis in order to intimidate opponents

-distracting penalty takers in football (goalkeepers)

-holding to prevent opponents punching in boxing

-diving in the 18 yard area to gain a penalty and opponent a 'yellow card in football

-standing over the ball to gain defenders organisation time at free kicks in football

Deviance- involves human behaviour that is against your society's norms and values. Behaviour of this kind is often against the rules/laws of the game

Reasons for deviance may include:

-the pressure/expectation to win or to gain an (unfair) advantage or pressure from fans/spectators/parents/coaches/team mates

-to enhance performance, like bowling with a slightly bend arm to bowl faster

-because you are losing

-to gain financial reward if you win

-a reaction to (poor) decisions by officials

Drugs In Sport

Know and understand the reasons why sports performers use drugs

Why might athletes use performance enhancing drugs?

-to perform better

-peer pressure (everyone else is doing it, so why shouldn't I?)

-pressure to become and/or remain the best

-pressure from their coach/trainer

-financial benefits that come with being the best

-to improve physically -increase strength/improve aggression/have more energy/be able to control emotions more easily.

Know the types of drugs and their effects on performance

Anabolic Steroids-A drug that mimics the male sex hormone testosterone which promotes bone and muscle growth

Why use them-Anabolic Steroids increase muscle mass and develop bone growth, thereby increasing the athletes strength whilst at the same time allowing the athlete to train harder and recover quicker.

Beta Blockers A drug that is used to control the heart rate and have a calming and relaxing effect

Why use them-in medicine, commonly prescribed for people with heart problems as their main function is to maintain a low heart rate

-reduce stress and anxiety levels

-can help sports where precision and a steady hand are needed (e.g. archery/shooting/snooker/golf).

Stimulants- A drug that has an effect on the central nervous system, such as increased mental and/or physical alertness

Why use them-they increase alertness, enabling people to think more quickly by stimulating the central nervous system (CNS). Helps to overcome tiredness but also offsets the negative effects of lactic acid build up within the working muscles.

Know and understand the impact of drug use in sport

Advantages to the performer-

- Increased chances of success
- Fame
- Olympic/World/National champion
- Athletes would be on an even playing field as 'others' are taking the drugs already
- Wealth
- Gain world records.

Disadvantages to the performer-

- It is cheating and immoral
- There are too many associated health risks
- Fines and bans for those caught
- Significant reputation damage
- Loss of friends/team mates.

Disadvantages to the sport-

-reputation – a sport can become known for cheating and may affect young people taking it up

-credibility – performance will be difficult to believe and will affect the number of spectators.

Violence In Sport

Know and understand the reasons for player violence

Controlled aggression is a fundamental part of many sports. Sometimes, however, this spills over into an uncontrolled situation where serious physical injury can be caused.

Violent behaviour can be caused by the following reasons:

- pressures of the media
- frustration as a result of losing
- sponsorships deals
- pressure from spectators/taunting from crowd/opponents
- as physical retaliation/as a reaction to a challenge/tackle
- over arousal during the game
- annoyed by poor decisions by officials
- to gain an advantage/to hurt your opponent controlled aggression may be required for effective play
- as a result of the influence of drugs
- we copy others.

Give practical examples of violence in sport

boxing – in the WBA Heavyweight championship fight, Mike Tyson was disqualified for biting off part of Evander Holyfield's ear

rugby – in the 2015 World Cup, Argentina's Mariano Galarza was banned for eye gouging

rugby-In 2010, South African lock Bakkies Botha head-butted New Zealand halfback Jimmy Cowan during a Tri-Nations tournament match and was subsequently suspended for 9 weeks

football – Francesco Totti assaulted Mario Balotelli with a career-threatening kick in 2010

football –2005: Newcastle United teammates Lee Bowyer and Kieron Dyer were sent off after fighting one another near the end of the team's 3–0 loss to Aston Villa. Several Newcastle players and a Villa player separated the two before either was seriously hurt, but Bowyer's shirt was ripped

Knowledge Organiser - Year 10, Spring Term - Buddhist Practices - GCSE Full Course RE

Worship (Puja):

- **Puja –** The act of worship to the Buddha, Dhamma, or Sangha through meditation, offerings, or chanting.
- **Shrine –** A sacred space with an image of the Buddha or Bodhisattva used for meditation and puja.
- **Offerings –** Gifts of flowers, candles, or incense placed at a shrine to show respect and remind Buddhists of impermanence.
- **Bow (Prostration) –** Physical act of respect and humility before the Buddha or the Sangha.
- **Chanting –** Reciting verses or teachings to increase concentration and express devotion.
- **Mantra –** A short sequence of sacred syllables or phrases repeated during meditation.
- **Veneration –** Deep respect shown to the Buddha or Bodhisattvas, not worship of a god.
- **Buddha Rupa -** Statue of the Buddha used for concentration during mediation.

Meditation (Bhavana):

- **Meditation (Bhavana) –** Mental training to develop concentration, calm, and insight into reality.
- **Samatha –** 'Calming' meditation — developing concentration by focusing on breathing or an object.
- **Vipassana –** 'Insight' meditation — understanding reality, including impermanence and no-self.
- **Zazen –** Seated meditation in Zen Buddhism focusing on mindfulness and awareness.
- **Mindfulness (Sati) –** Awareness of thoughts, feelings, and surroundings; central to daily life.

Places of Worship:

- **Temple (Vihara) –** A Buddhist place of worship and learning for puja and meditation.
- **Monastery –** A community where monks or nuns live under vows and practice Buddhism.
- **Stupa –** A dome-shaped structure containing relics; symbol of the Buddha's mind and enlightenment.
- **Bodhi Tree –** Tree under which Siddhartha achieved enlightenment — symbol of wisdom.

Visualisation:

- Used in Mahayana Buddhism as part of meditation
- Involves the person **imagining (visualising)** an object in their mind
- The object functions as a focus of concentration
- In Tibet they will try to visualise enlightened beings such as the Buddha or Bodhisattvas
- Some also use **thangka (paintings of the Buddha/Bodhisattvas**) to help them.

Festivals and Celebrations :

- **Wesak -** Festival remembering the Buddha's birth, enlightenment and death. Celebrated to honour the Buddha and remember his teachings. It uses lots of light and colour to symbolise hope and overcoming suffering.
- **Parinirvana Day -** Celebrated in February to remember the Buddha's death and passing into Nirvana. This festival is often more sad in nature and allows time for Buddhists to reflect on their own deaths and remember friends and relatives who have passed away.

Death Rituals:

- **Theravada Funerals:** Spend little money on funerals and will instead donate money to a charity as they believe the skillful karma gained can be transferred to the dead loved one and positively impact their next life
- **Tibetan Sky Burials:** In Tobet it is a traditional Buddhist practice to leave the dead person's body in a high up place and allow the vultures to eat them. Buddhists link this to the story of the Buddha sacrificing his life for the hungry Tigress in one of his previous lives.
- **Japan:** In Japanese Pure Land Buddhism, the coffin will be pointed with the head pointing west, towards the direction of the Pure Land. Relatives will also gather after the cremation to pick out bones from the ashes using chopsticks.

Knowledge Organiser - Year 10, Spring Term - Buddhist Practices - GCSE Full Course RE

Ethical Teachings:

- Karma: An ethical principle that explains how our actions have value and lead to either happiness or suffering. The more positive actions you complete the better your rebirth will be.
- Metta: Means loving-kindness. Buddhists believe we should have a desire for others to be happy and can be developed through meditation.
- Karuna: Means compassion. BUddhists should feel concern for others suffering and want to relieve it by showing compassion towards others through their thoughts and actions

5 Moral Precepts

- The 5 Moral Precepts are the Buddhist ethical code.
- Buddhists practice these precepts voluntarily to improve their behaviour and rid themselves of the three poisons.

1. Abstain (avoid) from harming sentient (living things with a brain) beings - Also known as Ahimsa meaning non-harm.
2. Abstain from taking that which is not freely given (Stealing, manipulating others etc.)
3. Abstain from sexual misconduct or misuse of the senses
4. Abstain from wrong speech (gossiping, hateful language, lying etc.)
5. Abstain from intoxicants that cloud the mind (Alcohol, drugs etc.)

6 Perfections:

- These are the six qualities Mahayana Buddhists try to develop in order to become a Bodhisattva.

1. Generosity (Give without expecting anything in return.)
2. Morality (Follow the 5 moral precepts)
3. Patience (Be tolerant of others)
4. Energy (Put in effort and enthusiasm)
5. Meditation (Develop concentration and awareness)
6. Wisdom (Achieved by mastering the other five pefections)

BTEC Music - Year 10 - Component 1: Exploring Musical Products & Styles

Key Terminology

Melody - a sequence of single notes that is musically satisfying; a tune.
Harmony - the combination of simultaneously sounded musical notes to produce a pleasing effect.
Tonality - the character of a piece of music as determined by the key in which it is played.
Rhythm - a strong, regular repeated pattern of movement or sound.
Structure - refers to the arrangement and order of the parts or sections of the music.
Instrumentation - the particular instruments used in a piece of music.
Texture - refers to the effect of the different layers of sound in a piece of music, and the relationship between them.
Timbre - the character or quality of a musical sound.
Production - the process by which music is created, captured, manipulated, and preserved so that it can be distributed and enjoyed.

Musical Styles - Popular

Reggae - a style of popular music which uses syncopation (off-beat rhythms), originating in Jamaica. Reggae became widely known in the 1970s through the work of Bob Marley; its lyrics are much influenced by Rastafarian ideas. Reggae songs were largely based on increasingly politicised lyrics that addressed social and economic injustice - This is due to the Rastafarianism influence which advocated for equal rights and justice. Besides Marley and the Wailers, groups who popularised the fusion of Rastafari and reggae were Big Youth, Black Uhuru, Burning Spear (principally Winston Rodney), and Culture.

Britpop - British pop music of the mid 1990s that was typically influenced by the Beatles and other British groups of the 1960s and perceived as a reaction against American grunge music. Various bands were involved in Britpop such as, Pulp, from Sheffield, which was fronted by veteran rocker Jarvis Cocker and had its biggest hit with the single "Common People", but it was essentially about Oasis and Blur. What the two bands had in common was a belief in the classic guitar-based pop song with a sing-along chorus and a love of fashionable sportswear.

BTEC Music - Year 10 - Musical Products & Styles

Musical Styles - World Music/Jazz & Blues

Delta Blues - a style of blues originating in the Mississippi Delta, typically featuring slide guitar. The form is dominated by fiery slide guitar and passionate vocalising, with the deepest of feelings being applied directly to the music. Its lyrics are passionate as well, and in some instances remain the highest flowering of blues songwriting as stark poetry. The form continues to the present time with new performers working in the older solo artist traditions and style. In its earliest form, the style became the first black guitar-dominated music to make it onto phonograph records back in the late '20s.

Samba Music - The initial birth of samba music took place sometime in the early 19th century, with its roots stemming from African drumming traditions. Enslaved African people brought over to Brazil retained the influence of their own musical elements such as polyrhythms and syncopated patterns. It's now an integral part of Rio De Janeiro's famous yearly Carnival festival, at which many samba schools compete against one another.

Examples of Stylistic Features

Instrumentation: instrumental techniques, type of ensemble, alternative instrumentation, sonic features, electronic sounds.
Texture: solo, duet, homophonic, polyphonic, unison.
Timbre: sonic features, electronic sounds, FX.
Tonality: major scale, minor scales, blues scale, pentatonic scale, modes, ragas, exotic scales.
Scales and modes: major scale, minor scales, blues scale, pentatonic scale, modes, ragas, exotic scales.
Harmony: major and minor triads, power chords, 7th chords, sus chords, extended chords, suspensions, inversions, chord sequences, arpeggios, broken chords.
Rhythmic techniques: metre, tempo/bpm, syncopation, swing, one drop/skanking, polyrhythms, hemiola, phasing.
Structure: verse/ chorus, 12-bar blues, through-composed, bridge, intro, outro, ABACAD.
Melodic techniques: conjunct, disjunct, chromatic, diatonic, phrasing, repetition, sequence, ornamentation, motifs, round/canon, riffs, hooks, head, improvisation.
Production: microphone use, recording styles, sampling, FX, looping, controllerism, turntablism, quantisation, sequencing, automation.

Year 10 – Hospitality and Catering - LO1 Understanding the Environment

AC 1.1 Structure of the Industry

Hospitality and Catering Industry	H&C establishments can be non-residential (restaurants, bars, burger vans), residential (hotels, holiday parks, bed and breakfasts), non-profit (hospitals, prisons, armed services, care homes) or profitable (business that make a profit).

AC1 1.2 Styles of Service

Counter Service	Cafeteria, Self Service, Fast Food, Take Away, Buffet, Carvery
Table Service	Plate service, Family service, Silver Service Gueridon Service
Personal Service	Travel service, Transported Meal Service, Tray Service, Vending Service, Meal Delivery

AC1 1.3 Food at Non-Catering Venues

Contract Catering	Village School bonfire party, GCSE results day celebration party, slimming club Christmas party, church tea party

AC1 1.4 Factors Affecting Success of Hospitality and Catering Providers

Reasons for Failure	Saturated market, general business incompetence, lack of capital (funds), location, quality of life, lack of industry experience, failure to create a good enough brand, name of the restaurant is too long, lack of differentiation, poor financial controls.
Costs for an establishment	**Material costs**: soap, toilet roll, menus, order pads, cleaning materials, flowers. **Food Costs**: Ingredients, pre-made foods, bar food and drink, food, and drink for staff. **Overhead Costs**: Heating, lighting, furniture, maintenance of equipment & building, curtains, carpets. **Personnel Costs**: Wages for Chefs, bar staff, waiting staff, managers.

Keywords:

Hospitality – meaning the friendly and generous treatment of guests and strangers.
Service – to do/provide something for someone else. This can be paid for or done for free depending on the business, for example hospitals provide free healthcare services. Restaurants provide food services that the customers pay for.
Business – the buying and selling of goods/services to make money, for example, airports make money from flight ticket sales/meals.
Accommodation – a room, group of rooms, or building in which someone may live or stay.
Catering – offering facilities to people, especially the provision of food and beverages.
Hostel – establishment which provides inexpensive food and lodging for a specific group of people, such as students, workers, or travellers.
Hotel – an establishment providing accommodation, meals, and other services for travellers and tourists.
Guest House – a private house offering accommodation to paying guests, smaller business than hostels and hotels.