**Paper 1:**

1 Energy

2 Electricity

3 Particle model of matter

4 Atomic structure

**How it’s assessed**

Written exam: 1 hour 45 minutes

Foundation and Higher Tier

50 % of GCSE

100 marks

Questions: Multiple choice, structured, closed short answer and open response

**1. ENERGY**

1. Energy transfers
2. Potential energy
3. Kinetic energy
4. Work done and energy transfer
5. Power
6. Specific heat capacity
7. *Practical: Investigating specific heat capacity*
8. Dissipation of energy
9. Energy efficiency and Sankey diagrams
10. *Practical: Investigating ways of reducing the unwanted energy transfers in a system*
11. Energy resources and global energy supplies

**2. ELECTRICITY**

1. Static electricity
2. Electric fields
3. Electric current
4. Series circuits
5. Parallel circuits
6. Circuit components
7. *Practical: Use circuit diagrams to set up circuits to investigate the current vs. voltage characteristics of:*
	1. Filament lamp
	2. Diode
	3. Resistor at constant temperature
8. *Practical: Use circuit diagrams to set up circuits to investigate the resistance of electrical circuits including:*
	1. Resistance of a length of wire
	2. Combinations of resistors in series and parallel
9. Control circuits: how thermistors and LDRs and diodes to control circuits
10. Electricity in the home, plugs, fuses and circuit breakers
11. Transmitting electricity – the National Grid
12. Power and energy transfers
13. Calculating power
14. Potential difference and current

**3. PARTICLE MODEL OF MATTER**

1. Density
2. *Practical: Investigate the densities of regular and irregular solid objects and liquids*
3. Changes of state
4. Internal energy
5. *Perform an experiment to measure the latent heat of fusion of water.*
6. Specific heat capacity
7. Latent heat
8. Particle motion in gases
9. Increasing the pressure of a gas
10. Particle model and change of state

**4. ATOMIC STRUCTURE**

1. Atomic structure
2. Radioactive decay
3. Background radiation
4. Nuclear equations
5. Radioactive half-life
6. Hazards and uses of radiation
7. Irradiation
8. Uses of radiation in medicine
9. Using nuclear radiation
10. Nuclear fission
11. Nuclear fusion
12. The history of developing ideas for the structure of the atom
13. Using ratios and half-life in calculations

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|  | R | A | G |
| **4.1 Energy** |  |  |  |
| *4.1.1 Energy changes in a system, and the ways energy is stored before and after such changes* |  |  |  |
| **4.1.1.1 Energy stores and systems** |  |  |  |
| a) Be able to describe the changes involved in the way energy is stored when a system changes. For example:* an object projected upwards
* a moving object hitting an obstacle
* an object accelerated by a constant force
* a vehicle slowing down
* bringing water to a boil in an electric kettle.

b) Be able to calculate the changes in energy involved when a system is changed by:* heating
* work done by forces
* work done when a current flows
* use calculations to show how the overall energy in a system is redistributed when the system is changed.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.1.1.2 Changes in energy** |  |  |  |
| Be able to calculate the amount of energy associatedwith a moving object, a stretched spring and an object raised aboveground level.1. The kinetic energy of a moving object can be calculated using the equation:
* $kinetic energy=\frac{1}{2} x mass x speed^{2}$
* $E\_{k}=\frac{1}{2} x m x v^{2}$

kinetic energy, Ek, in joules, Jmass, m, in kilograms, kgspeed, v, in metres per second, m/s1. The amount of elastic potential energy stored in a stretched spring can be calculated using the equation:
* $elastic potential energy=\frac{1}{2} x spring constant x extension^{2}$
* $E\_{e}=\frac{1}{2} x k x e^{2}$

(assuming the limit of proportionality has not been exceeded)elastic potential energy, Ee, in joules, Jspring constant, k, in newtons per metre, N/mextension, e, in metres, m1. The amount of gravitational potential energy gained by an object raised above ground level can be calculated using the equation:
* $gravitational potential energy=mass x gravitational field strength x height$
* $E\_{p}=m x g x h$

gravitational potential energy, Ep, in joules, Jmass, m, in kilograms, kggravitational field strength, g, in newtons per kilogram, N/kg height, h, in metres, m |  |  |  |
| **4.1.1.3 Energy changes in systems** |  |  |  |
| a) The amount of energy stored in or released from a system as its temperature changes can be calculated using the equation:* $change in thermal energy=mass x specific heat capacity x temperature change$
* $∆E=m x c x ∆Ө$

change in thermal energy, ΔE, in joules, Jmass, m, in kilograms, kgspecific heat capacity, c, in joules per kilogram per degree Celsius, J/kg °Ctemperature change, Δθ, in degrees Celsius, °Cb) The specific heat capacity of a substance is the amount of energy required to raise the temperature of one kilogram of the substance by one degree Celsius. |  |  |  |
| **Required practical activity 1**: investigation to determine the specific heat capacity of one or more materials. The investigation will involve linking the decrease of one energy store (or work done) to the increase in temperature and subsequent increase in thermal energy stored. |  |  |  |
| **4.1.1.4 Power** |  |  |  |
| 1. Power is defined as the rate at which energy is transferred or the rate at which work is done.
* $power= \frac{energy transferred}{time}$
* $P= \frac{E}{t}$
* $power= \frac{work done}{time}$
* $P= \frac{W}{t}$

power, *P*, in watts, Wenergy transferred, *E*, in joules, Jtime, *t*, in seconds, swork done, *W*, in joules, J1. An energy transfer of 1 joule per second is equal to a power of 1 watt. ( 1J/s = 1W )
2. Be able to give examples that illustrate the definition of power e.g. comparing two electric motors that both lift the same weight through the same height but one does it faster than the other.
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| *4.1.2 Conservation and dissipation of energy* |  |  |  |
| **4.1.2.1 Energy transfers in a system** |  |  |  |
| 1. Energy can be transferred usefully, stored or dissipated, but cannot be created or destroyed.
2. In all system changes energy is dissipated, so that it is stored in less useful ways……this energy is often described as being ‘wasted’.
3. Be able to explain ways of reducing unwanted energy transfers, for example through lubrication and the use of thermal insulation.
4. The higher the thermal conductivity of a material the higher the rate of energy transfer by conduction across the material.
5. The rate of cooling of a building is affected by the thickness and thermal conductivity of its walls.
 |  |  |  |
| **Required practical activity 2** (physics only): investigate the effectiveness of different materials as thermal insulators and the factors that may affect the thermal insulation properties of a material. |  |  |  |
| **4.1.2.2 Efficiency** |  |  |  |
| 1. The energy efficiency for any energy transfer can be calculated using the equation:
* $efficiency= \frac{useful output energy transfer}{total input energy transfer}$
1. Efficiency may also be calculated using the equation:
* $efficiency= \frac{useful power output}{total power input}$
 |  |  |  |
| (HT only) Be able to describe ways to increase the efficiency of an intended energy transfer. |  |  |  |
| *4.1.3 National and global energy resources* |  |  |  |
| 1. a) The main energy resources available for use on Earth include:
* fossil fuels (coal, oil and gas)
* nuclear fuel
* biofuel
* wind
* hydro-electricity
* geothermal
* the tides
* the Sun
* water waves

b) A renewable energy resource is one that is being (or can be) replenished as it is used.c) The uses of energy resources include: transport, electricity generation and heating.d) Be able to:* describe the main energy sources available
* distinguish between energy resources that are renewable and energy resources that are non-renewable
* compare ways that different energy resources are used, the uses to include transport, electricity generation and heating
* understand why some energy resources are more reliable than others
* describe the environmental impact arising from the use of different energy resources
* explain patterns and trends in the use of energy resources.

e)* consider the environmental issues that may arise from the use of different energy resources
* show that science has the ability to identify environmental issues arising from the use of energy resources but not always the power to deal with the issues because of political, social, ethical or economic considerations.
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| **4.2 Electricity** |  |  |  |
| *4.2.1 Current, potential difference and resistance* |  |  |  |
| **4.2.1.1 Standard circuit diagram symbols** |  |  |  |
| 1. Circuit diagrams using standard symbols. The following standard symbols should be known:
	* switch (open and closed)
	* cell
	* battery
	* lamp
	* fuse
	* voltmeter
	* ammeter
	* resistor
	* variable resistor
	* thermistor
	* diode
	* light dependent resistor (LDR)
	* light emitting diode (LED)
2. Be able to draw and interpret circuit diagrams.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.2.1.2 Electrical charge and current** |  |  |  |
| 1. For electrical charge to flow through a closed circuit the circuit must include a source of potential difference.
2. Electric current is a flow of electrical charge.
3. The size of the electric current is the rate of flow of electrical charge.
4. Charge flow, current and time are linked by the equation:
* $charge flow=current x time$
* $Q=I x t$

charge flow, *Q*, in coulombs, Ccurrent, *I*, in amperes, A (amp is acceptable for ampere)time, *t*, in seconds, s1. A current has the same value at any point in a single.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.2.1.3 Current, resistance and potential difference** |  |  |  |
| 1. The current (*I*) through a component depends on both the resistance (*R*) of the component and the potential difference (*V*) across the component.
2. The greater the resistance of the component the smaller the current for a given potential difference (p.d.) across the component.
3. Questions will be set using the term potential difference. (Students will gain credit for the correct use of either potential difference or voltage.)
4. Current, potential difference or resistance can be calculated using the equation:
* $potential difference=current x resistance$
* $V=I x R$

potential difference, *V*, in volts, Vcurrent, *I*, in amperes, A (amp is acceptable for ampere)resistance, *R*, in ohms, Ω |  |  |  |
| **Required practical activity 3:** use circuit diagrams to set up and check appropriate circuits to investigate the factors affecting the resistance of electrical circuits. This should include:* the length of a wire at constant temperature
* combinations of resistors in series and parallel.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.2.1.4 Resistors** |  |  |  |
| 1. Be able to explain that, for some resistors, the value of *R* remains constant but that in others it can change as the current changes.
2. The current through an ohmic conductor (at a constant temperature) is directly proportional to the potential difference across the resistor. This means that the resistance remains constant as the current changes.
3. The resistance of components such as lamps, diodes, thermistors and LDRs is not constant; it changes with the current through the component.
4. The resistance of a filament lamp increases as the temperature of the filament increases.
5. The current through a diode flows in one direction only. The diode has a very high resistance in the reverse direction.
6. The resistance of a thermistor decreases as the temperature increases.
7. The applications of thermistors in circuits e.g. a thermostat.
8. The resistance of an LDR decreases as light intensity increases.
9. The application of LDRs in circuits e.g. switching lights on when it gets dark is required.
 |  |  |  |
| 1. Be able to:
* explain the design and use of a circuit to measure the resistance of a component by measuring the current through, and potential difference across, the component
* draw an appropriate circuit diagram using correct circuit symbols.
1. Be able to use graphs to explore whether circuit elements are linear or non-linear and relate the curves produced to their function and properties.
 |  |  |  |
| **Required practical activity 4:** use circuit diagrams to construct appropriate circuits to investigate the current vs. voltage (I–V) characteristics of a variety of circuit elements, including a filament lamp, a diode and a resistor at constant temperature. |  |  |  |
| *4.2.2 Series and parallel circuits* |  |  |  |
| There are two ways of joining electrical components, in series and in parallel. Some circuits include both series and parallel parts.For components connected in series:1. there is the same current through each component
2. the total potential difference of the power supply is shared between the components
3. the total resistance of two components is the sum of the resistance of each component.
4. It is calculated like this: $R\_{total}= R\_{1}+ R\_{2}+…$ where resistance, *R*, is in ohms, Ω

For components connected in parallel:1. the potential difference across each component is the same
2. the total current through the whole circuit is the sum of the currents through the separate branches
3. the total resistance of two resistors is less than the resistance of the smallest individual resistor.

Be able to:1. use circuit diagrams to construct and check series and parallel circuits that include a variety of common circuit components
2. describe the difference between series and parallel circuits
3. explain qualitatively why adding resistors in series increases the total resistance whilst adding resistors in parallel decreases the total resistance
4. explain the design and use of D.C. series circuits for measurement and testing purposes
5. calculate the currents, potential differences and resistances in D.C. series circuits
6. solve problems for circuits which include resistors in series using the concept of equivalent resistance.

(Students are not required to calculate the total resistance of two resistors joined in parallel.) |  |  |  |
| *4.2.3 Domestic uses and safety* |  |  |  |
| **4.2.3.1 Direct and alternating potential difference** |  |  |  |
| 1. Mains electricity is an alternating current (A.C.) supply.
2. In the United Kingdom the domestic electricity supply has a frequency of 50 Hz and a voltage of about 230 V.
3. Explain the difference between direct (D.C.) and alternating (A.C.) potential difference.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.2.3.2 Mains electricity** |  |  |  |
| 1. Most electrical appliances are connected to the mains using three-core cable.
2. The insulation covering each wire is colour coded for easy identification:
* live wire – brown
* neutral wire – blue
* earth wire – green and yellow stripes
1. The live wire carries the alternating potential difference from the supply.
2. The neutral wire completes the circuit.
3. The earth wire is a safety wire to stop the appliance becoming live.
4. The potential difference between the live wire and earth (0 V) is about 230 V. The neutral wire is at, or close to, earth potential (0 V).
5. The earth wire is at 0 V, it only carries a current if there is a fault.
* a live wire may be dangerous even when a switch in the mains circuit is open
* the dangers of providing any connection between the live wire and earth.
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| *4.2.4 Energy transfers* |  |  |  |
| **4.2.4.1 Power** |  |  |  |
| Explain how the power transfer in any circuit device is related to the potential difference across it and the current through it, and to the energy changes over time:a) Electrical power transferred: * $power=potential difference x current$
* $P=I x V$

b) Power lost by the heating effect of the electrical power transferred:* $power= current^{2} X resistance$
* $P= I^{2} x R$

power, *P*, in watts, Wpotential difference, *V*, in volts, Vcurrent, *I*, in amperes, A (amp is acceptable for ampere)resistance, *R*, in ohms, Ω |  |  |  |
| **4.2.4.2 Energy transfers in everyday appliances** |  |  |  |
| 1. Everyday electrical appliances are designed to bring about energy transfers.
2. The amount of energy an appliance transfers depends on how long the appliance is switched on for and the power of the appliance.
3. Describe how different domestic appliances transfer energy from batteries or A.C. mains to the kinetic energy of electric motors or the energy of heating devices.
4. Work is done when charge flows in a circuit.
5. The amount of energy transferred by electrical work can be calculated using equations:

$$energy transferred=power x time$$$$E=P x t$$$$energy transferred=charge flow x potential difference$$$$E=Q x V$$energy transferred, *E*, in joules, Jpower, *P*, in watts, Wtime, *t*, in seconds, scharge flow, *Q*, in coulombs, Cpotential difference, *V*, in volts, V1. Explain how the power of a circuit device is related to:
* the potential difference across it and the current through it
* the energy transferred over a given time.
1. Describe, with examples, the relationship between the power ratings for domestic electrical appliances and the changes in stored energy when they are in use.
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| **4.2.4.3 The National Grid** |  |  |  |
| 1. The National Grid is a system of cables and transformers linking power stations to consumers.
2. Electrical power is transferred from power stations to consumers using the National Grid.
3. Step-up transformers are used to increase the potential difference from the power station to the transmission cables then step-down transformers are used to decrease, to a much lower value, the potential difference for domestic use.
4. Explain why the National Grid system is an efficient way to transfer energy.
 |  |  |  |
| *4.2.5 Static electricity (physics only)* |  |  |  |
| **4.2.5.1 Static charge** |  |  |  |
| 1. When certain insulating materials are rubbed against each other they become electrically charged. Negatively charged electrons are rubbed off one material and on to the other. The material that gains electrons becomes negatively charged. The material that loses electrons is left with an equal positive charge.
2. When two electrically charged objects are brought close together they exert a force on each other. Two objects that carry the same type of charge repel. Two objects that carry different types of charge attract.
3. Attraction and repulsion between two charged objects are examples of non-contact force.
4. Be able to:
* describe the production of static electricity, and sparking, by rubbing surfaces
* describe evidence that charged objects exert forces of attraction or repulsion on one another when not in contact
* explain how the transfer of electrons between objects can explain the phenomena of static electricity.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.2.5.2 Electric fields** |  |  |  |
| 1. A charged object creates an electric field around itself. The electric field is strongest close to the charged object. The further away from the charged object, the weaker the field.
2. A second charged object placed in the field experiences a force. The force gets stronger as the distance between the objects decreases.
3. Be able to:
* draw the electric field pattern for an isolated charged sphere
* explain the concept of an electric field
* explain how the concept of an electric field helps to explain the non-contact force between charged objects as well as other electrostatic phenomena such as sparking.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.3 Particle model of matter** |  |  |  |
| *4.3.1 Changes of state and the particle model* |  |  |  |
| **4.3.1.1 Density of materials** |  |  |  |
| a) The density of a material is defined by the equation:* $density= \frac{mass}{volume}$
* $ρ= \frac{m}{V}$

density, *ρ*, in kilograms per metre cubed, kg/m**3**mass, *m*, in kilograms, kgvolume, *V*, in metres cubed, m**3**b) The particle model can be used to explain* the different states of matter
* differences in density.

c) Recognise/draw simple diagrams to model the difference between solids, liquids and gases.d) Explain the differences in density between the different states of matter in terms of the arrangement of atoms or molecules. |  |  |  |
| **Required practical activity 5:** use appropriate apparatus to make and record the measurements needed to determine the densities of regular and irregular solid objects and liquids. Volume should be determined from the dimensions of regularly shaped objects, and by a displacement technique for irregularly shaped objects. Dimensions to be measured using appropriate apparatus such as a ruler, micrometer or Vernier callipers. |  |  |  |
| **4.3.1.2 Changes of state** |  |  |  |
| 1. Describe how, when substances change state (melt, freeze, boil, evaporate, condense or sublimate), mass is conserved.
2. Changes of state are physical changes which differ from chemical changes because the material recovers its original properties if the change is reversed.
 |  |  |  |
| *4.3.2 Internal energy and energy transfers* |  |  |  |
| **4.3.2.1 Internal energy** |  |  |  |
| 1. Energy is stored inside a system by the particles (atoms and molecules) that make up the system. This is called internal energy.
2. Internal energy is the total kinetic energy and potential energy of all the particles (atoms and molecules) that make up a system.
3. Heating changes the energy stored within the system by increasing the energy of the particles that make up the system. This either raises the temperature of the system or produces a change of state.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.3.2.2 Temperature changes in a system and specific heat capacity** |  |  |  |
| a) If the temperature of the system increases, the increase in temperature depends on the mass of the substance heated, the type of material and the energy input to the system.b) The following equation applies:* $change in thermal energy=mass x specific heat capacity$
* $ΔE=m x c Δθ$

change in thermal energy, Δ*E*, in joules, Jmass, *m*, in kilograms, kgspecific heat capacity, *c*, in joules per kilogram per degree Celsius, J/kg °Ctemperature change, Δ*θ*, in degrees Celsius, °C.c) The specific heat capacity of a substance is the amount of energy required to raise the temperature of one kilogram of the substance by one degree Celsius. |  |  |  |
| **4.3.2.3 Changes of heat and specific latent heat** |  |  |  |
| If a change of state happens:1. The energy needed for a substance to change state is called latent heat.
2. When a change of state occurs, the energy supplied changes the energy stored (internal energy) but not the temperature.
3. The specific latent heat of a substance is the amount of energy required to change the state of one kilogram of the substance with no change in temperature.
* $energy for a chnge of state=mass x specific latent heat$
* $E=m x L$

energy, *E*, in joules, Jmass, *m*, in kilograms, kgspecific latent heat, *L*, in joules per kilogram, J/kgSpecific latent heat of *fusion* is the change of state from solid to liquidSpecific latent heat of *vaporisation* is the change of state from liquid to vapour**Perform an experiment** to measure the latent heat of fusion of water.Be able to interpret heating and cooling graphs that include changes of state.Be able to distinguish between specific heat capacity and specific latent heat. |  |  |  |
| *4.3.3 Particle model and pressure* |  |  |  |
| **4.3.3.1 Particle motion in gases** |  |  |  |
| 1. The molecules of a gas are in constant random motion.
2. The temperature of the gas is related to the average kinetic energy of the molecules.
3. Changing the temperature of a gas, held at constant volume, changes the pressure exerted by the gas
4. Be able to:
* explain how the motion of the molecules in a gas is related to both its temperature and its pressure
* explain qualitatively the relation between the temperature of a gas and its pressure at constant volume.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.3.3.2 Pressure in gases (physics only)** |  |  |  |
| 1. A gas can be compressed or expanded by pressure changes.
2. The pressure produces a net force at right angles to the wall of the gas container (or any surface).
3. Be able to use the particle model to explain how increasing the volume in which a gas is contained, at constant temperature, can lead to a decrease in pressure.
4. For a fixed mass of gas held at a constant temperature:
* $pressure x volume=constant$
* $p x V=constant$

pressure, *p*, in pascals, Pavolume, *V*, in metres cubed, m**3**e) Calculate the change in the pressure of a gas or the volume of a gas (a fixed mass held at constant temperature) when either the pressure or volume is increased or decreased. |  |  |  |
| **4.3.3.3 Increasing the pressure of a gas (physics only) (HT only)** |  |  |  |
| 1. Work is the transfer of energy by a force.
2. Doing work on a gas increases the internal energy of the gas and can cause an increase in the temperature of the gas.
3. Explain how, in a given situation eg a bicycle pump, doing work on an enclosed gas leads to an increase in the temperature of the gas.
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| **4.4 Atomic structure** |  |  |  |
| *4.4.1 Atoms and isotopes* |  |  |  |
| **4.4.1.1 The structure of an atom** |  |  |  |
| 1. Atoms are very small, having a radius of about 1 × 10**-10** metres.
2. The basic structure of an atom is a positively charged nucleus composed of both protons and neutrons surrounded by negatively charged electrons.
3. The radius of a nucleus is less than 1/10 000 of the radius of an atom.
4. Most of the mass of an atom is concentrated in the nucleus.
5. The electrons are arranged at different distances from the nucleus (different energy levels).
6. The electron arrangements may change with the absorption of electromagnetic radiation (move further from the nucleus, to a higher energy level) or by the emission of electromagnetic radiation (move closer to the nucleus, to a lower energy level).
 |  |  |  |
| **4.4.1.2 Mass number, atomic number and isotopes** |  |  |  |
| 1. In an atom the number of electrons is equal to the number of protons in the nucleus. Atoms have no overall electrical charge.
2. All atoms of a particular element have the same number of protons. The number of protons in an atom of an element is called its atomic number.
3. The total number of protons and neutrons in an atom is called its mass number.
4. Atoms can be represented as shown in these examples:

$$ usually in Chemistry$$ usually in Physics1. Atoms of the same element can have different numbers of neutrons; these atoms are called isotopes of that element.
2. Atoms turn into positive ions if they lose one or more outer electron(s).
3. Relate differences between isotopes to differences in their identities, charges and masses.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.4.1.3 The development of the model of the atom (common content with chemistry)** |  |  |  |
| 1. New experimental evidence may lead to a scientific model being changed or replaced.
2. Before the discovery of the electron, atoms were thought to be tiny spheres that could not be divided.
3. The discovery of the electron led to the plum pudding model of the atom. The plum pudding model suggested that the atom is a ball of positive charge with negative electrons embedded in it.
4. The results from the alpha particle scattering experiment led to the conclusion that the mass of an atom was concentrated at the centre (nucleus) and that the nucleus was charged. This nuclear model replaced the plum pudding model.
5. Niels Bohr adapted the nuclear model by suggesting that electrons orbit the nucleus at specific distances. The theoretical calculations of Bohr agreed with experimental observations.
6. Later experiments led to the idea that the positive charge of any nucleus could be subdivided into a whole number of smaller particles, each particle having the same amount of positive charge. The name proton was given to these particles.
7. The experimental work of James Chadwick provided the evidence to show the existence of neutrons within the nucleus. This was about 20 years after the nucleus became an accepted scientific idea.
8. This historical context provides an opportunity to show an understanding of why and describe how scientific methods and theories develop over time.
* why the new evidence from the scattering experiment led to a change in the atomic model
* the difference between the plum pudding model of the atom and the nuclear model of the atom.

(Details of experimental work supporting the Bohr model are not required. Details of Chadwick’s experimental work are not required.) |  |  |  |
| *4.4.2 Atoms and nuclear radiation* |  |  |  |
| **4.4.2.1 Radioactive decay and nuclear radiation** |  |  |  |
| 1. Some atomic nuclei are unstable. The nucleus gives out radiation as it changes to become more stable. This is a random process called radioactive decay.
2. Activity is the rate at which a source of unstable nuclei decays.
3. Activity is measured in becquerel (Bq)
4. Count-rate is the number of decays recorded each second by a detector (eg Geiger-Muller tube).
5. The nuclear radiation emitted may be:
* an alpha particle (*α*) – this consists of two neutrons and two protons, it is the same as a helium nucleus
* a beta particle (*β*) – a high speed electron ejected from the nucleus when a neutron turns into a proton and an electron
* a gamma ray (*γ*) – electromagnetic radiation from the nucleus
* (a neutron (n) – as a by-product of nuclear fission)
1. Required knowledge of the properties of alpha particles, beta particles and gamma rays
	* penetration through materials
	* range in air
	* ionising power.
2. Students should be able to apply their knowledge to the uses of radiation and evaluate the best sources of radiation to use in a given situation.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.4.2.2 Nuclear equations** |  |  |  |
| 1. Nuclear equations are used to represent radioactive decay.
2. In a nuclear equation an alpha particle may be represented by the symbol: $$
3. and a beta particle by the symbol: $$
4. The emission of the different types of nuclear radiation may cause a change in the mass and /or the charge of the nucleus.
* For example alpha decay: $$ so alpha decay causes both the mass and charge of the nucleus to decrease.
* For example beta decay: $$ so beta decay does not cause the mass of the nucleus to change but does cause the charge of the nucleus to increase.

Students are not required to recall the examples above.1. Use the names and symbols of common nuclei and particles to write balanced equations that show single alpha (*α*) and beta (*β*) decay. This is limited to balancing the atomic numbers and mass numbers.

The identification of daughter elements from such decays is not required.1. The emission of a gamma ray does not cause the mass or the charge of the nucleus to change.
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| **4.4.2.3 Half-lives and the random nature of radioactive decay** |  |  |  |
| 1. Radioactive decay is random.
2. The half-life of a radioactive isotope is the time it takes for the number of nuclei of the isotope in a sample to halve, or the time it takes for the count rate (or activity) from a sample containing the isotope to fall to half its initial level.
3. Explain the concept of half-life and how it is related to the random nature of radioactive decay.
4. Determine the half-life of a radioactive isotope from given information.
5. (HT only) Calculate the net decline, expressed as a ratio, in a radioactive emission after a given number of half-lives.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.4.2.4 Radioactive contamination** |  |  |  |
| 1. Radioactive contamination is the unwanted presence of materials containing radioactive atoms on other materials.
2. The hazard from contamination is due to the decay of the contaminating atoms.
3. The type of radiation emitted affects the level of hazard.
4. Irradiation is the process of exposing an object to nuclear radiation.
5. The irradiated object does not become radioactive.
6. Compare the hazards associated with contamination and irradiation.
7. Suitable precautions must be taken to protect against any hazard that the radioactive source used in the process of irradiation may present.
8. Understand that it is important for the findings of studies into the effects of radiation on humans to be published and shared with other scientists so that the findings can be checked by peer review.
 |  |  |  |
| *4.4.3 Hazards and uses of radioactive emissions and of background**radiation (physics only)* |  |  |  |
| **4.4.3.1 Background radiation** |  |  |  |
| 1. Background radiation is around us all of the time. It comes from:
* natural sources such as rocks and cosmic rays from space
* man-made sources such as the fallout from nuclear weapons testing and nuclear accidents.
1. The level of background radiation and radiation dose may be affected by occupation and/or location.
2. Radiation dose is measured in sieverts (Sv)
3. 1000 millisieverts (mSv) = 1 sievert (Sv)

(Students will not need to recall the unit of radiation *dose*.) |  |  |  |
| **4.4.3.2 Different half-lives of radioactive isotopes** |  |  |  |
| a) Radioactive isotopes have a very wide range of half-life values.b) Explain why the hazards associated with radioactive material differ according to the half-life involved. |  |  |  |
| **4.4.3.3 Uses of nuclear radiation** |  |  |  |
| 1. Nuclear radiations are used in medicine for the:
	* exploration of internal organs
	* •control or destruction of unwanted tissue.
2. Describe and evaluate the uses of nuclear radiations for exploration of internal organs, and for control or destruction of unwanted tissue
3. Evaluate the perceived risks of using nuclear radiations in relation to given data and consequences.
 |  |  |  |
| *4.4.4 Nuclear fission and fusion (physics only)* |  |  |  |
| **4.4.4.1 Nuclear fission** |  |  |  |
| 1. Nuclear fission is the splitting of a large and unstable nucleus (e.g. uranium or plutonium).
2. Spontaneous fission is rare. Usually, for fission to occur the unstable nucleus must first absorb a neutron.
3. The nucleus undergoing fission splits into two smaller nuclei, roughly equal in size, and emits two or three neutrons plus gamma rays. Energy is released by the fission reaction.
4. All of the fission products have kinetic energy.
5. The neutrons may go on to start a chain reaction.
6. The chain reaction is controlled in a nuclear reactor to control the energy released. The explosion caused by a nuclear weapon is caused by an uncontrolled chain reaction.
7. Draw/interpret diagrams representing nuclear fission and how a chain reaction may occur.
 |  |  |  |
| **4.4.4.2 Nuclear fusion** |  |  |  |
| Nuclear fusion is the joining of two light nuclei to form a heavier nucleus.In this process some of the mass may be converted into the energy of radiation. |  |  |  |

**PHYSICS EQUATIONS TO LEARN BY HEART**

| **ENERGY** |
| --- |
|  | **Quantity** | **Unit** | **Equation** |
| ENERGY | *1* | **Ek****m****v** | kinetic energymassvelocity | joulekilogrammetres per second | Jkgm/s | $$E\_{k}=\frac{1}{2} x m x v^{2}$$ |
| *2* | **Ep****m****g****h** | gravitational potential energymassgravitational field strengthheight | joulekilogramnewton per kilogramm | JkgN/kgm | $$E\_{p}=m x g x h$$ |
| *3* | **P****W****t** | powerworktime | wattjoulesecond | WJs | $$P=\frac{W}{t}$$ |
| **ENERGY and ELECTRICITY** |
|  | **Quantity** | **Unit** | **Equation** |
| *ENERGY & ELECTRICITY* | *4* | **P****E****T****-** | powerenergytimeefficiency (no symbol) | wattjoulesecondno unit | WJS- | $$P=\frac{E}{t}$$ |
| *5* | $$E=P x t$$ |
| *6* | $$efficiency=\frac{useful energy out}{total energy in}$$ |
| *7* | $$efficiency=\frac{useful power out}{total power in}$$ |
| **ELECTRICITY** |
|  | **Quantity** | **Unit** | **Equation** |
| *ELECTRICITY* | *8* | **Q****I****V****R****P****E****t** | chargecurrentpotential differenceresistancepowerenergytime | coulombampvoltohmwattjoulesecond | CAV𝛺WJs | $$Q=I x t$$ |
| *9* | $$V=I x R$$ |
| *10* | $$P=V x I$$ |
| *11* | $$P= I^{2} x R$$ |
| *12* | $$E=Q x V$$ |
| **PARTICLE MODEL topic** |
|  | **Quantity** | **Unit** | **Equation** |
| *PART-ICLES* | *13* | **𝞀****m****v** | densitymassvolume | kilogram per metre3kilogrammetre3 | kg/m3kgm3 | $$ρ=\frac{m}{v}$$ |