CAMBRIDGE

INTERACTIVE TEXTBOOK INCLUDED

Cambridge science for Western Australia

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Evan Roberts
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CAMBRIDGE
UNIVERSITY PRESS

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ISBN 978-1-108-98036-4
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CAMBRIDGE
UNIVERSITY PRESS

University Printing House, Cambridge CB2 8BS, United Kingdom

One Liberty Plaza, 20th Floor, New York, NY 10006, USA

477 Williamstown Road, Port Melbourne, VIC 3207, Australia

314–321, 3rd Floor, Plot 3, Splendor Forum, Jasola District Centre, New Delhi – 110025, India

103 Penang Road, #05–06/07, Visioncrest Commercial, Singapore 238467

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First published 2021
20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

Cover designed by QBS Learning
Text designed by Shaun Jury
Typeset by QBS Learning
Printed in China by C&C Printing

A catalogue record for this book is available from the National Library of Australia at www.nla.gov.au

ISBN 978-1-108-98036-4 Paperback

Additional resources for this publication at www.cambridge.edu.au/GO

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The publisher thanks Keith Dale and Jonathan Blair for their help in reviewing and contributing to this title.

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Contents

Authors and contributors iii
How to use this resource vi

1 Being scientific
1.1 The scientific method: Questioning, predicting and conducting 4
1.2 The scientific method: Recording, processing and analysing data 16
1.3 The scientific method: Evaluating and communicating 29

2 Cells
2.1 Microscopes and cells 38
2.2 Organelles 47
2.3 Eukaryotic cells 54
2.4 Function and malfunction 65
STEM: Designing a city 78

3 Organ systems
3.1 Cells to systems 82
3.2 The human respiratory system 89
3.3 Other respiratory systems 98
3.4 The human circulatory system 106
3.5 The human digestive system 116
3.6 Other digestive systems 127
3.7 Organ repair and replacement 133
STEM: Clearing a blocked artery 146

4 Reproduction
4.1 Asexual and sexual reproduction in animals 150
4.2 The human reproductive system 160
4.3 Plant reproduction 166
STEM: Artificial bees to save the planet 184

5 States of matter
5.1 Particle model and states of matter 188
5.2 Properties of solids, liquids and gases 196
5.3 Changing states 203
STEM: Prosthesis design 216

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6 **Particles**
6.1 Atoms and elements 220
6.2 Organising elements 228
6.3 Compounds and mixtures 236
STEM: Reduce, reuse, repurpose, recycle 252

7 **Chemical change**
7.1 Evidence of physical change 256
7.2 Evidence of chemical change 263
7.3 Investigating reactions 275
STEM: Building a rocket 290

8 **Rocks**
8.1 Rock formation 294
8.2 Types of rocks 305
8.3 Classifying rocks 316
8.4 The mining process 324
STEM: Underground bunkers and asteroids 334

9 **Energy**
9.1 What is energy? 338
9.2 Energy is conserved 350
9.3 Applications of energy 361
STEM: Wind power 374

Glossary 376
Index 383
Acknowledgements 391

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How to use this resource

Elements in the print book

You will see the following types of boxes throughout this book.

Glossary
Definitions of key terms are provided next to where the key term first appears in the chapter.

Learning goals
These are descriptions of what the student will learn throughout the section.

Explore!

Students are encouraged to conduct research online to find and interpret information.

Did you know?

These are short facts that contain interesting information.

Quick check

These provide quick checks for recalling facts and understanding content. These questions are also available as Word document downloads in the Interactive Textbook.

Science as a human endeavour

These are recent developments in the particular area of science being covered. They may also show how ideas in science have changed over the years through human discovery and inventions.

Section questions

Question sets at the ends of sections are categorised under the following headings: Remembering, Understanding, Applying, Analysing and Evaluating. Action verbs have been bolded. These questions are also available as Word document downloads in the Interactive Textbook.

Hands-on activities

Try this

Classroom activities help explore concepts that are currently being covered.

Practicals

Classroom or laboratory activities and investigations help consolidate student understanding. These activities are also available as Word document downloads in the Interactive Textbook.

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End-of-chapter features

Chapter review

Chapter checklists help students check that they have understood the main concepts and learning goals of the chapter.

Chapter review question sets are categorised under the following headings: Remembering, Understanding, Applying, Analysing and Evaluating. Action verbs have been bolded. These questions are also available as Word document downloads in the Interactive Textbook.

Chapter checklist

In the Interactive Textbook, the success criteria are linked to the review questions and will be automatically ticked when answers are correct. Alternatively, you can download this checklist from the Interactive Textbook to complete it.

Success criteria		Linked question	Check
2.1	I can identify the parts of a microscope and use it correctly.	4, 13	
2.1	I can distinguish between different types of microscopes.	8	
2.1	I can recall modern cell theory.	2	
2.2	I can compare prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells.	16	
2.2, 2.3	I can describe the structure and function of different cell organelles.	5, 12	
2.3	I can compare animal, plant and fungi cells.	14	
2.4	I can recall the purpose of mitosis.	9	
2.4	I can describe the effect of microorganisms on human health.	1	

Data questions help students apply their understanding, as well as analyse and interpret different forms of data linked to the chapter content. These questions are also available as Word document downloads in the Interactive Textbook.

Data questions

Eukaryotic organisms can achieve cell growth and repair through the process known as mitosis. The relative time required for each of the stages of cell duplication in a eukaryotic cell is shown in the pie chart in Figure 2.55. The time taken for the mitosis phase (M) of cell division for different types of cells is given in Table 2.2.

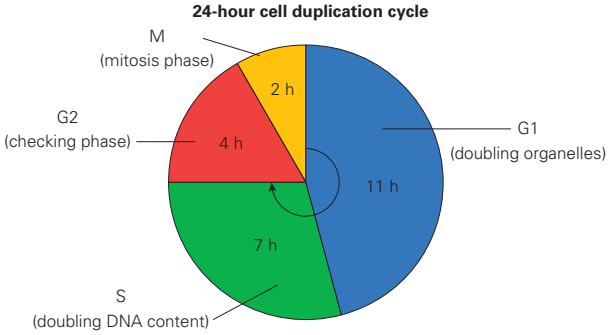
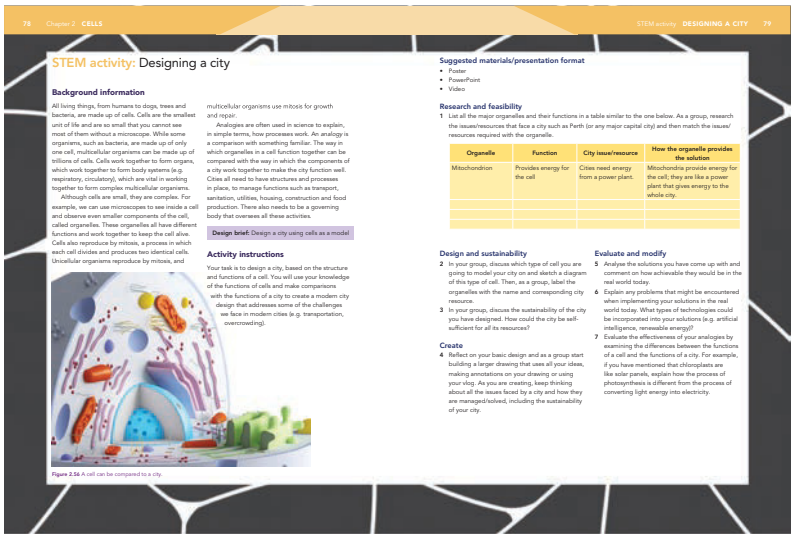


Figure 2.55 The relative duration of each of the four phases of a typical 24-hour cell division cycle in a eukaryotic cell


78 Chapter 2 CELLS

STEM activity: Designing a city

Background information

All living things, from humans to dogs, trees and bacteria, are made up of cells. Cells are the smallest unit of life and are so small that you cannot see most of them without a microscope. While some organisms, such as bacteria, are made up of only one cell, multicellular organisms can be made up of trillions of cells. Cells work together to form organs, which work together to form body systems (e.g. respiratory, circulatory), which are vital in working together to form complex multicellular organisms.

Although cells are small, they are complex. For example, we can use microscopes to see inside a cell and observe even smaller components of the cell, called organelles. These organelles all have different functions and work together to keep the cell alive. Cells also reproduce by mitosis, a process in which each cell divides and produces two identical cells. Unicellular organisms reproduce by mitosis, and multicellular organisms use mitosis for growth and repair.

Analogies are often used in science to explain, in simple terms, how processes work. An analogy is a comparison with something familiar. The way in which organelles in a cell function together can be compared with the way in which the components of a city work together to make the city function well. Cities all need to have structures and processes in place, to manage functions such as transport, sanitation, utilities, housing, construction and food production. There also needs to be a governing body that oversees all these activities.

Design brief: Design a city using cells as a model

Activity instructions

Your task is to design a city, based on the structure and functions of a cell. You will use your knowledge of the functions of cells and make comparisons with the functions of a city to create a modern city design that addresses some of the challenges we face in modern cities (e.g. transportation, overcrowding).

Figure 2.56 A cell can be compared to a city.

STEM activity DESIGNING A CITY 79

Suggested materials/presentation format

- Poster
- PowerPoint
- Video

Research and feasibility

1 List all the major organelles and their functions in a table similar to the one below. As a group, research the issues/resources that face a city such as Perth (or any major capital city) and then match the issues/resources required with the organelle.

Organelle	Function	City issue/resource	How the organelle provides the solution
Mitochondrion	Provides energy for the cell	Cities need energy from a power plant.	Mitochondria provide energy for the cell; they are like a power plant that gives energy to the whole city.

Design and sustainability

2 In your group, discuss which type of cell you are going to model your city on and sketch a diagram of this type of cell. Then, as a group, label the organelles with the name and corresponding city resource.

3 In your group, discuss the sustainability of the city you have designed. How could the city be self-sufficient for all its resources?

Create

4 Reflect on your basic design and as a group start building a larger drawing that uses all your ideas, making annotations on your drawing or using your vlog. As you are creating, keep thinking about all the issues faced by a city and how they are managed/solved, including the sustainability of your city.

Evaluate and modify

5 Analyse the solutions you have come up with and comment on how achievable they would be in the real world today.

6 Explain any problems that might be encountered when implementing your solutions in the real world today. What types of technologies could be incorporated into your solutions (e.g. artificial intelligence, renewable energy)?

7 Evaluate the effectiveness of your analogies by examining the differences between the functions of a cell and the functions of a city. For example, if you have mentioned that chloroplasts are like solar panels, explain how the process of photosynthesis is different from the process of converting light energy into electricity.

STEM activities encourage students to collaboratively come up with designs and build solutions to problems and challenges.

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Links to the Interactive Textbook

VIDEO
These icons indicate that there is a video in the Interactive Textbook.

WIDGET
These icons indicate that there is an interactive widget in the Interactive Textbook.

WORKSHEET
Worksheets can be downloaded from the Interactive Textbook at the start of every section.

QUIZ
Automarked quizzes can be found in the Interactive Textbook for every section.

SCORCHER
Competitive questions can be found at the end of each chapter.

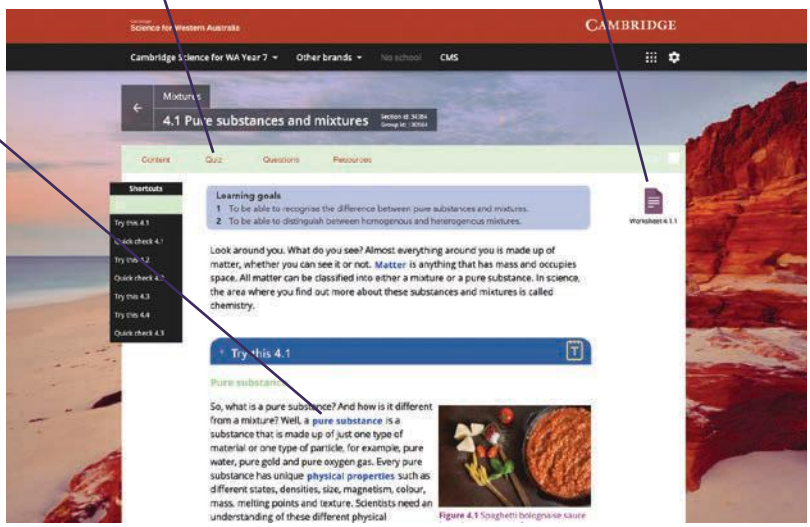
Overview of the Interactive Textbook (ITB)

The **Interactive Textbook (ITB)** is an online HTML version of the print textbook powered by the Edjin platform. It is included with the print book or available as a separate digital-only product.

Definitions pop up for key terms in the text.

Quizzes contain automarked questions that enable students to quickly check their understanding.

Worksheets are provided as downloadable Word documents.



Videos summarise, clarify or extend student knowledge.

Widgets are accompanied by questions that encourage independent learning and observations.

Practicals are available as a Word document download, with sample answers and guides for teachers in the Online Teaching Suite.

Practical 2.1

Using a microscope

Aim
To become proficient in using a microscope

Materials
- light microscope
- newspaper
- scissors
- glass microscope slide
- sticky tape

Be careful
Ensure that you carry the microscope appropriately. Carry it with one hand holding the arm and one hand under the base. Be mindful when using the coarse focus knob because the objective lens can touch the glass slide and damage it.

Method
1. Cut one word out of a newspaper.
2. Use sticky tape to attach the word to the centre of a glass slide.
3. Set the lowest magnification or smallest objective lens in place. Turn the coarse focus knob until it is as close to the stage as it will go.
4. Place the slide on the stage of the microscope and secure it in place with the clips.
5. Using the coarse focus knob, focus on the word.
6. Draw what you can see in the field of view at this lowest magnification. Record the magnification next to your drawing. In order to calculate the magnification, you will need to multiply the magnification of the eyepiece (ocular) lens by the magnification of the objective lens. For example, if the eyepiece is 10× magnification and the objective lens is 4× magnification, then the overall magnification is 10 × 4 = 40×.
7. Try moving the stage left and right, forwards and backwards, and note what you observe about the movement of the image.
8. Repeat steps **3–6** for each of the optical lenses, but using the fine focus knob to focus your specimen instead of the coarse focus knob.

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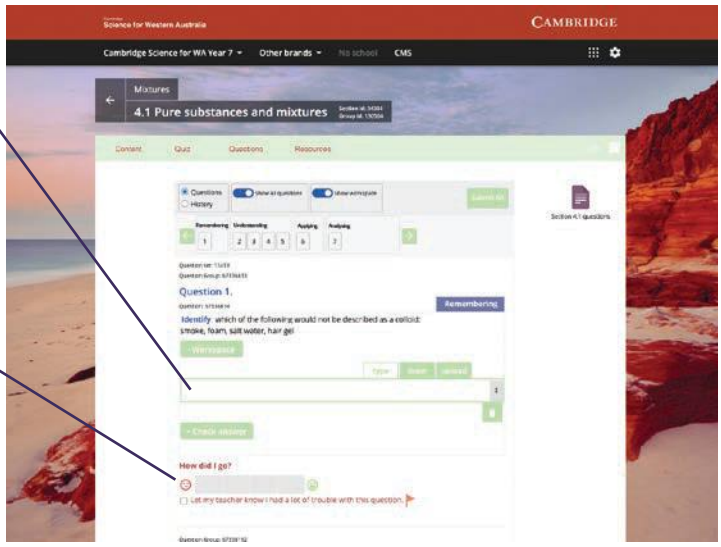
Workspaces enable students to enter working and answers online and to save them. Input is by typing, handwriting and drawing, or by uploading images of writing or drawing.

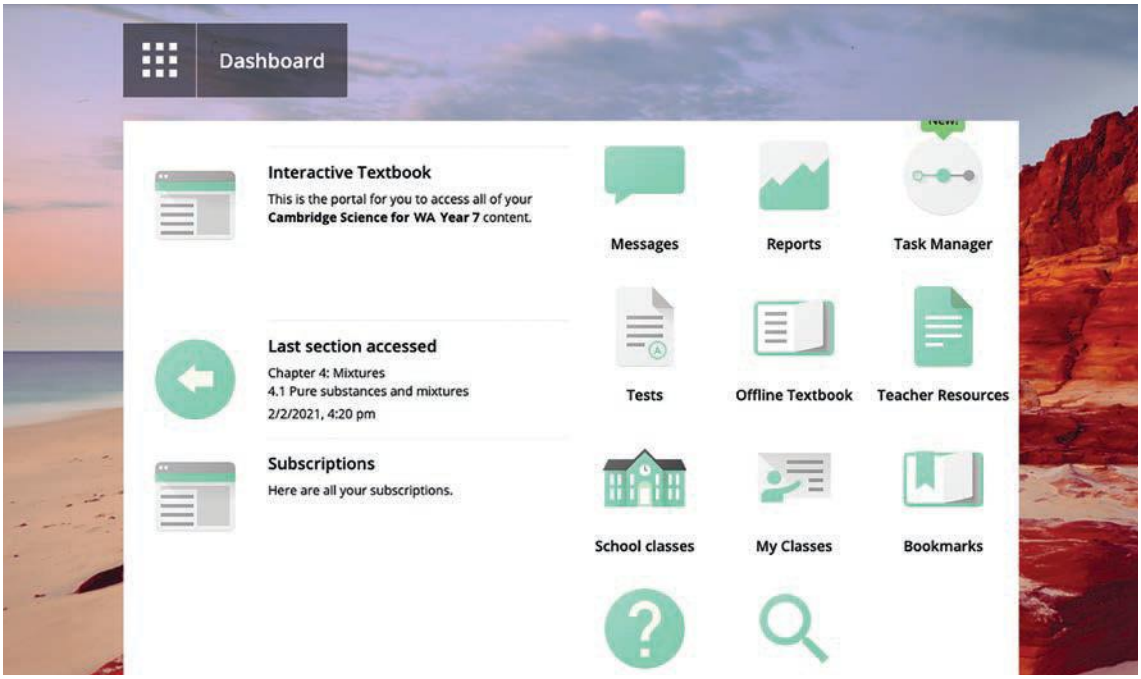
Self-assessment tools enable students to check answers, mark their own work, and rate their confidence level in their work. This helps develop responsibility for learning, and communicates progress and performance to the teacher. Student accounts can be linked to the learning management system used by the teacher in the Online Teaching Suite.



Overview of the Online Teaching Suite (OTS)

The Online Teaching Suite is automatically enabled with a teacher account and is integrated with the teacher's copy of the Interactive Textbook. All the assets and resources are in one place for easy access. The features include:

- **The Edjin learning management** system with class and student analytics and reports, and communication tools
- Teacher's view of a **student's working and self-assessment**
- **Chapter tests** and **worksheets** with answers as PDFs and editable Word documents
- Editable **curriculum grids** and **teaching programs**
- **Teacher notes** for Practicals, Try this, Explore! and STEM activities.



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Chapter 1
Being scientific

Chapter introduction

By now, you know a bit about science as a discipline and the many different fields that scientists work within. In this chapter, you will be introduced to the scientific method, which is a type of framework for how science is practised. You will focus on carrying out research and analysing sources of data, learn how to record and process your own experimental data, and discover how to communicate your scientific findings to the world.

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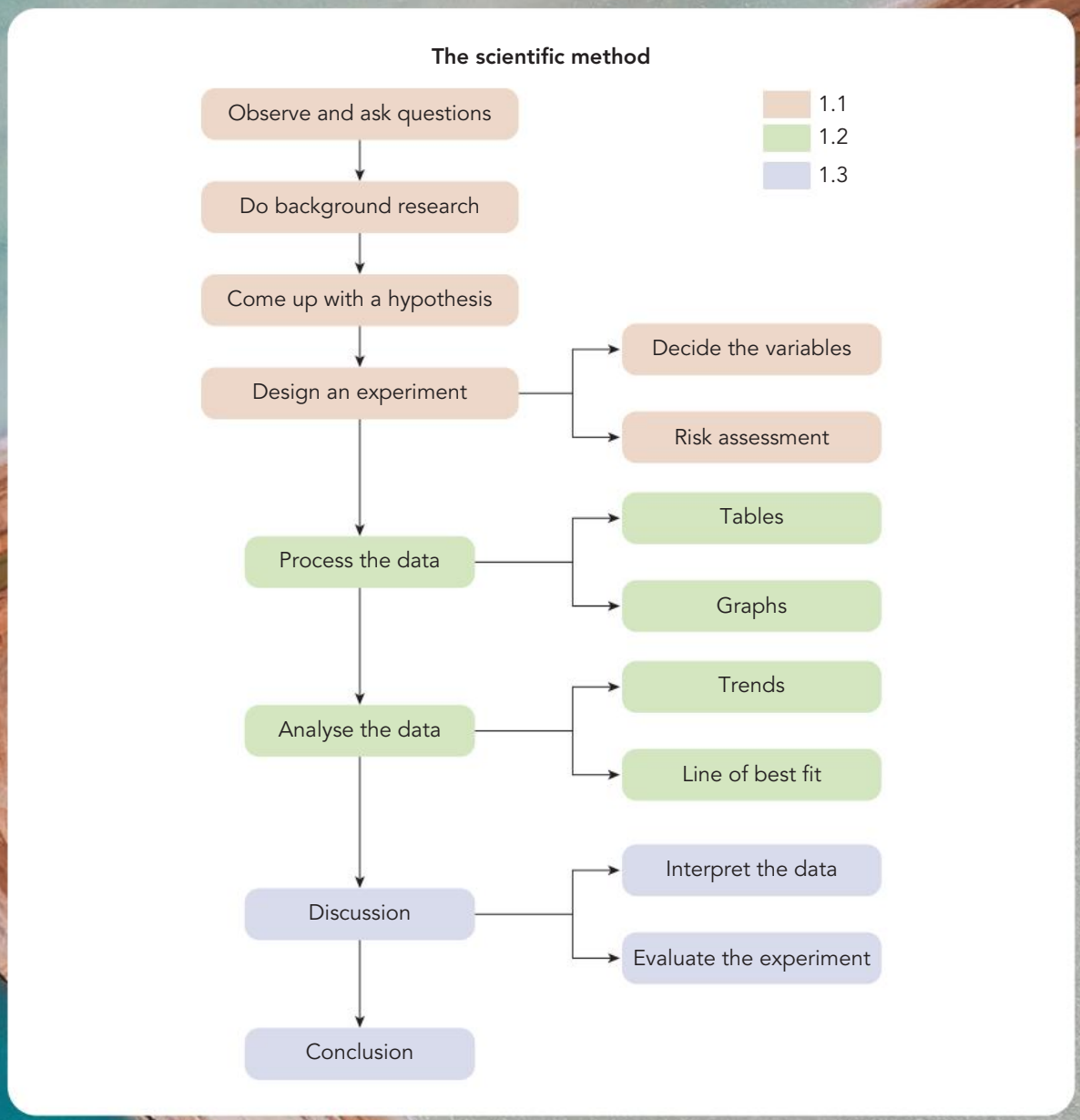
Chapter map



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1.1 The scientific method: Questioning, predicting and conducting

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to define primary and secondary sources of information.
2 To be able to write a scientific hypothesis.
3 To be able to write a step-wise experimental procedure.

The scientific method: review

Last year you looked at the definition of science, safety in a laboratory, how scientists gather data and how to use certain pieces of laboratory equipment. You were also briefly introduced to the scientific method.

The scientific method is a framework for how to plan, conduct and report on scientific research. The general steps in the scientific method are shown in Figure 1.1.

The scientific method

STEP 1: OBSERVE AND ASK QUESTIONS AND STATE VARIABLES
Define a good research question that can be tested.

↓

STEP 2: BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Conduct some background research on the question. You will also assess the quality and reliability of your sources of information.

↓

STEP 3: CONSTRUCT A HYPOTHESIS
Construct a hypothesis. This is a testable prediction about the outcome of the experiment. It is an educated guess that is formulated from your research. You should also state your independent, dependent and controlled variables.

↓

STEP 4: DESIGN AN EXPERIMENT
You will need to write a procedure to test the hypothesis. The steps should be easy to follow. It should include the materials and apparatus used, and the procedure in steps. You should also write a risk assessment. Your procedure will be used when you come to write the 'Method' section of your scientific report in Step 9.

↓

STEP 5: PROCESS THE DATA
During the experiment, you will collect important data. It might be quantitative or qualitative data. You will display this data in a meaningful way, using graphs, tables or diagrams.

↓

STEP 6: ANALYSE THE DATA
Examine the tables and graphs of data. Analysing data can reveal relationships, trends and patterns. Discuss your results in relation to your research hypothesis.

↓

STEP 7: EVALUATION
This is a discussion of the reliability and validity of the experimental process, including any improvements you would make or extensions that you would do if you were to repeat the experiment.

↓

STEP 8: CONCLUSION
This is an insightful interpretation of experimental evidence through a justified conclusion that is linked to the research question.

↓

STEP 9: REPORT THE RESULTS
Scientists share their findings with the broader scientific community by writing a scientific report or presenting a scientific poster. Sometimes the conclusions raise more questions and can lead to further research.

Figure 1.1 The scientific method

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Asking research questions

Asking questions is the first step in the scientific process, as there needs to be a question asked before we can try to find an answer. You most likely use the internet to answer most questions, but the answers you find online are often the result of a lot of scientific research. A question to research can be about anything, such as: 'Why do people prefer red food over green food?' or 'Does listening to music help students focus in class?' Both of these questions can lead to a possible scientific experiment.

Brainstorming can be a great way to draw out all possible questions that might be tested (Figure 1.2).

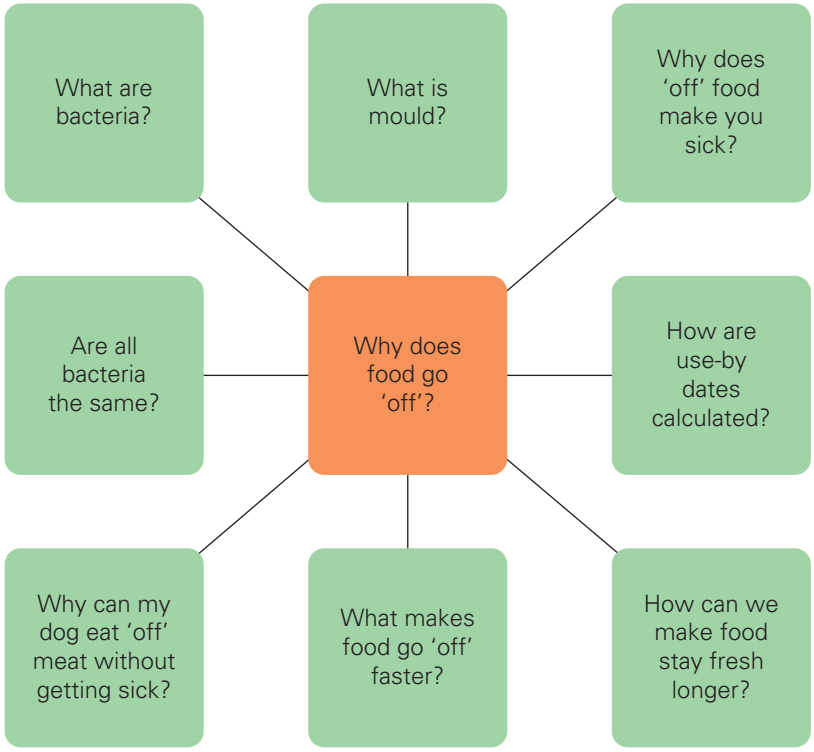

Figure 1.2 Brainstorming can help you develop questions.

Explore! 1.1

Think of a question that you are curious about. The question could be anything at all. Use the following question starters to help you:

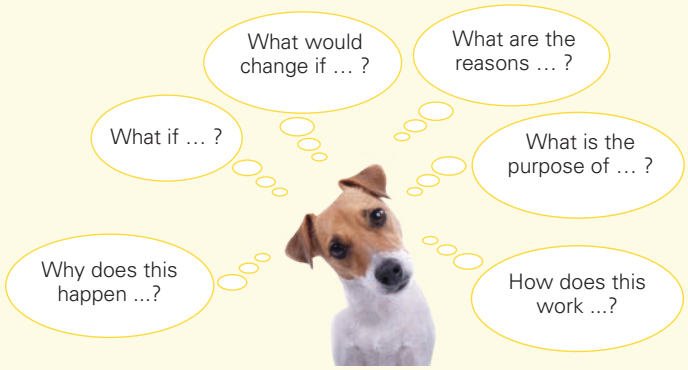

Figure 1.3 Begin by thinking of a question.

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Background research

Now that you have a question to answer, do some research to find out what people already know about the question. For example, say you are investigating the red food question on the previous page. Our early ancestors associated certain food with specific colours: they would avoid blue, black or purple foods, associating them with being toxic or spoiled. This may explain why many people don't like food being the colour blue.

However, in nature, the more red a food is, the more likely it will be nutritious, while green foods tend to be lower in energy (and therefore considered less delicious!). Red attracts attention, and increases blood flow and heart rate. When the blood flow is increased to the digestive system, it makes you hungry.

specific
clearly defined or identified

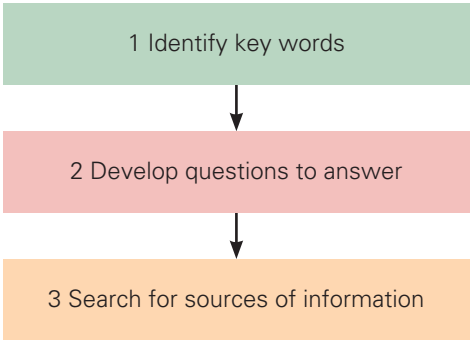
relevant
connected to the topic being investigated

primary source
a source of information that comes from your own findings or experiments

secondary source
a source of information that comes from someone else's research or findings

Think about your favourite fast food restaurant. What is the main colour that is used? Research some diet company logos, and you will find they often use either red or green.

When you are given a task to research, it can seem overwhelming. However, if you follow the steps below, it can make the whole process much easier.



1 Identify key words

A simple technique you can use to break down a research question is reading with a pen. See Try this 1.1 for ways to do this.

Try this 1.1

Reading with a pen

While reading about your research question, keep a pen handy.
Underline key words or phrases.
Circle words or phrases you don't understand.
? Put this next to something that raises a question.
! Put this next to something that surprises you.
Write important thoughts in the margin or around the question.

For example:
How does palm oil farming in Indonesia affect young people? living in Australia?

2 Develop specific and relevant questions to answer

Questions you could investigate from the inquiry question shown in Try this 1.1 are:

1 What is palm oil?
2 What is palm oil used for?
3 Who farms palm oil?
4 Where is Indonesia?
5 Why is palm oil farmed in Indonesia?
6 What is the age range of the 'young people'?
7 How can farming in another country affect Australia?
8 What are the effects of palm oil farming?

3 Search for sources of information

Often when we have a question, other people have asked the same question and have conducted some form of research to find answers.

A **primary source** of information is one that comes from your own findings and experiments. A **secondary source** is when you search for other people's research and use their findings.

There are many types of resources that you can use to gather secondary data.

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Using the internet

The internet is an amazing tool filled with lots of information. However, there is so much information that sometimes it can be hard to find exactly what you are looking for. It can also be hard to decide whether the information you are reading is correct and free of **bias**.

bias
when a source of information is influenced by personal opinion or judgement

Information is biased if the writer has let their personal opinion or their own agenda influence their judgement. For example, if you search the website of a coffee company for information about the effects of caffeine, you are more likely to get information that is biased in favour of drinking coffee – there might be less information about the negative effects of caffeine and more about the positive effects.

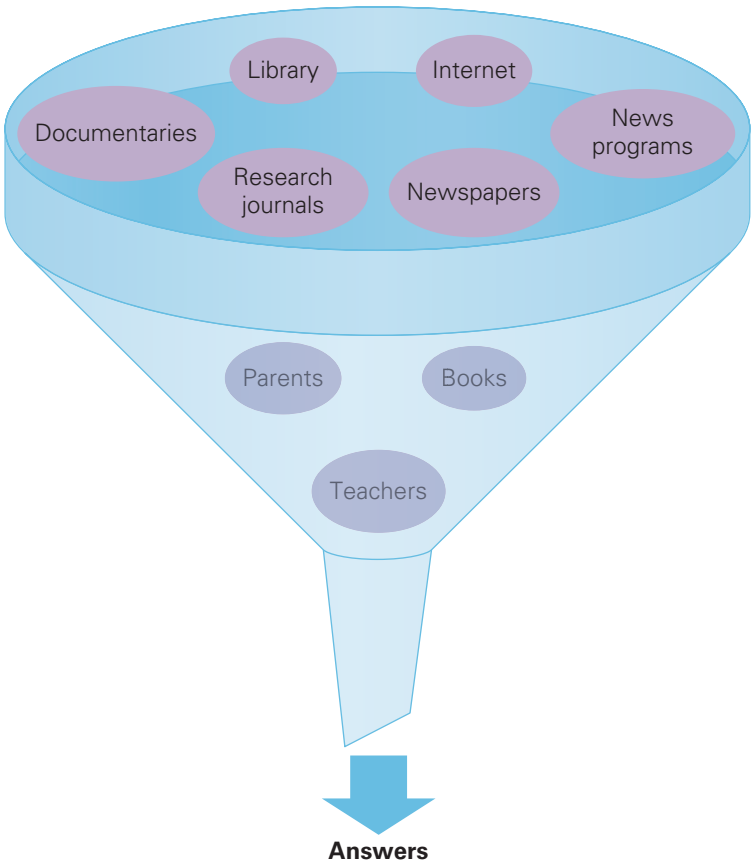

Figure 1.4 Resources for gathering secondary data

Searching

When searching for information, there are techniques you can use to help refine your search. For example, if you were researching the question, 'What are the effects of palm oil farming?', you might use the techniques listed in Table 1.1.

Search technique	How?	Example
Finding exact matches for grouped words	Use quotation marks to group search words together.	"palm oil farming"
Search for exact matches in titles or headings	Type: intitle:"search word"	intitle:"farming palm oil"
Search for a file type (see Table 1.2 below)	Type: filetype:abbreviation for file type "search word"	filetype:pdf"palm oil"
Try different spellings	Sometimes words are spelled differently on US websites, so try spelling search words the American way.	*colour* (on Australian and UK websites) is spelled *color* on US websites
Try a variety of sources	Google is not designed to bring the most scientific pages to the front of your search, so try other search engines and databases.	Google Scholar Library search engines Worldbook Databases to which your school subscribes

Table 1.1 Search techniques

Use	File type
Presentations	pptx, pages, key, pez
Images	jpeg, psd, png, tiff
Documents	pdf, doc, pub

Table 1.2 Common file types and their uses

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Secondary sources

When you find some information, you can use the *CRAAP test* to check whether you should use that information. The CRAAP test takes into account the currency, relevance, authority, accuracy and purpose of the information.

When you use the CRAAP test, you give each of these factors a score of 0, 1, 2 or 3. You then have to add up all the scores. You should aim to use sources that have total scores of at least 13. Table 1.3 explains how to apply the CRAAP test.

	Description	Score			
		0	1	2	3
C	**Currency:** How old the information is • When was the information published or posted? • When was the last time the information was updated? • Is any of the information out of date or does it use old terms? • Do the links work?	No date is given.	The information is over three years old; no date of revision or update is given.	The information has been created or updated within the last three years.	The information was created less than two years ago. Sources referenced are current.
R	**Relevance:** How well the information matches what you are researching • Does the information answer your question or link to the topic? • Who is the information aimed at? • Is the information worded at an appropriate level for you to understand?	There is no relevance to the topic I'm researching.	It has a small amount of information about the topic I'm researching.	It has a large amount of information about the topic I'm researching.	It can fully help me understand the topic I'm researching.
A	**Authority:** The writer of the information • Who is the author/publisher/source/sponsor? • Have the authors stated why they are experts? (Dr/Professor/experience) • What are the author's qualifications in the topic? • Is contact information provided, such as a publisher or email address? • Does the URL reveal anything about the author or the source? • Is the information linked to a biased organisation?	No author is identified.	The author is identified, but no credentials are given.	The author is named, and their contact details are given. The publisher is identified.	The author and publisher are identified and respected, and all contact details and credentials are listed.

Table 1.3 The CRAAP test

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	Description	Score			
		0	1	2	3
A	**Accuracy:** How correct or truthful the content is • Where does the information come from? • Is the information supported by evidence? • Has the information been reviewed or refereed by an expert? • Can you verify any of the information by checking another source? • Is the writing free of emotion? • Are there spelling, grammar or other errors in the writing?	There are no links to sources or a citation list. Information is difficult to understand, contains errors and may be incomplete.	There are no links to sources or a citation list. Information contains spelling and grammar errors.	There are links to sources or a citation list. Information is easy to understand and contains only minor spelling issues.	There are links to sources or a citation list. Information is corroborated with other sources. It contains no errors, is written well and in a concise way.
P	**Purpose:** The reason the information exists • What is the purpose of the information? • Do the authors make their intentions or purpose clear? • Is the information fact, opinion or propaganda? • Is the information biased? • Does the writer's point of view appear objective and neutral?	The purpose is biased, and therefore is personal. There may be too much advertising.	The purpose is to persuade or sell something to a reader.	It offers some factual information, but there may be some advertising.	The purpose is to present factual information in a balanced way.

Table 1.3 (*Continued*)

Try this 1.2

Using the CRAAP test

The aim of this activity is to research an inquiry question and use the CRAAP test to assess the usefulness of the resources you find.

1 Define 'adaptation'.
2 Outline one reason why it is important for animals to have adaptations.
3 Copy and complete the following table.

Australian animal characteristics	Animal 1	Animal 2
Common name		
Scientific name		
Where found in Australia		
Description of habitat		
Description of adaptation		
Type of adaption (behavioural, physiological, structural)		
Outline of how the adaptation allows the animal to survive in its habitat		

continued...

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...continued

4 Compile a sources list.
   a List the search terms you used for searches (at least three terms).
   b Name and score three of your sources.
   c Identify the best source of information you have accessed.
   d Compare the best source to the worst source.

Designing an experiment

Variables

Next you will need to turn your research question into an experiment. You begin by choosing one factor you are going to change, and one factor you are going to measure. These are known as your *experimental variables*. The factor you change is the **independent variable** and the **dependent variable** is the one that changes depending on how you changed the independent variable. Everything else must stay the same, in order to ensure that your experiment tests what it sets out to test. All the variables you keep the same are known as **controlled variables**. If you fail to control these variables, they might affect the dependent variable, which would make results invalid and might cause you to draw false conclusions.

independent variable
the variable in an experiment that you manipulate, change or test

dependent variable
the variable in an experiment that you measure

controlled variable
a variable in an experiment that must be kept constant, so it does not affect the dependent variable

hypothesis
a prediction, or educated guess, about the effect that the independent variable will have on the dependent variable; a prediction of the outcome of an experiment

In the food experiment, the variables are as follows:

Independent variable: colour of food

Dependent variable: perception of energy content or tastiness, or level of hunger stimulated

Controlled variables: time taken to look at food, portion size of food, plate that the food is placed on.

Writing a hypothesis

The variables in an experiment are used to make a prediction – this prediction is called the **hypothesis**. The hypothesis is a short statement about the expected effect of the *independent variable* on the *dependent variable*. You do not need to give a reason for your prediction. A good way to set out a hypothesis is shown in Figure 1.5.

Points to remember when writing a hypothesis:

- A hypothesis is a prediction about the outcome of the experiment.
- The hypothesis must be written as a statement that can be tested.
- Predict how the independent variable will affect the dependent variable.
- Do not use 'I think …'

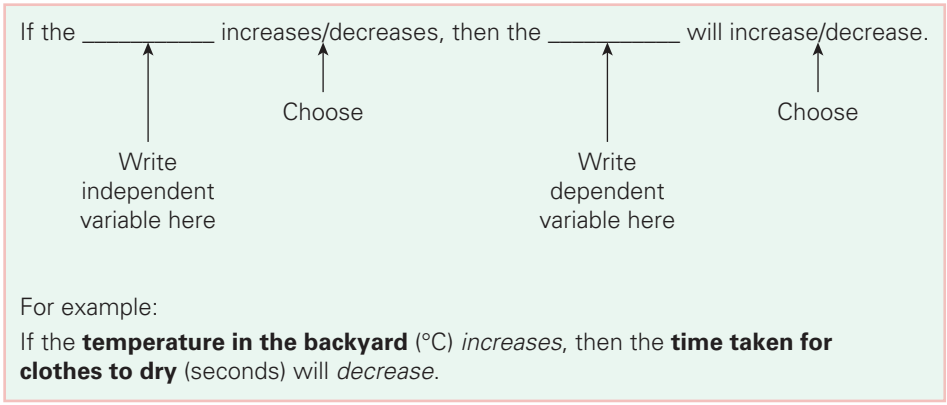

Figure 1.5 An example of setting out a hypothesis for the effect of backyard temperature on how long clothes take to dry

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Quick check 1.1

1 Sequence these steps in the order in which they should be done.
- Conduct the experiment
- Record and process the results (data)
- Ask a research question
- Do background research
- Construct a hypothesis
- Analyse the data
- Evaluate the data and draw conclusions

2 Define these terms:
- a independent variable
- b dependent variable
- c controlled variables.

3 Recall what a hypothesis must contain.

Writing a procedure

When designing an experiment, a procedure is a detailed description of the process involved in an experiment. It is a set of step-by-step instructions that will enable the experiment to be repeated exactly as it was originally conducted. When you write your scientific report, you will rewrite your procedure in the past tense for the 'Method' section of your report.

It is important to be as detailed as possible, as this will allow you to identify any flaws in your process when you look at your results.

When you are writing an experimental procedure, think about how you would write the instructions for making a cake: the baker needs to know exactly how much flour, sugar, eggs and butter to add, in which order to add them, how long to cook the cake and at what temperature; otherwise the cake could be a disaster.

Points to remember when writing a procedure:

1 Write the steps in order.
2 Start each step with a verb.
3 Include specific names and sizes of equipment used and quantities measured.
4 Outline what results will be measured and how this will be done.
5 Identify how the results will be presented.
6 Include the number of repeats that will be carried out.
7 Write in the third person (do not use you/I/we).

When you are writing your procedure, it is important to decide how many trials you will undertake. A reliable experiment should have at least three trials, so that the mean can be calculated to minimise the uncertainties of measurements in the results.

You should also consider how many different levels or situations of the independent variable you want to test. For example, timing how long a substance takes to melt in the fridge, at room temperature, in direct sunlight and in a flame uses four different levels of 'temperature', which is the independent variable. This experiment is therefore said to have four experimental conditions.

Risk assessment

Even if you perform them carefully, all experiments carry an element of risk. Some can even be dangerous. Therefore, it is

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important that you write a risk assessment to show that you have considered the risks associated with the experiment, and that you know how to avoid or minimise these risks.

Many risks will be obvious to you: you will already know the hazards associated with using glassware or electricity in the lab, but you may not be fully aware of the risks associated with different chemicals.

When writing your risk assessment, you will have to use a safety data sheet (SDS) to provide information about the risks associated with every chemical that you use. This sheet outlines any dangers the chemical presents, how you can minimise or avoid any risk to yourself when using it and the appropriate action to take should a problem arise. Table 1.5 shows some of the information that can be found on the SDS for hydrochloric acid.

Hazard	Risk	Risk management
Broken glass	Cuts from handling	Move all glassware from the edge of tables. Take care when handling glass equipment. If any glass is broken, inform a teacher. Do not try to clear it up yourself.
Bunsen burner	Burns	Wear appropriate personal protective equipment. Do not leave the flame unattended. Ensure it is cool before handling. Check that the gas valve is off when you have finished with it.

Table 1.4 An example of how a risk assessment can be presented

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Substance	Hazard	Explanation of hazard
Hydrogen chloride gas	Corrosive, health hazard	Adverse effects if inhaled. May cause irritation of respiratory tract, shortness of breath, chest pain and even death.
Concentrated hydrochloric acid (>6.8 mol L^{-1})	Corrosive, irritant	Corrosive to skin and eyes. The vapour may irritate the respiratory tract and lungs. It may also cause serious burns.
Moderate concentrations of hydrochloric acid (2.7–6.8 mol L^{-1})	Irritant	May cause irritation of eyes, skin and the respiratory tract.
Dilute hydrochloric acid (<2.7 mol L^{-1})	Potential irritant, low hazard	May cause irritation of eyes and on cuts in the skin.

Measures for reducing risk

- Use the lowest concentrations required.
- Use the smallest volume necessary.
- Wear personal protective equipment: gloves, protective clothing, eye protection, face protection.
- Do not breathe in the vapour.
- Use in a well-ventilated area, e.g. use a fume cupboard for concentrated solutions.

Emergency response

- If inhaled: assist persons(s) affected to fresh air and ensure breathing is comfortable.
- In eyes: rinse thoroughly with water for several minutes.
- On skin: remove all contaminated clothing. Rinse skin with water or shower.
- If swallowed: rinse mouth.
- Call 000 if the person is feeling unwell.

Table 1.5 An example of a simple SDS for hydrogen chloride and hydrochloric acid. Companies will usually have much more detailed and extensive SDSs accompanying chemical products.

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Practical 1.1

Deciding a procedure to test the strength of shapes

Background

In this experiment, you will be measuring the strength under compression of different shapes of paper. You may choose any shapes you wish, but they all have to be the same height and made of the same materials (one sheet of A3 paper).

Aim

To measure the strength of different shapes and folds of a piece of paper under compression

Materials

- 3 A3 sheets of paper
- 1 piece of cardboard
- several 50 g masses
- sticky tape
- scissors

Method

1 Define your variables for this experiment and list them in a table similar to the one below.

Independent variable	
Dependent variable	
Controlled variable	

2 Construct a hypothesis for your experiment. Predict how the independent variable will affect the dependent variable.

3 Design an experiment to test your prediction by writing out the procedure (or steps) you will follow.

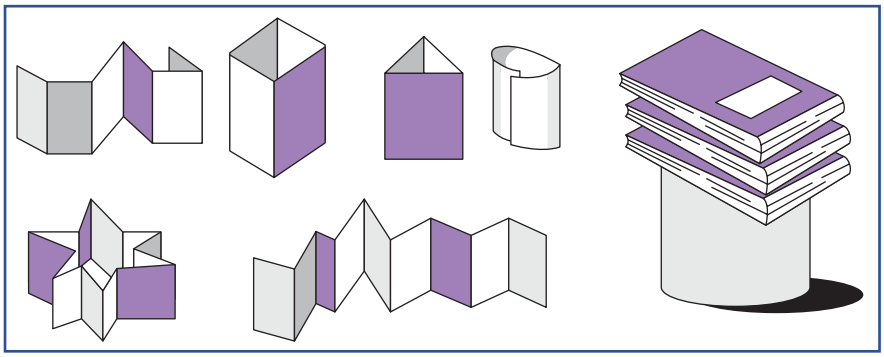

Figure 1.6 One way to test the strength of the different paper shapes is to rest some books on top of them. Some possible shapes are also shown.

Results

Record your results in a table similar to the one below.

Independent variable	Dependent variable			
	Trial 1	Trial 2	Trial 3	Mean

Discussion

1 Identify the strongest shape you tested.

2 Did anyone in the class have a stronger shape?

3 Suggest one more variable you controlled or should have controlled.

continued...

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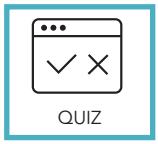
4 Explain why adding more trials and calculating the mean of the results would increase the reliability of the results you collected.

Conclusion

Draw a conclusion about the strength of different shapes of paper, using data to support your statement.

Section 1.1 questions



Remembering

1 **Define** the three types of experimental variables.

2 **Recall** three starters you could use to develop a question.

Understanding

3 A student wants to see if recording all homework in his diary every day will increase his homework scores. For one term, he records all homework in his diary daily. In the next term, he does not record any homework. He compares his homework scores for each term. **Identify** the:

- a independent variable in this experiment
- b dependent variable in this experiment.

4 **Explain** why variables have to be controlled.

Applying

5 **Explain** the domains a CRAAP test assesses, by copying and completing the table.

Domain	What is being assessed?
Currency	
	Is the information fact or opinion? Are the author's intentions clear? Is the information free from bias?
Authority	Who is the author and are they appropriately qualified?
Accuracy	
	Does the information address your research question? Is it written for the right audience?

6 **Explain** why an experimental procedure that includes quantitative measurements should be carried out as accurately as possible.

Analysing

7 **Contrast** a primary source of data with a secondary source of data.

Evaluating

8 Erika says her scientific research satisfies the scientific method because she performed all the steps of the method. She carried out the following steps:

1 She asked a question.
2 She conducted an experiment.
3 She recorded her data.
4 She analysed her data and created some graphs.
5 She did some background research to explain her data.
6 She came up with a hypothesis.
7 She analysed the data and found that it supported her hypothesis (she drew a conclusion).
8 She published a report to communicate her findings.

Evaluate Erika's claim. Do you agree that she has followed the scientific method? Explain your answer.

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1.2 The scientific method: Recording, processing and analysing data

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to construct a table of results for an experiment.
2 To be able to distinguish between quantitative and qualitative data.
3 To analyse trends in graphed data.

The early steps of the scientific method involve asking a question, doing background research, constructing a hypothesis, and designing and conducting the experiment to test the hypothesis.

You will need to:

- collect and record the data during the experiment
- process the data by calculating the mean, and then display your results in tables and graphs
- analyse the data by looking for patterns.

Displaying data in tables

It is a good idea to construct a table before the experiment begins, so you can record the data as you go.

All tables have:

- a title that describes what is in the table (not 'Results table')
- lines ruled in pencil (if on paper)
- column headings showing the unit that is measured.

Data for all trials should be included in the table, as well as means, differences or changes (if appropriate to the experiment). Units should only appear in the column headings.

Example of how to set up a table

An example of a table of data is shown in Figure 1.7. The title of this table is: 'How the mass of sodium bicarbonate added to vinegar affects the height of bubbles produced over time.'

The values in a table should all be written to the same number of decimal places. In Figure 1.8, the table on the left is correct, but the table on the right is wrong because the third value, 139, is not given to the same number of decimal places as the other data.

The **independent variable** is placed in the left-hand column.

Table: How the mass of sodium bicarbonate added to vinegar affects the height of bubbles produced over time

Mass of bicarbonate (g)	Height of bubbles (mm)			
	Trial 1	Trial 2	Trial 3	Mean
1.0	89	91	90	90
2.0	105	104	106	105
3.0	139	141	140	140
4.0	162	165	159	162

The **dependent variable** is placed in the top row, and results for each trial are shown.

If multiple trials are recorded, then you should also include a column for the mean value.

Figure 1.7 How to set up a table of data

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✓

Time (s)	Volume of liquid (mL)
1.0	89.1
2.0	105.2
3.0	139.0
4.0	162.5

✗

Time (s)	Volume of liquid (mL)
1.0	89.1
2.0	105.2
3.0	139
4.0	162.5

Figure 1.8 Data values in a column should all have the same number of decimal places.

Once you have recorded your data in a table, it is good practice to write a short sentence summarising what the table shows.

For example, from the table in Figure 1.8, you could say:

'The results provide evidence that as time (s) increases, the volume of liquid (mL) also increases.'

Quick check 1.2

1 Identify the mistake in each of the following tables.

a

Time (s)	Temperature
0	40°C
60	50°C
120	60°C
180	70°C

b

Distance (km)	Time (s)
1	66.6
2	140.00
3	293.45
4	603.32

2 Construct a table to show the following data.
Max is making toffee. He is using a thermometer to measure the temperature of the sugar. At 5 minutes, he finds that the temperature of the sugar is 100°C. At 10 minutes it is 108°C, at 15 minutes it is 115°C and at 20 minutes it has reached 122°C.

3 Anna places a bottle of water in a freezer set at different temperatures and measures how long it takes the water to freeze at each temperature. She records her results in the table opposite.
Identify the mistake in the table.

Time to freeze (h)	Freezer temperature (°C)
6	−2
4	−4
3	−6
2	−8

Calculating the mean

Worked example 1.1

A pool owner takes five temperatures in a pool: one from each corner and one from the middle of the pool at midday. The temperatures were 17°C, 15°C, 13°C, 16°C and 15°C. Calculate the mean (average) temperature of the pool.

Solution	Explanation
17°C + 14°C + 14°C + 16°C + 14°C = 75°C	The sum of the measurements is 75°C.
Mean = $\frac{75°C}{5}$ = 15°C	Divide the sum by the number of measurements, which in this case is five.

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Practical 1.2

Testing paper planes

Aim

To test how the size of a paper aeroplane affects the distance it can travel by recording data from multiple trials.

Materials

- A4 paper
- scissors
- measuring tape

Method

1. Define the following for your experiment: independent variable, dependent variable and controlled variables. Create a table of results for your experiment.
2. Construct a hypothesis for your experiment. Predict how the independent variable will affect the dependent variable.
3. Follow the steps shown in Figure 1.9 to produce a paper aeroplane.
4. Choose four different sizes of paper to make different sized paper aeroplanes. Planes made from bigger pieces of paper will have a bigger mass and a bigger wing span.
5. Throw the first aeroplane and measure the distance travelled until it hits the ground.
6. Record your measurement in the results table.
7. Throw this plane two more times, recording your result each time.
8. Repeat steps **5–7** for each of the four different planes.
9. Calculate the mean for each set of results.

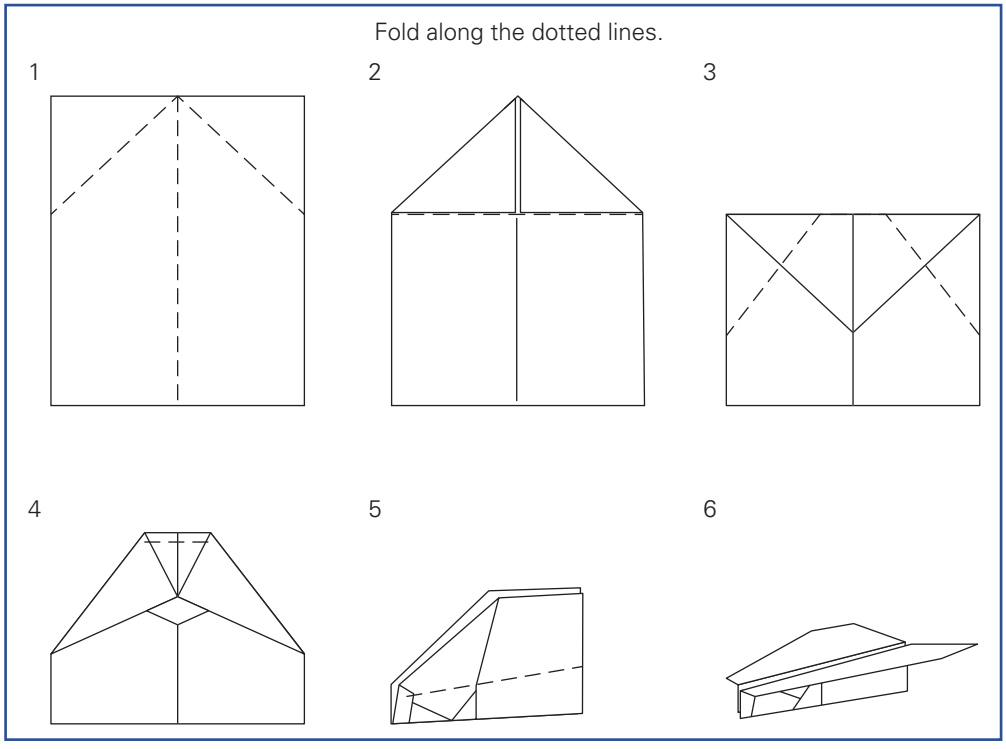

Figure 1.9 How to make the paper aeroplane

Results

Write a short summary of what your data shows.

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...continued

Discussion

1. Identify other variables that you should have controlled during the experiment.
2. Identify one variable that you were not able to control, that could have affected your results (one potential source of error).
3. Suggest two other independent variables that you could change, other than the size of the aeroplane.
4. Explain the reason for conducting multiple trials and calculating the mean of your results.

Evaluating your data

Before you pack away the equipment, check your data to make sure you do not have any data missing or outliers. An **outlier** is a measurement that is very different from the data gathered in your other trials. If you see an outlier, perform that trial again, as the outlier could be the result of faulty procedure.

Displaying your data in graphs

Now that you have raw data from your experiment, it is important to display the data in a way that shows any possible patterns, trends or relationships that your experiment has uncovered.

The type of graph that is appropriate depends on the type of data that you have collected. **Quantitative data** (numbers) is classified as either **continuous** or **discrete**. **Qualitative data** (descriptions or worded categories) is classified as either **ordinal** or **nominal**.

Quantitative data: continuous vs discrete

Quantitative data relates to numbers. Table 1.6 lists the differences between continuous and discrete quantitative data.

outlier
an extreme data value that is very different from the other data and could be the result of faulty procedure

quantitative data
data values that are numerical in nature

continuous data
quantitative (numerical) data points that have a value within a range; this type of data is usually measured

discrete data
quantitative (numerical) data points that have whole numbers; this type of data is usually counted

qualitative data
data values that are worded, descriptive or categorical in nature

ordinal data
qualitative (categorical) data where the categories have an order, e.g. small, medium, large

nominal data
qualitative (categorical) data where the categories have no order, e.g. male, female

	Continuous data	Discrete data
Features	Usually measured	Usually counted
	Takes any value within a range, e.g. might have decimal places	Usually takes whole-number values
Examples	*Human height* If you measured the height (in metres) of every person in the classroom, the data might look like: 1.75, 1.77, 1.80, 1.83, 1.99 … The data can be placed in a definitive order. *Other examples:* time, weight, temperature (measured with a thermometer or temperature probe)	*Number of plants* If you counted the number of plant seedlings that grew in an experiment, the data might look like: 1, 0, 5, 8, 17 … It is impossible to have 1.39 plants. You can only have whole numbers. The data can be placed in a definitive order. *Other examples:* number of siblings, number of crystals formed after a chemical reaction

Table 1.6 The differences between continuous and discrete quantitative data

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Line graphs

A *scatter plot* is a way of displaying how one quantitative variable changes in response to another quantitative variable, by plotting points. When the points are connected, it is called a **line graph**. Line graphs are generally used with continuous data, as they show how the data points continue on from one another. A **trendline** could instead be drawn as a line that is an average of the plotted points on a scatter plot. A trendline is shown in Figure 1.10.

line graph
a type of graph used to display how a continuous quantitative variable changes over time or in reference to another variable

trendline/line of best fit
a line drawn to show an average of plotted points

The lines at the side and bottom of a graph are called the *axes*. When you transfer data from a table, place the independent variable on the *x*-axis (horizontal axis) and the dependent variable on the *y*-axis (vertical axis).

Table: The speed of a car over a period of time

Time (s)	Speed (m s^{-1})
0	0.0
2	1.4
4	2.6
6	4.4
8	5.6
10	6.6
12	8.2
14	9.6

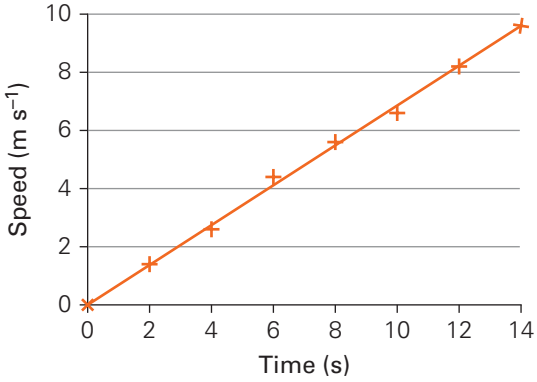

Figure: The speed of a car over a period of time

Figure 1.10 A table and figure showing the speed of a car over a period of 14 seconds. Note that in the graph representation of this table, very small crosses have been used to mark the data points.

Practical 1.3

Pendulum practical

Background information

In this practical, you will gather continuous data and convert it into a line graph.

Aim

To test the effect of string length on the time it takes a pendulum to complete one swing

Materials

- retort stand
- bosshead and clamp
- 120 cm of string
- weight for pendulum
- protractor
- stopwatch
- Blu-Tack
- graph paper or graphing application such as Microsoft Excel

Planning

1 Define your variables for this experiment and record them in a table similar to the one below.

Independent variable	
Dependent variable	
Controlled variables	

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...continued

2 Construct a hypothesis for your experiment. Predict how the independent variable will affect the dependent variable.
3 Write a risk assessment for this experiment.

Method

1 Attach the weight to one end of the string.
2 Tie the string to the bosshead and clamp attached to the retort stand to leave 20 cm of string from the bosshead to the weight. Figure 1.11 shows the set-up when the string is longer than the height of the retort stand for later trials.
3 Hold the string tight at an angle of 45 degrees (check the angle with the protractor) and release the pendulum.
4 Start the stopwatch as soon as you release the pendulum and count three full swings (across and back), as shown in Figure 1.11.
5 When the pendulum returns for the third time, stop the stopwatch and divide the time by 3.
6 Record the time for one swing in the results table.

Results

Create a results table for your experiment.

Use the mean of each of your trials to produce a line graph. Remember the following points:

- Plot the independent variable on the *x*-axis.
- Plot the dependent variable on the *y*-axis.
- Label each axis with the variable name and the unit of measurement.
- Write a title for the graph.
- Use an even scale (equal spaces between the numbers on the axes).

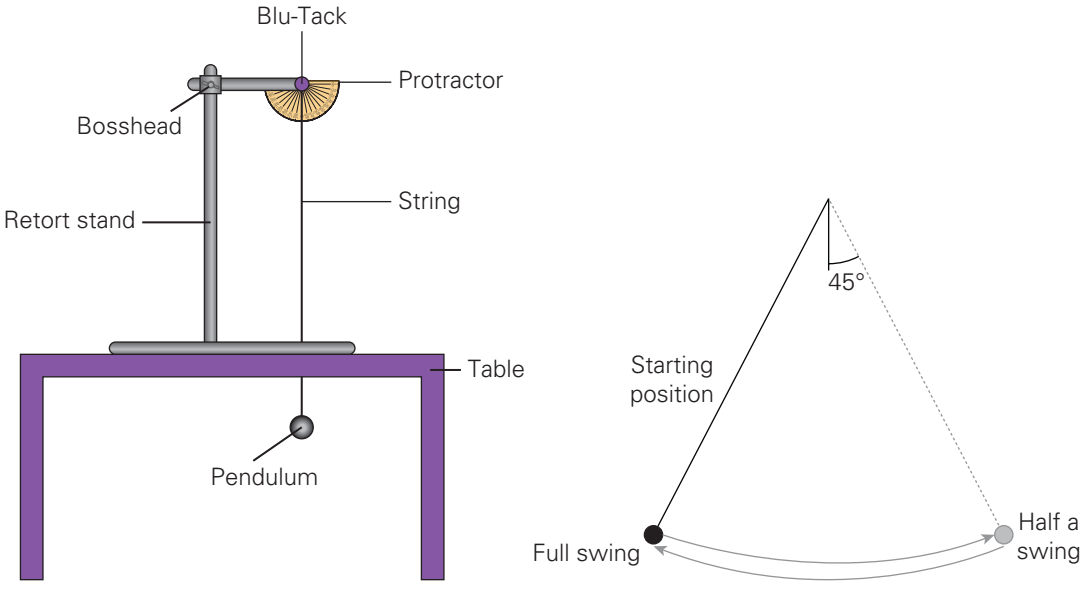

Figure 1.11 The experimental set-up. Left: Setting up the pendulum. Right: Timing the swing of the pendulum

Discussion

1 Identify any trends you see in your graph.
2 Explain whether your results supported or disproved your hypothesis.

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Qualitative data: ordinal vs nominal

Qualitative data involves categories, scales or descriptions. This type of data is in the form of words (rather than numbers). The differences between ordinal and nominal data are listed in Table 1.7.

	Ordinal data	Nominal data
Features	Categories have a natural order.	Categories do not have a natural order.
Examples	A chemical reaction is performed and the amount of product produced is described as 'low', 'medium' or 'high'. Five trials are completed and the data looks like: low, high, medium, low, low. These categories make sense if they are displayed in a certain order. *Other examples:* month of the year, size of a test tube (small, medium, large), a participant's response on a scale (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree)	A survey is completed for background research and participants are asked to choose their favourite colour from a list. The data might look like: pink, yellow, green, blue. The categories could be displayed in any order. *Other examples:* gender (male, female), blood type (A, B, O, AB), eye colour (blue, brown, green)

Table 1.7 The differences between ordinal and nominal qualitative data

Bar graphs and column graphs

A **bar graph** (or column graph) is a way of displaying how a quantitative dependent variable (for example, heart rate) changes in response to a qualitative independent variable (for example, breed of animal).

bar graph
a type of graph used to display the frequency of a qualitative variable (category)

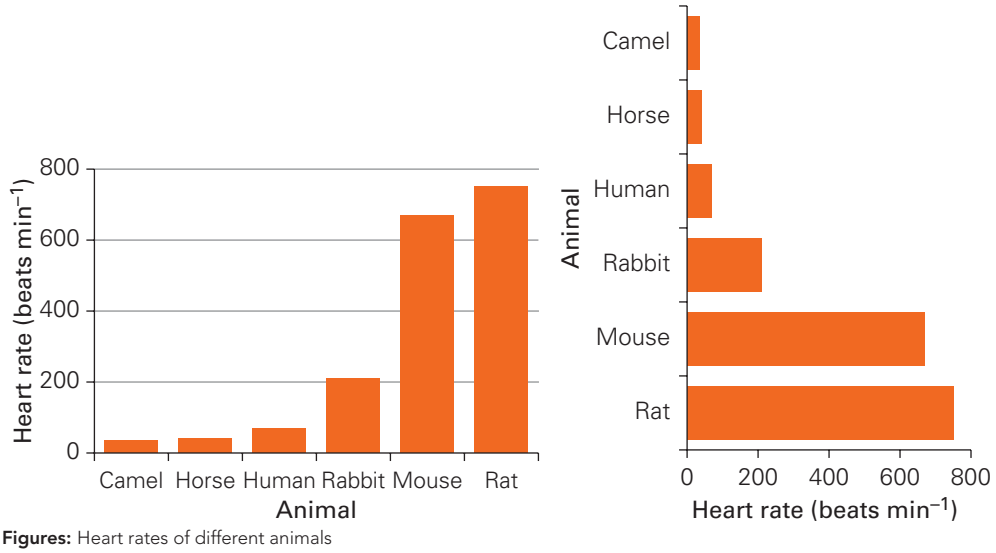
Bar graphs and column graphs are similar; often one is chosen over the other simply due to how the information is best displayed. Categories are listed along the *x*-axis and numbers along the *y*-axis in column graphs, while on bar graphs it is the other way around.

Bar and column graphs have spaces between the bars – the bars do not touch each other.

An example is shown in Figure 1.12.

Table: Heart rates of different mammals

Animal	Heart rate (beats min^{-1})
Camel	35
Horse	41
Human	70
Rabbit	210
Mouse	670
Rat	750



Figures: Heart rates of different animals

Figure 1.12 A data table, column graph and bar graph showing heart rates of different mammals

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Guidelines for drawing graphs

- Always use a sharp, dark pencil.
- Usually the independent variable goes on the *x*-axis and the dependent variable on the *y*-axis. However, sometimes you may be asked to plot variables on specific axes in a way that contradicts this rule.
- Label the axes with the quantity being measured and the units. The units should be in brackets after the quantity name – for example, time (s) or volume (L).
- Use the full width of the graph paper (if drawing on paper) and choose a scale that spreads the data points over most of the grid. If you are measuring quantities where 0 does not mean 'no quantity' (for example, temperature), then you do not have to start the axes at zero. If the range of values does not go to zero (for example, 85–115), then you can start the axis at zero and break the axis with the next increment starting at 80 and continue numbers to 120. If the quantities on both axes go to zero, then the **origin** (where the axes meet) should be at (0, 0).

origin
the point (0, 0) where the *x*-axis and *y*-axis intercept

- Make sure the scale increases evenly, preferably with each grid square used to represent multiples of 1, 2, 5 or 10. Do not have breaks in the scale where plotted data is present – for example, you can't show 0 to 20 in intervals of 5 and then skip straight to 40.
- If you are plotting multiple sets of data on the same graph, use different-coloured points, or markings, for each data set and add a legend.

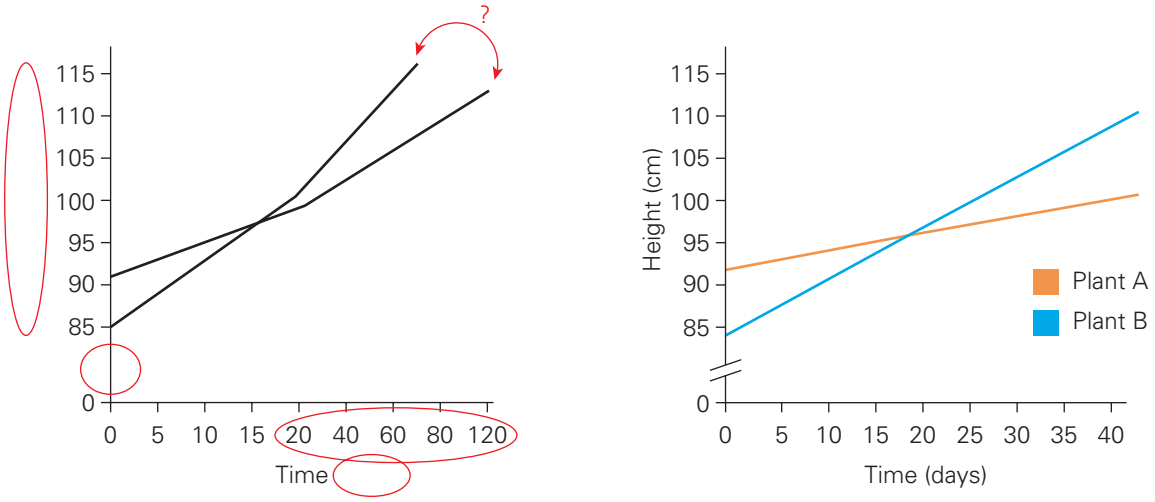

Figure 1.13 Can you see what is wrong with the graph on the left? There is no label on the *y*-axis so we don't know what it refers to, and there are no units on the *x*-axis – is it years, months, seconds or something else? The *y*-axis jumps from 0 to 85 without indication of a break. The *x*-axis intervals are also inconsistent; it starts with multiples of 5 up until 20, and then changes to multiples of 20. We also cannot tell which plant corresponds to which line.

Practical 1.4

Insulation of water

Background information

In this practical, you will gather data in order to produce a bar graph. You will test the effect of foil, paper and cotton wool as insulating materials, and measure how this affects the cooling rate of water.

Aim

To test the effect of different materials on the cooling rate of water

continued...

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...continued

Materials

- 4 × 250 mL beakers
- kettle
- 4 thermometers
- foil
- cotton wool
- paper
- stopwatch
- elastic bands

Planning

1 Complete some background research and summarise your findings on insulation.

2 Define your variables for this experiment and record them in a table similar to the one below. Also include the type of data that each variable will yield.

		Type of data variable yields
Independent variable		
Dependent variable		
Controlled variables		N/A

3 Construct a hypothesis for your experiment. Predict how the independent variable will affect the dependent variable.

Method

1 Cover the sides of three beakers with cotton wool, paper or foil, and use elastic bands to secure the covers in place. Leave the fourth beaker uncovered.

2 Place a thermometer in each of the beakers.

3 Boil the kettle and pour 100 mL of boiling water into each of the beakers. Start the stopwatch immediately.

4 Time for 5 minutes using the stopwatch, and then measure and record the temperature of the water in each beaker.

5 Gather data from two more trials, from other groups in your class. Add the data to the results table and calculate the mean temperature after 5 minutes for each insulating material.

Results

Copy and complete the following table to record your results.

Cover material	Temperature after 5 minutes (°C)			
	Trial 1	Trial 2	Trial 3	Mean
Foil				
Paper				
Cotton wool				
No cover				

Create a bar graph for the mean data in your results table. Put the independent variable (insulating material) on the *x*-axis and the dependent variable (temperature after 5 minutes) on the *y*-axis.

Discussion

1 State whether your results supported or disproved your hypothesis and explain why.

2 Suggest a reason for using a beaker with no cover material.

3 Suggest a reason for putting your data into a bar graph, rather than just leaving it in a table.

4 Identify potential sources of measurement uncertainties or experimental faults in this experiment.

5 Suggest one way you could improve the experimental design if you were to repeat this experiment in the future.

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Analysing data

Analysing data involves examining the tables and graphs and looking for patterns or relationships.

In Figure 1.14, the data shows a steady increase in clothing size as the age of a child increases. You would describe this by saying, 'As the age of the child (in years) increases, the size of clothing also increases'.

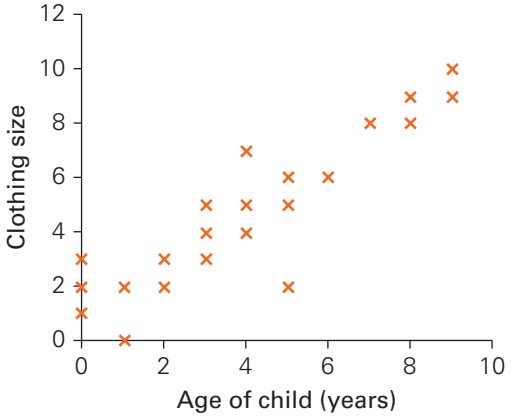

Figure 1.14 The effect of child age on clothing size

Describing patterns

We refer to patterns in graphs as **trends**. The graphs in Figures 1.15–1.17 show some common trends you might observe and describe.

trend
a pattern in a graph that shows the general direction/ shape of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables

exponential
a population that grows at a rate proportional to its size

In Figure 1.15, the data shows a rapid increase that reaches a plateau (flat line) and then remains constant. You would describe this by saying, 'During the first 60 months, as the number of months increases, the number of customers increases rapidly from 0 towards 2000. Then, for the next 40 months, the number of customers remains fairly constant at around 2000'.

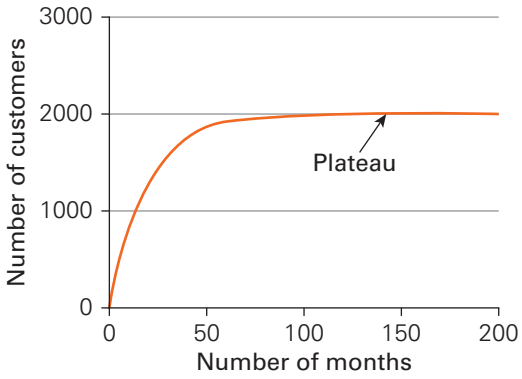

Figure 1.15 The total number of customers over months

The data in Figure 1.16 shows an **exponential** increase. For the first 10 hours, the number of bacteria increases slowly from 10 000 to 30 000. After 10 hours, the number of bacteria increases more rapidly.

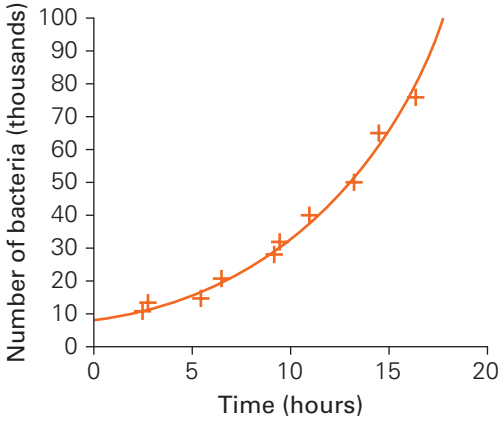

Figure 1.16 The number of bacteria over a period of time

In Figure 1.17, the data does not show a clear pattern. There are seemingly random fluctuations over time.

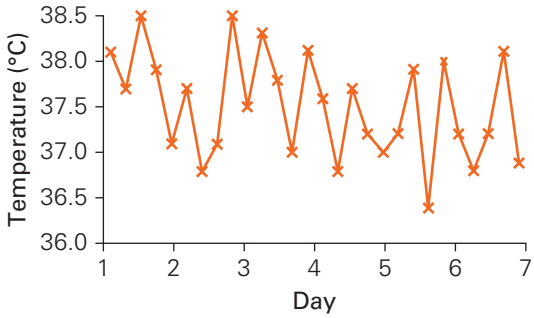

Figure 1.17 Temperature fluctuations over a seven-day period

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Drawing a line of best fit

Once you have plotted your data, you may see a trend in the results, such as a straight line or a curve. To highlight this trend, we can use a curve or line of best fit. Connecting every data point suggests that there are absolutely no errors in the data, whereas a line of best fit approximates the relationship between the two variables. You can also use the line of best fit to predict missing measurements. If you make predictions inside the data set you originally collected, this prediction is called **interpolation**. This can be reliable in some circumstances, but not always, so be careful. If you predict outside the original data set, this prediction is called **extrapolation** and is less reliable because the trend outside the data collected is unknown.

interpolation
using existing data (such as a line of best fit) within the original data set to make a reliable prediction

extrapolation
using existing data (such as a line of best fit) outside the original data set to make a prediction

When drawing a line of best fit, make sure that there are as many points on one side of the line as on the other. You do not need to join each data point with the line. The line of best fit is like an 'average' that runs smoothly through the middle of the data points and makes the trend obvious.

A line of best fit:

- should be continuous
- can be straight, curved or any other shape that fits the data points. Do not try to draw a straight line of best fit over data that is clearly curved
- should not be forced through the (0, 0) origin if one is used on the graph
- should not be drawn beyond the range of the data points. However, it can be linked back to the axes with a dotted or dashed line, as shown in Figure 1.18.

Figure 1.18 is a scatter plot with a line of best fit, drawn in red. Note how the line runs through the 'middle' of the data, like an average. The dotted regions are where the line has been continued past the original data set. If you use the line in these regions (for example, to predict the reaction time for 0.1 mol L^{-1} of acid), then it is extrapolation and is less reliable.

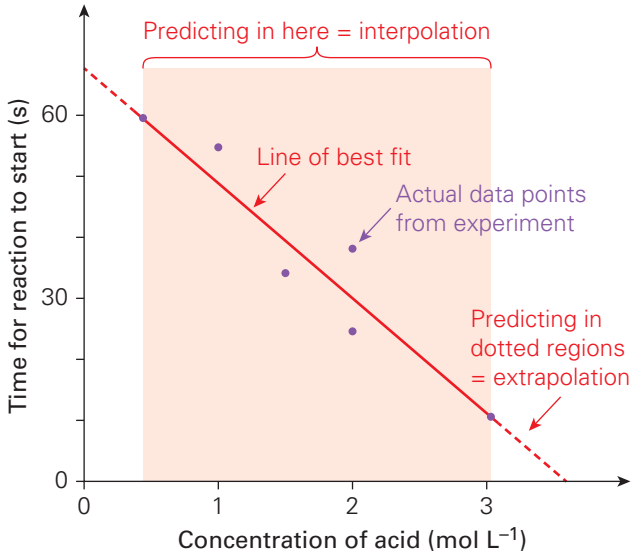

Figure 1.18 The effect of acid concentration on the time taken for a reaction to start

The line of best fit is not always a straight line. The graph in Figure 1.19 shows how 100 mL of water cools over 100 minutes. As you can see, a straight line would not fit the dots very well. In this case, the line of best fit is a curved line.

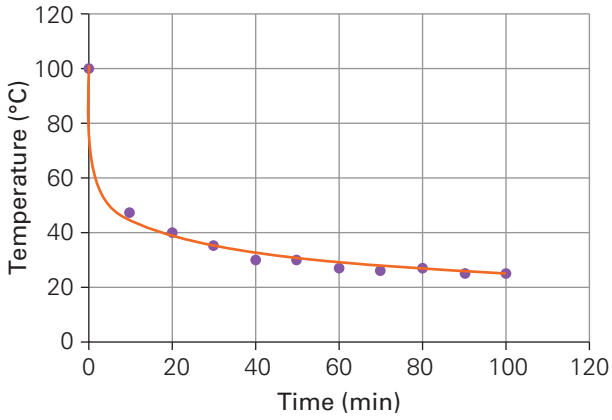

Figure 1.19 The temperature of 100 mL of water over a period of time

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Practical 1.5

Balloon popping

Background information

In this activity, you will gather data that can be turned into a scatter graph.

Be careful

You must wear safety glasses for this practical.

Aim

To test the effect of number of breaths used to inflate a balloon on its circumference

Materials

- balloon
- string
- permanent marker
- ruler
- safety glasses

Method

1. Lie the balloon flat on the workbench. Using the string, measure the circumference at the widest part of the balloon.
2. Using the permanent marker, draw a line on the balloon to indicate where you took the first measurement.
3. Use one breath to inflate the balloon. Without tying the balloon, measure the circumference along the line you have already drawn. (First measure the circumference using the string, and then measure the length of the string using the ruler.)
4. Repeat step **3**, adding more volume to the balloon by one breath at a time, recording your results until the balloon pops.
5. Use your results to draw a line graph.

Results

Create a results table for this experiment.

Draw a line graph with number of breaths on the *x*-axis and balloon circumference on the *y*-axis.

Discussion

1. Identify one trend that you observed in your graph.
2. Suggest possible experimental uncertainties and faults in this experiment.
3. Suggest one way to improve the experimental design if you were to conduct this experiment again in the future.

Conclusion

Draw a conclusion from this experiment. Justify your answer with data.

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Section 1.2 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **State** where units of measurement go in a results table.
2 **Recall** four features of a correctly drawn results table.
3 **Recall** the term used when a measurement is repeated.

Understanding

4 **Explain** what to look for when evaluating your data.
5 **Describe** where the independent and dependent variables should be placed in a table.
6 **Describe** where the independent and dependent variables should be placed on a graph.

Applying

7 **Contrast** qualitative and quantitative data.
8 **Contrast** continuous and discrete data.

Analysing

9 **Identify** two things wrong with the following table.

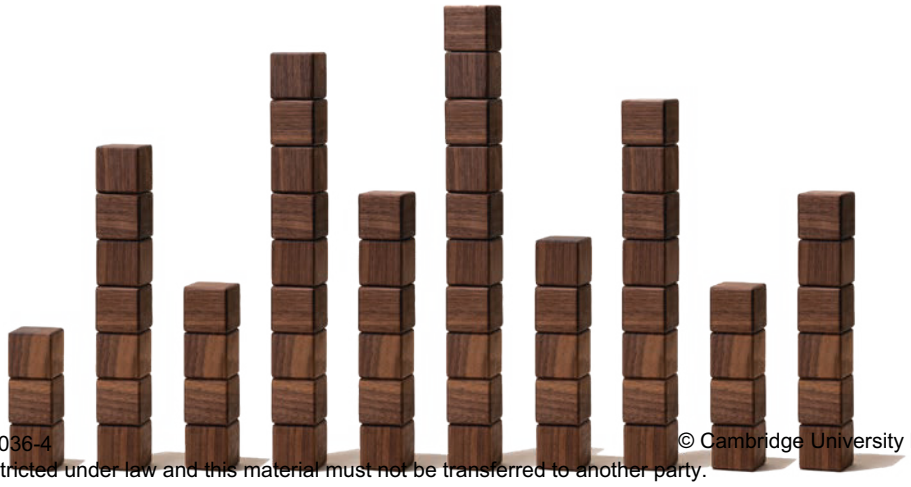
Height dropped	Bounce height (cm)			
	Trial 1	Trial 2	Trial 3	Mean
1 m	20	20	20	20
2 m	40.5	41	40	40.5
3 m	80	90	85	85

Evaluating

10 Amina had a bag of lollies of different colours. She found that, when she offered them to friends, she was always left with purple lollies. She decided to conduct an experiment to test people's favourite lolly colours. She shared a bag that had 20 of each colour and recorded what was left at the end. From this she worked out how many of each colour had been eaten. The results are shown in the table.

Lolly colour	Number of lollies eaten
Purple	4
Green	13
Yellow	18
Red	20

a **Decide** on the type of graph that should be used to represent this data.
b **Decide** which column of the graph would be used as the dependent variable.
c **Propose** the independent variable in this experiment.



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1.3 The scientific method: Evaluating and communicating

Learning goals

1 To be able to distinguish between reliability and validity.
2 To apply three key ideas to a scientific conclusion.

WORKSHEET

Discussion

Note that in a lab report, the analysis (see previous section) and evaluation (covered next) may be combined under the Discussion heading.

Evaluation

You may include an evaluation section in the discussion part of your report. This is where you outline any problems you faced during the experiment and offer suggestions for improvements or extensions to the method.

Any suggested improvements should include:

- a brief description of the problem encountered
- a description of how the problem affected the results
- a description of how you could improve the experimental procedure (e.g. use different equipment or change the order of the steps)
- an explanation of how this would improve the **reliability**, **validity**, **precision** and **accuracy** of the data collected.

Table 1.8 provides more detail on the difference between reliability and validity.

reliability
the degree of consistency of your experimental measurements. A test is reliable if it gives the same result when it is repeated under the same conditions.

validity
a measure of how closely the results of an experiment reflect what they should

precision
how close repeated measurements are to each other

accuracy
how well a measuring instrument determines the variable it is measuring. It refers to how close a measurement is to the true value. You can increase the accuracy by choosing more appropriate equipment, or by ensuring it is properly calibrated.

	Reliability	Validity
What does it tell you?	The extent to which the results can be reproduced when the research is repeated under the same conditions.	The extent to which the results really measure what they are supposed to measure.
How is it assessed?	By checking the consistency of results across time, across different observers, and across parts of the test itself.	By checking how well the results correspond to established theories and other measures of the same concept.
How do they relate?	A reliable measurement is not always valid: the results might be reproducible, but they're not necessarily correct.	A valid measurement is generally reliable: if a test produces accurate results, they should be reproducible.

Table 1.8 The difference between reliability and validity

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Figure 1.20 Does adding salt affect the boiling point of water?

Here is an example.

Some students conducted an investigation into the effect of salt on the boiling point of water. They used a thermometer to measure the temperature at boiling point after salt had been added.

Description of the problem
The thermometer did not allow accurate readings, because the boiling point is found when the temperature stays the same for a period of time even though more heat is added. Depending on the type of thermometer and the size of the gradations, it may be difficult to see changes on a thermometer.

How the problem affected the results
It was unclear whether the temperature was staying the same, so the students had to make a judgement about when this occurred. This judgement could vary from person to person.

How it could be improved
Using a temperature probe, a data logger or an electronic thermometer could allow more accurate measurements.

Explanation of how this would improve accuracy, reliability, validity and precision
The data collected would be digital and more accurate, as there would be fewer measurement uncertainties and less chance of introducing human bias or error.

Writing a conclusion

A conclusion is a short paragraph in a scientific report, and should always include three key ideas:

- what claim can be made from the experiment regarding the independent and dependent variables
- the evidence from your data that supports this claim
- an explanation of whether the data supports or does not support the hypothesis.

Remember, a hypothesis is never right or wrong. It is only supported or not supported, which leads to more questions that need to be answered.

Here is an example.

Mourad conducts an experiment to see if taking his dog Max for more walks reduces the number of socks Max chews. Mourad's hypothesis is: If Max has more walks per day, then Max will chew fewer socks per day.

Mourad puts his results into a graph and produces a line of best fit, shown in Figure 1.21.

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Figure 1.21 The effect of walks on the number of socks chewed

From the graph, Mourad develops the following conclusion:

'This experiment suggests that there is a relationship between the number of walks Max has per day and the number of socks he chews. The data shows that as the number of walks per day increased, there was a decreasing trend in the number of socks chewed, with five socks being chewed with one walk and zero socks being chewed when there were six walks. This data supports the hypothesis.'

Try this 1.3

Gen conducted an experiment to see if the distance from a window would affect the growth of her potted plants.

Gen hypothesised that: 'If the distance of the plant from the window increases, then the growth of the plants will decrease.'

Gen measured her plants before the experiment, placed them at different distances from the window and measured them two months later. She then graphed her results and obtained a line of best fit.

1 Develop a conclusion based on Gen's results.
2 Suggest three controlled variables that Gen would have used to make this a fair test.
3 Propose two possible causes for the increase in plant height for the plant that was placed 6 m from the window.

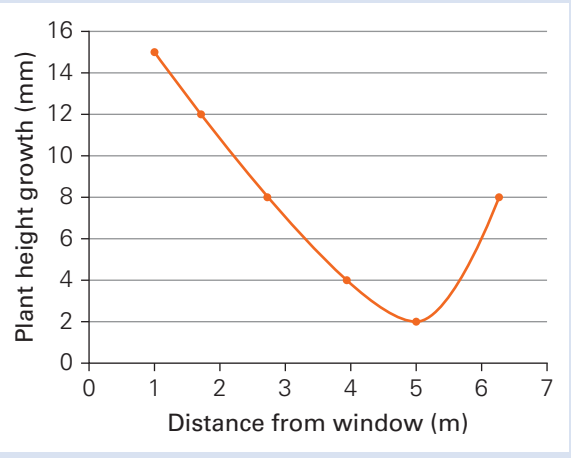

Figure 1.22 How the distance from a window affects plant height growth

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Section 1.3 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **Name** the part of a scientific report that states whether the hypothesis was supported.

2 **Name** the part of a scientific report where you can talk about problems you faced and changes you would make.

Understanding

3 **Describe** the difference between a line graph and a line of best fit.

Applying

4 **Explain** whether replicating trials of an experiment would improve the reliability of an experiment.

Analysing

5 **Identify** the general trend shown in the graph in Figure 1.23.

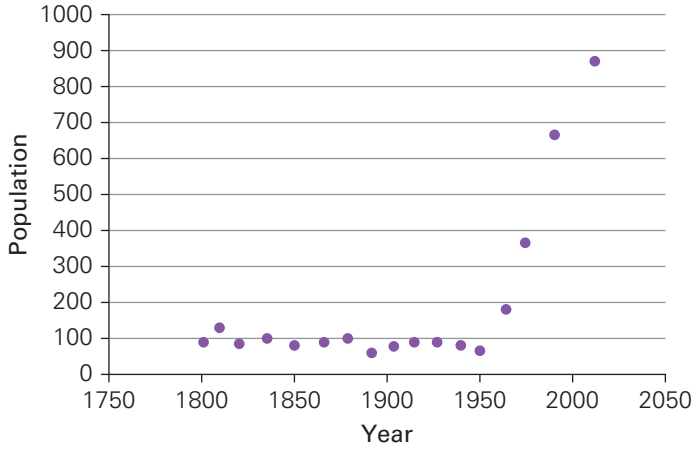

Figure 1.23 The change in population size over time

6 **Identify** the general trend in the graph shown in Figure 1.24.

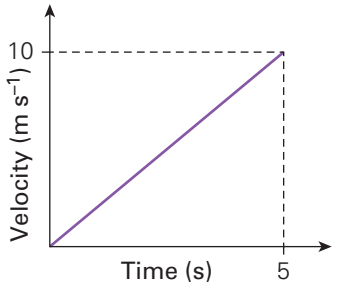

Figure 1.24 The change in velocity over time

Evaluating

7 Use this table of data to answer the questions below.

Time (s)	Temperature (˚C)			
	Trial 1	Trial 2	Trial 3	Mean
60	80	83	82	
120	63	66	65	
180	30	32	65	

a **Calculate** the means for the results in the table.

b **Determine** the outlier in the results.

c **Decide** on an appropriate type of graph for this data.

d **Construct** a graph for the data presented above.

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Chapter review

Chapter checklist

In the Interactive Textbook, the success criteria are linked to the review questions and will be automatically ticked when answers are correct. Alternatively, you can download this checklist from the Interactive Textbook to complete it.

Success criteria		Linked question	Check
1.1	I can define primary and secondary sources of information.	1	
1.1	I can write a scientific hypothesis, including independent and dependent variables.	2	
1.1	I can construct an experimental procedure.	11 a	
1.2	I can distinguish between quantitative and qualitative data.	7	
1.2	I can construct a table of results for scientific data.	10	
1.2	I can identify trends present in graphed data.	11	
1.3	I can distinguish between reliability and validity of experimental results.	5	
1.3	I can construct a scientific conclusion using three key ideas.	3	

Review questions

SCORCHER

Remembering

1 When conducting background research, **state** the difference between a primary source and a secondary source.
2 **Recall** what should be included in a hypothesis.
3 **Recall** the three components that should be included in a conclusion.
4 The CRAAP test assesses the quality of a secondary source of information. **State** what the letters stand for.
5 **Define** 'reliability' and 'validity' with regards to scientific investigations.

Understanding

6 **Explain** how a well-constructed bar graph should look.

Applying

7 **Classify** the type of data in each of the following data sets.
   a Age of students: 12, 13, 13, 14, 12, 18
   b Name of chemical compounds: copper chloride, lithium chloride, sodium chloride
   c Heat output: high, low, high, low, moderate, high
   d Time taken for a reaction to occur (seconds): 8.51, 3.29, 5.59, 1.24, 1.27
   e Location of a pot plant: full sunlight, partial sunlight, shade, darkroom
8 **Organise** these steps of the scientific method into the correct order.
   A Do background research
   B Construct a hypothesis
   C Communicate your findings
   D Record and process the data into tables and graphs
   E Ask a question
   F Conduct an experiment
   G Analyse the data and look for patterns
   H Evaluate the data and form conclusions

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Analysing

9 Several students were timed on how long each spent on chapter review questions, and then each exam score was recorded. The results were graphed and are shown in Figure 1.25.

- a **Identify** the independent variable and the dependent variable.
- b **Analyse** the data and identify which data point appears to be an outlier.
- c **Describe** the outlier's performance in terms of the independent and dependent variables.
- d **Describe** the pattern evident in the data.

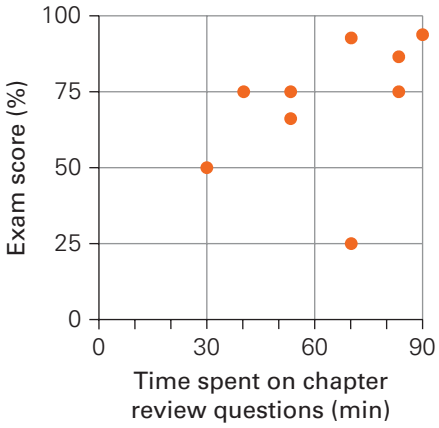

Figure 1.25 How time spent on chapter review questions affects exam scores

10 Inspect this table of experimental data, and **identify** two errors in how it has been constructed.

New growth in plant height (cm)	Amount of water provided to plant daily
0	0 mL
1	10 mL
3	20 mL
8	50 mL
1	100 mL

Evaluating

11 Consider the scatter plot of data in Figure 1.26, showing the mass of bandicoots captured over a period of 6 months.

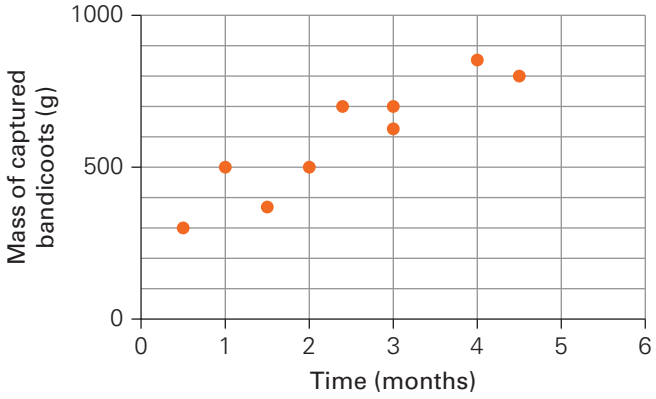

Figure 1.26 How the mass of captured bandicoots changes over time

- a **Propose** the method used to obtain the data.
- b **Determine** the masses of the two bandicoots captured after 3 months.
- c **Identify** when a 500-gram bandicoot was captured for the first time.
- d Draw a line of best fit for the data. Use this line of best fit to **predict** the mass of a bandicoot captured after 6 months.
- e **Propose** a reason why there appears to be a trend of increasing mass with time and whether it is reasonable or not to predict the mass as you have done in part **d**.

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Data questions

A scientist was investigating the relationship between the volume that a certain mass of gas would occupy at different temperatures (while the pressure was constant), and the volume that the same mass of gas would occupy at different pressures (while temperature was constant).

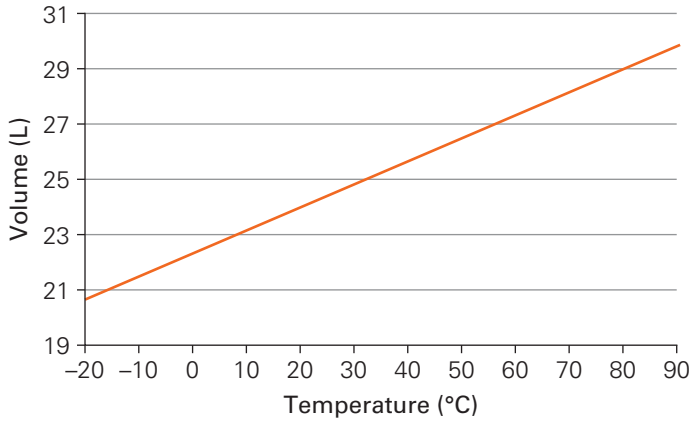

Figure 1.27 Variation of the volume of a gas at atmospheric pressure (101 kPa), when temperature is changed

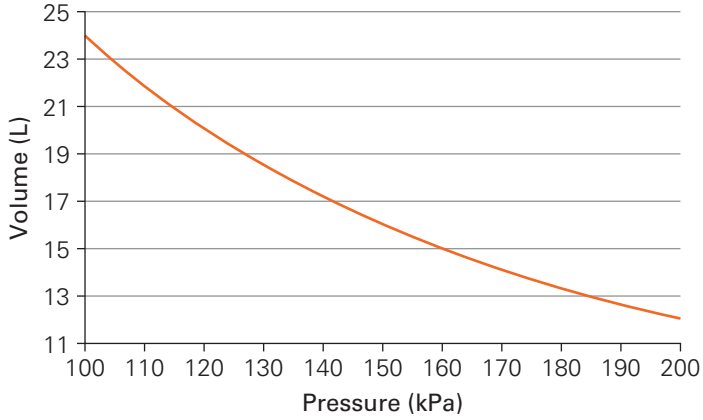

Figure 1.28 Variation of the volume of a gas at ambient temperature (20°C), when pressure is changed

1 **Identify** the pressure exerted by a volume of 19 L of gas at 20°C, by referring to Figure 1.28.
2 **Identify** the dependent, independent or controlled character of each variable (volume, temperature, pressure) for the data presented in Figure 1.27.
3 **Identify** the volume occupied by a gas at 101 kPa pressure and a temperature of 10°C, by referring to Figure 1.27.
4 **Identify** the general relationship between the volume the gas occupies and the temperature, and the volume the gas occupies and the pressure.
5 **Analyse** whether the volume that the gas occupies doubles when the temperature is doubled in Figure 1.27.
6 Use the two graphs to **deduce** the volume that the gas will occupy at 20°C and 101 kPa.
7 **Extrapolate** the data to predict the volume that the gas will occupy at 110°C and 101 kPa pressure.
8 In Figure 1.27, **predict** whether a new line will be higher or lower than the original if the pressure was increased to a constant 150 kPa.
9 Use Figure 1.27 to **deduce** whether an increase in temperature at atmospheric pressure would affect the volume occupied by the gas.

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Chapter 2
Cells

Chapter introduction

Everything can be broken down into its smallest components. A house is made of timber, pipes and wires; cakes are made of flour, eggs and sugar; and all living organisms are made of cells. Cells are the basic building blocks of life, meaning that they are the smallest known unit that can carry out the processes that all living things do, such as moving, producing energy, sensing their environment, growth, repair, excretion and absorption of nutrients. In this chapter, you will explore the basic components of cells and the many types of cells that can be found in the natural world.

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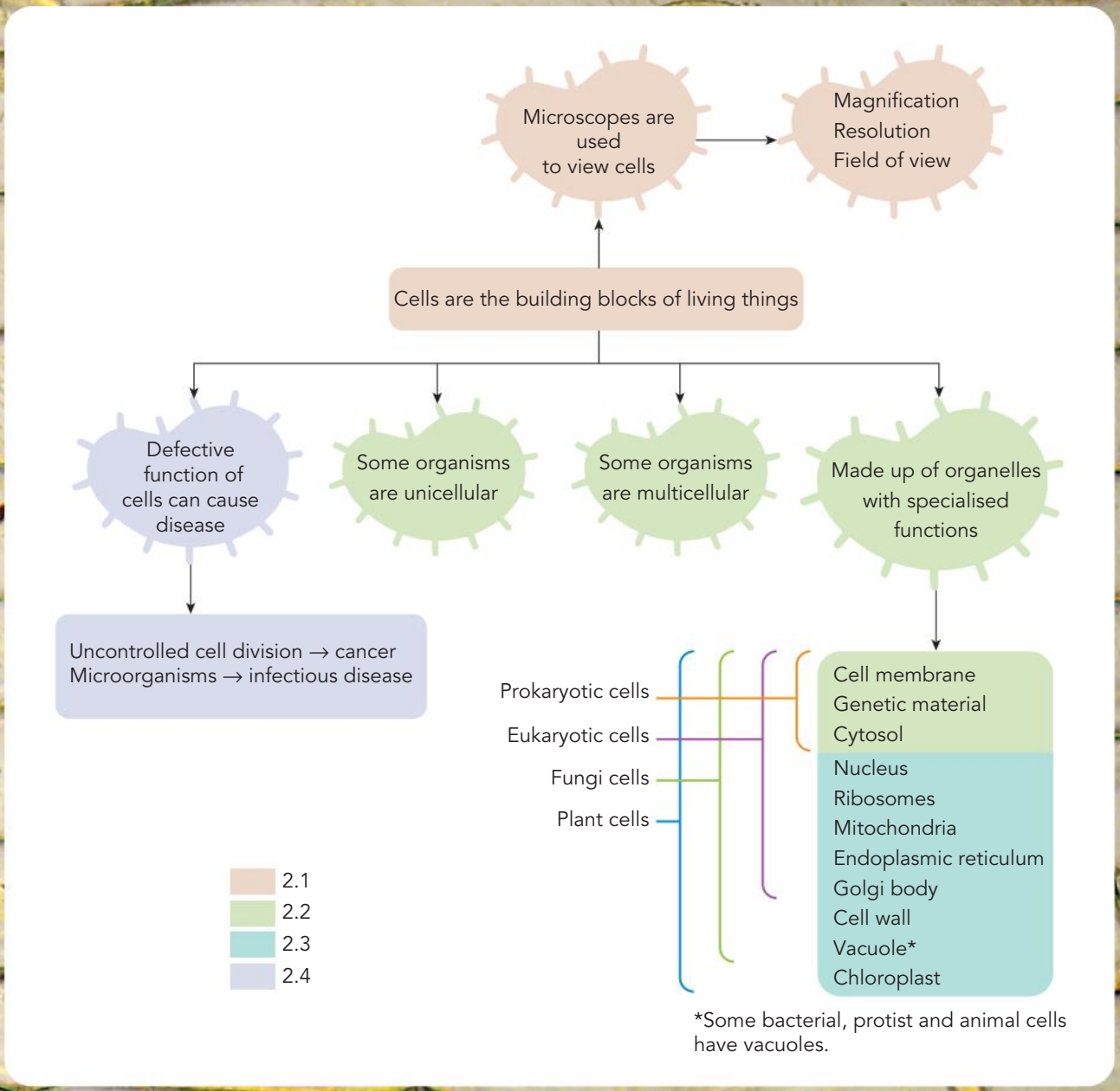
Chapter map



*Some bacterial, protist and animal cells have vacuoles.

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2.1 Microscopes and cells

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to label the parts of a microscope.
2 To distinguish between different types of microscopes.
3 To be able to list the assumptions of modern cell theory.

The microscope

Throughout this chapter, you will explore the structure and function of cells. However, you would not have been able to learn this information without the invention of the microscope. It began about 500 years ago, when scientists used hand-held magnifying glasses to view small **macroscopic** specimens – these were large enough to be visible to the naked eye. Scientists wished to view smaller and smaller specimens, and they soon found that using two lenses together enabled them to do so. This discovery led to the invention of the first light microscope. The light microscope that you use today in school is not very different from those used by scientists hundreds of years ago, but the technology used to produce today's lenses is more advanced and enables us to see things at higher magnifications. Anything that can only be seen clearly with the use of a microscope is described as **microscopic**.

macroscopic
visible to the naked eye

microscopic
anything that can only be seen clearly with the use of a microscope

VIDEO
The first cells to be seen

Did you know? 2.1

The scientist who first discovered single-celled organisms was Antonie van Leeuwenhoek. He called these organisms 'animalcules', meaning 'little animals'.

We now call these animalcules 'microorganisms'.

Figure 2.1 Animalcules

Explore! 2.1

The history of the microscope

In 1665, Robert Hooke published a book based on his observations of the microscopic world. He had built a compound microscope with a twist-operated focusing mechanism – this had never been seen before. He further improved the microscope by placing a water flask beside the microscope to focus light from an oil lamp onto his specimens to illuminate them brightly.

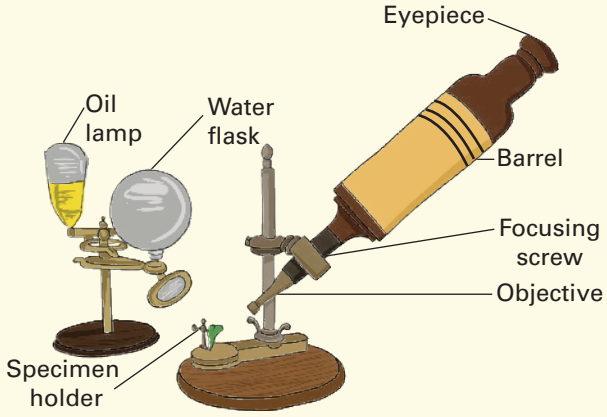

Figure 2.2 The Hooke microscope (circa 1660)

1 Find out about the role of the following scientists in the development of the microscope: Pratibha Gai-Boyes, Ed Boyes and Ian Wright; Robert Hooke and Antonie van Leeuwenhoek; Frits Zernike; Marvin Minsky; Ernst Ruska; and Gerd Binnig and Heinrich Rohrer.
2 Using A3 paper, draw an annotated timeline showing who developed what and when.

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Parts of a microscope

Although some microscopes are more advanced than others, most of those you use at school are light microscopes that have the same basic components. The microscopes you use have at least two lenses: the eyepiece (ocular) lens and the objective lens. They also have a light source, a stage on which to place specimens, and knobs to adjust the focus. The monocular microscope shown in Figure 2.3 is for use with one eye. Binocular microscopes can be used with both eyes.

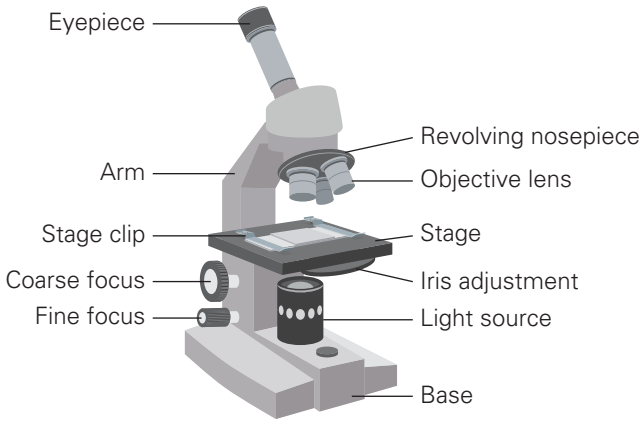


Figure 2.3 The parts of a monocular microscope

Try this 2.1

Parts of the microscope

Draw up a table with the parts of a microscope in the left column. Find out the function of each part, and put this information in the right column.

Microscope terms

When you use a microscope, you will often encounter special terms. Table 2.1 summarises some key terms.

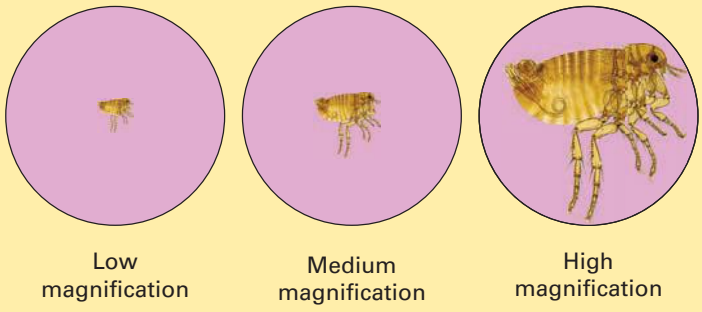
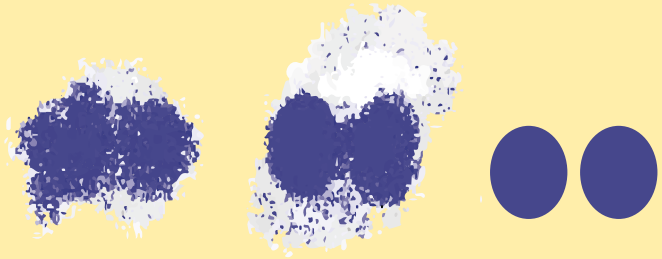
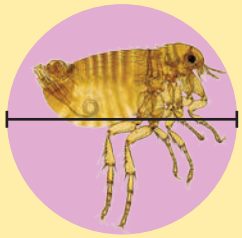
Term	Definition	Image
Magnification	How much the image of the specimen or object is increased in size (i.e. how much you are zooming in)	 Low magnification; Medium magnification; High magnification
Resolution	How detailed and clear the image is (i.e. how easy it is to tell two separate objects apart)	 Poor resolution; Better resolution; Best resolution
Field of view (FOV)	How much of the object you can see when you look through the eyepiece	 Human flea

Table 2.1 Some key terms used in microscopy

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Advances in technology

Binocular microscopes have an eyepiece for each eye. There are two types of binocular microscope: simple binocular and stereoscopic. Simple binocular microscopes have one light path from the specimen, which is split and led to both eyepieces, so each eye has the same view. Therefore, the image looks flat (2D). Stereoscopic ('stereo') microscopes, which are much more expensive, lead two separate light paths from the specimen to each eye, so they have different views. The image has depth (3D). This is useful for manipulating or dissecting specimens, and the magnification does not have to be very large.

bacteria
very small prokaryotic organisms that have cell walls, but lack membrane-bound organelles and a nucleus

Light microscopes are limited in their usefulness. They can magnify a specimen up to 1500×, which is enough to make **bacteria** visible. However, the resolution at this magnification is not very high, and so light microscopes do not enable you to view anything smaller than bacteria in any great detail.

In order to see things that are smaller than bacteria, scientists invented a different type of microscope, called an *electron microscope*. This microscope uses tiny particles called electrons, instead of light, to provide an image of an object. Electron microscopes have a magnification of about 10 million times and very high resolution. Since the invention of the electron microscope in 1933, we have been able to observe the structure of extremely small objects in high detail.

There are two main types of electron microscope:

- transmission electron microscope (TEM) – the specimen to be viewed is sliced very finely and the internal structure can be viewed
- scanning electron microscope (SEM) – the specimen to be viewed is not sliced, and the external surface can be viewed.

Unfortunately, electron microscopes are extremely expensive, and all specimens that are observed have to be prepared in a way that requires them to be killed first.

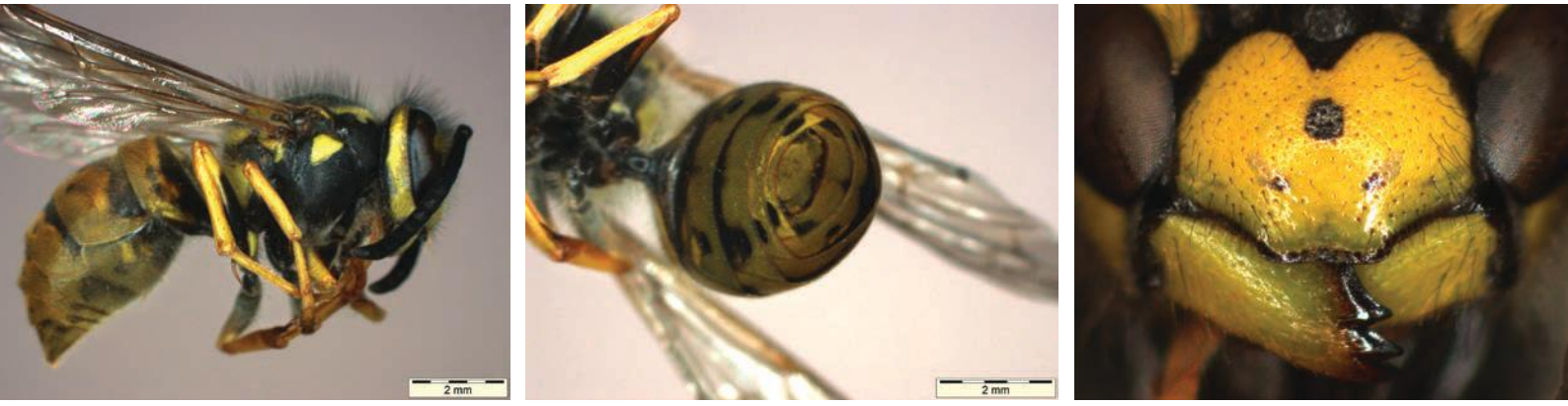

Figure 2.4 Stereo microscope images taken of a European wasp show its full body, its abdomen and its mandible.

VIDEO
Electron microscope

Figure 2.5 Examples of specimens as seen through a TEM (left) and a SEM (right)

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Explore! 2.2

Types of microscopes

1 Research the different types of microscopes that are used today: monocular microscope, stereo microscope and electron microscope.
2 Copy and complete the following table.

Type of microscope	Magnification	Resolution	Advantages	Disadvantages	Example of what can be seen
Monocular light microscope					
Stereo light microscope					
Electron microscope					

Quick check 2.1

1 State the maximum magnification of the monocular microscope, the stereo microscope and the electron microscope.
2 State what microorganisms were originally called.
3 Define the following key terms, in your own words: magnification, resolution, field of view.
4 Organise the different types of microscopes, from most powerful to least powerful.

Science as a human endeavour 2.1

Using your smartphone as a microscope

Most cameras on smartphones are not designed to produce high-resolution microscopic images. Researchers in the USA published their work on an attachment they had designed to place over the smartphone lens to increase the resolution and the visibility of tiny details of the images they take, down to a scale of approximately one-millionth of a metre (one micrometre). The new attachment uses artificial intelligence to create the level of resolution and colour required for laboratory analysis.

This attachment could help bring high-quality medical analysis into resource-poor regions, where people do not have access to expensive technologies. In addition, the attachment can be produced by a 3D printer, at less than $100 each.

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Practical 2.1

Using a microscope

Aim

To become proficient in using a microscope

Materials

- light microscope
- newspaper
- scissors
- glass microscope slide
- sticky tape

Be careful

Ensure that you carry the microscope appropriately. Carry it with one hand holding the arm and one hand under the base. Be mindful when using the coarse focus knob because the objective lens can touch the glass slide and damage it.

Method

1. Cut one word out of a newspaper.
2. Use sticky tape to attach the word to the centre of a glass slide.
3. Set the lowest magnification or smallest objective lens in place. Turn the coarse focus knob until it is as close to the stage as it will go.
4. Place the slide on the stage of the microscope and secure it in place with the clips.
5. Using the coarse focus knob, focus on the word.
6. Draw what you can see in the field of view at this lowest magnification. Record the magnification next to your drawing. In order to calculate the magnification, you will need to multiply the magnification of the eyepiece (ocular) lens by the magnification of the objective lens. For example, if the eyepiece is 10× magnification and the objective lens is 4× magnification, then the overall magnification is 10 × 4 = 40×.
7. Try moving the stage left and right, forwards and backwards, and note what you observe about the movement of the image.
8. Repeat steps **3–6** for each of the optical lenses, but using the fine focus knob to focus your specimen instead of the coarse focus knob.

Results

Your results will consist of your:

- drawings of the field of view using the different objective lenses. Include the magnification of each drawing
- notes about what happens when you move the stage left and right, forwards and backwards.

Discussion

1. Explain what happened to the word when you viewed it under the microscope at low magnification.
2. Describe what happened when you increased the magnification using the different objective lenses.
3. Describe what you observed as you moved the slide – did the word go in the same direction as the direction in which you moved the slide?
4. What did you notice about the orientation of the letters in the word? Were they the right way up? Back to front? Explain.
5. As the magnification of an image increases, the resolution decreases. State the magnification at which you would have had the lowest resolution.
6. Explain what happened to the field of view as you increased the magnification of the objective lens.
7. Outline a safety precaution you would use when observing a specimen using the highest magnification objective lens.

Conclusion

Summarise the advantages and disadvantages of using a light microscope.

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Cell theory

Robert Hooke built a compound microscope that lit up the specimen he was viewing. Because of this invention, he was able to observe that a dead cork plant appeared to be made of small blocks. He named these blocks 'cells' because they looked like the small identical 'cells' that monks lived in at the time (Figure 2.6).

Nearly 200 years later, after many other scientists had observed and catalogued many more types of cells, a *cell theory* was proposed.

This first cell theory stated that:

- Cells make up all living things.
- Cells are the basic building blocks of all living things.
- All cells form spontaneously from their environment, in a similar way to crystals forming.

We now know that the third part of this theory is incorrect, as cells do not just pop into existence. Modern cell theory states that:

- Cells make up all living things.
- Cells are the basic building blocks of all living things.
- All new cells are produced from existing cells.
- All cells contain genetic information, which is passed from cell to cell during cell division.

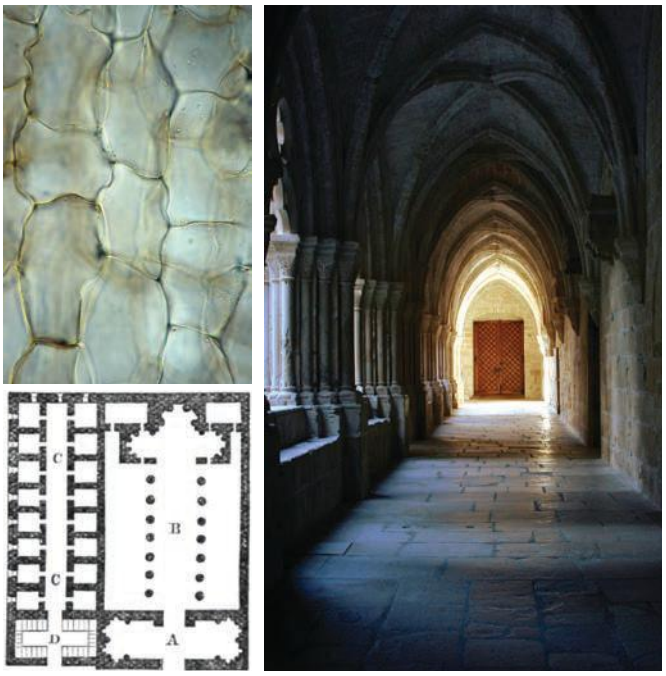


Figure 2.6 The cork cells (top left) that Hooke observed looked like the monks' cells in the building plans (bottom left) of monasteries (right).

Size of a cell

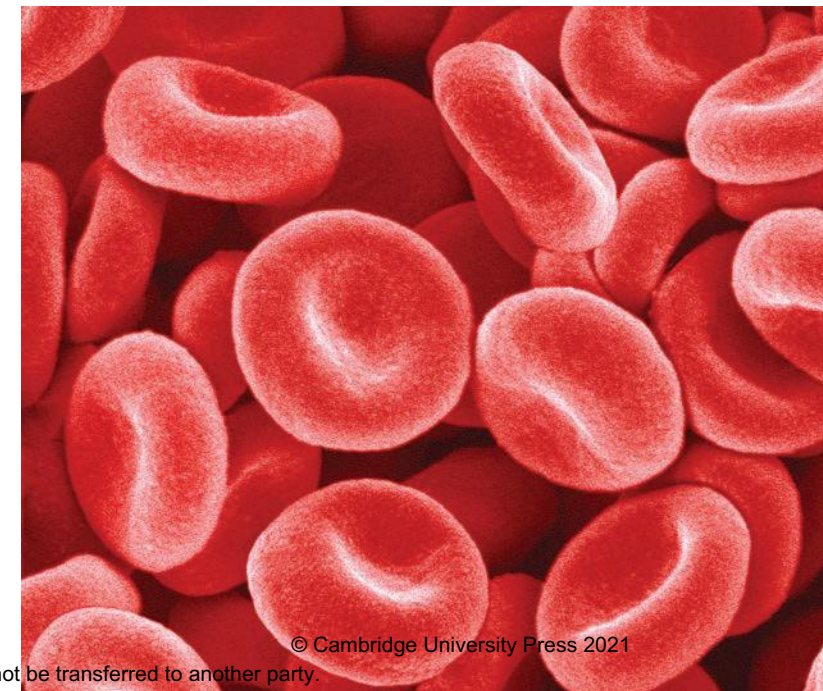
Cells are extremely small and most cells cannot be seen with the naked eye. That is why it was not until the invention of the microscope, around 350 years ago, that we even knew cells existed. If you look at your arm, you can see skin and hair, but it is impossible to see the individual skin cells. They are described as being microscopic.

You may wonder why cells exist in many sizes. The main reason is simple: their size and structure depends on their function. Red blood cells are **biconcave** and small, and carry oxygen in your blood to different parts of your body (Figure 2.7). When mature, they don't have a **nucleus**, and so there is more space to carry haemoglobin, a red pigment that holds oxygen. Being biconcave increases surface area, and their small size allows the red blood cells to squeeze through tiny blood vessels to deliver oxygen throughout your body.

biconcave
concave on both sides

nucleus
the part of a cell that contains the genetic material

Figure 2.7 Red blood cells



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Did you know? 2.2

Egg cells

Cells come in many shapes and sizes. The largest cells are eggs – an unfertilised egg is a single cell. Each egg holds the genetic information for the female of the species, and if fertilised, will eventually grow into a new individual. Egg cells are 'macro' cells. Macro means 'large-scale', and so they can be seen with the naked eye – that is, without a microscope.

Figure 2.8 The largest cells are eggs, and the largest of all is the ostrich egg.

Quick check 2.2

1 Name the largest cell in the world.
2 Contrast the terms 'micro' and 'macro'.
3 Explain why cells exist many shapes and sizes.

Try this 2.2

Cell size

In science, it is important to use appropriate units when measuring different objects. You would not measure the size of a bedroom in kilometres, or the size of an ant in metres. Therefore, when you measure cells, it is important to use a very small unit. This is usually a micrometre (μm). A micrometre is 1000 times smaller than a millimetre (mm). Moreover, a nanometre is 1000 times smaller than a micrometre. A *micro*scope can view organisms on the micro scale, while an electron microscope can view matter on the nano scale.

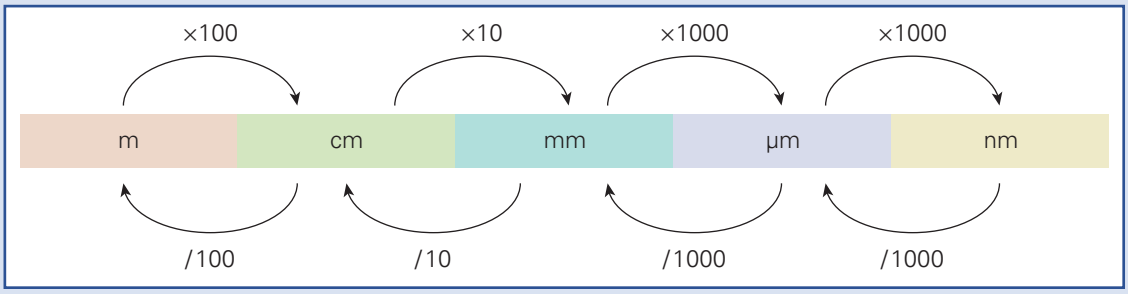

Figure 2.9 Conversions needed for different measurements

continued...

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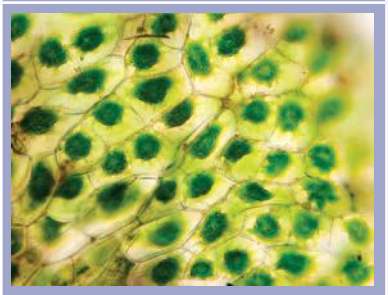
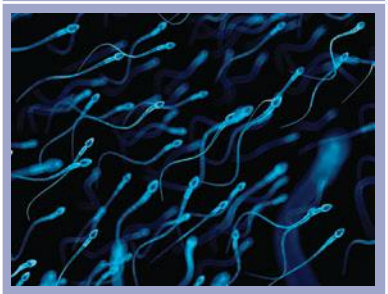
...continued

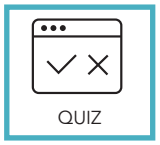
Using Figure 2.9, convert the cell sizes in the following table into millimetres (mm) or micrometres (μm).

Cell type	Size (mm)	Size (μm)
Red blood cells	0.0065	
 Plant cells on leaf surface		100
 Sperm cells	0.05	

Section 2.1 questions

Remembering

1 **Define** 'microscopic'.
2 **Recall** the modern cell theory.
3 **State** the function of each of the following parts of the microscope.
   a Stage
   b Eyepiece
   c Objective lens
   d Coarse focus knob
   e Fine focus knob
4 **Recall** the contribution of Robert Hooke to our understanding of the cell.



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Understanding

5 Copy and complete the following table to **calculate** the magnification of the microscope when using the following objective lenses.

Eyepiece	Objective lens	Magnification of specimen
× 10	× 10	
× 10	× 5	
× 10	× 80	

6 A nanometre (nm) is 1000 times smaller than a micrometre (µm). Generally, a virus is around 0.0225 µm in size. **Calculate** this size in nanometres.

7 Copy and complete the following table to **calculate** the sizes of the different specimens.

Specimen	Size		
	Nanometres (nm)	Micrometres (µm)	Millimetres (mm)
Atom	0.1		
Bacterium		1	
Virus	35		
Animal cell		10	
Chicken egg			50

8 **Demonstrate** how you would determine the size of a cell.

Applying

9 **Summarise** the structure and function of a red blood cell.

10 **Summarise** the advantages of using a:
- a monocular light microscope
- b stereo light microscope.

11 **Explain** why it is important to turn the coarse focus knob until it is as close to the stage as it will go, before putting the slide on the stage. (Think about the risk assessment.)

Analysing

12 **Distinguish** between a TEM and an SEM.

13 **Classify** the following specimens into three groups: those that can be seen easily with the naked eye; those that can be seen with a light microscope; and those that can be seen only with an electron microscope. (Some might belong in more than one group.)
plant cell (100 µm)
frog egg (1 mm)
red blood cell (7 µm)
phytoplankton (2 µm)
chicken egg (50 mm)
virus (35 nm)
bacterium (1 µm)

Evaluating

14 **Propose** the reason that different units are used to measure different-sized objects.

15 **Create** a detailed set of step-by-step instructions for a Year 7 student on how to use a microscope safely.

16 **Justify** this statement: 'The development of microscopes has changed our understanding of cells'.

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2.2 Organelles

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to define prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells.
2 To be able to describe the role of different organelles in eukaryotic cells.

multicellular
made of many cells

unicellular
made of just one cell

cell membrane
the barrier that separates the inside of the cell from the external environment

genetic material
the material containing the code that allows the cell to produce copies of itself and to regulate the functions within the cell

cytosol
the water-based mixture that fills the cell, containing different molecules, large and small; many chemical processes that happen within a cell occur in the cytosol

All cells

Everything that we classify as living is made up of one or more cells. People, trees, fish and mushrooms are made up of many different cells working together, and are known as **multicellular**. These cells depend on each other and cannot survive alone. Organisms in the kingdoms Bacteria, Protista and Archaea are made of single cells, and are referred to as **unicellular**. Each of these single cells carries out all the processes needed to stay alive, by itself.

Generally, unicellular organisms are quite simple and are similar to some of the oldest forms of life found on Earth, whereas multicellular cells are specialised and much more complex.

All cells, no matter how simple, contain the same three components:

- a **cell membrane**
- **genetic material**
- **cytosol**.

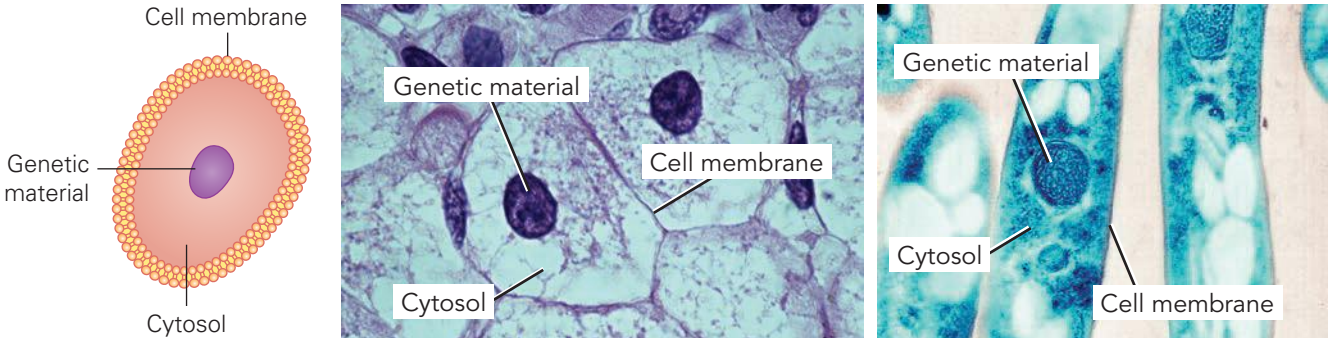

Figure 2.10 Left: All cells, no matter how simple or complex, contain these three components: cell membrane, genetic material and cytosol. Middle: Human liver cells. Right: *Bacillus anthracis*, which are unicellular organisms.

Quick check 2.3

1 Define these terms and include examples of each: unicellular, multicellular.
2 Recall the three components of all cells.

VIDEO
What three components do all cells have in common?

Organelles

Simple and complex cells

All cells can be grouped into two main categories: **prokaryote** (simple) and **eukaryote** (complex). Prokaryotes are unicellular organisms such as bacteria, while eukaryotes can be unicellular or multicellular. Examples of prokaryotes are animals, plants, fungi and protists. The two categories of cell type are based on the structures found inside each cell. All cells have a cell membrane, cytosol and genetic material (Figure 2.10), but eukaryotic cells are more complex and also have many membrane-bound structures, including a nucleus, that carry out specific functions. Prokaryotic cells do not have a nucleus or any membrane-bound structures.

prokaryote
unicellular organisms that lack membrane-bound organelles and a nucleus

eukaryote
any cell or organism that possesses membrane-bound organelles and a nucleus

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organelle
a specialised structure in a cell, which has a specific function or job

The term 'prokaryote' means 'before (*pro*) nut, kernel (*karyon*)', meaning they were present before eukaryotic cells. The specialised structures inside cells are known as **organelles**, because they are like 'mini' organs with specific jobs.

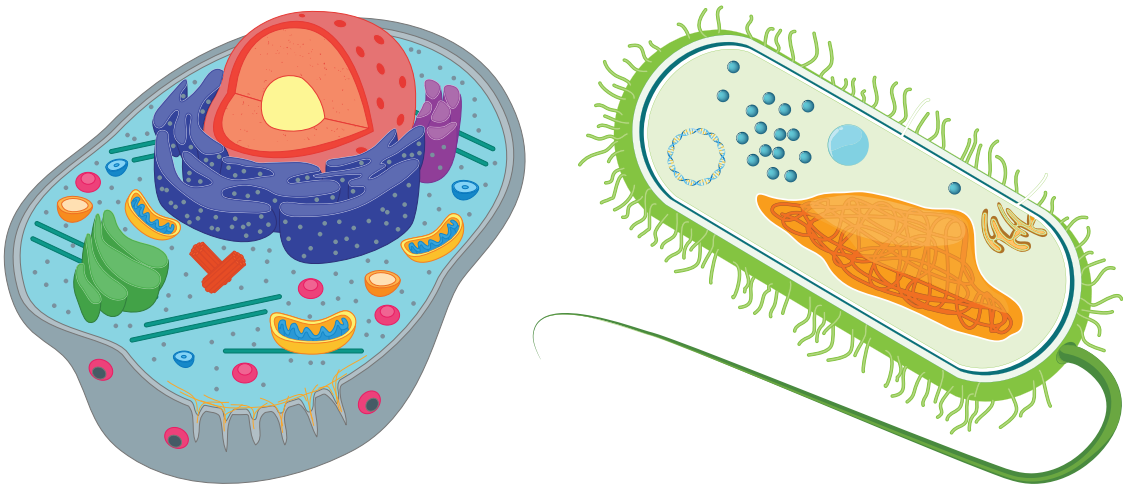

Figure 2.11 Eukaryotic cell (left) vs prokaryotic cell (right). Can you identify the cell membrane, genetic material and cytosol in each cell type?

Try this 2.3

Prokaryotes vs eukaryotes

For the following organisms, identify which are prokaryotic and which are eukaryotic.

- Mushrooms
- Grass
- Archaea
- Potatoes
- Cyanobacteria
- Fruit flies
- Tapeworms
- *Escherichia coli*

The cell city

Although all cells contain the structures described previously, only complex eukaryotic cells contain the specialised membrane-bound organelles (Figure 2.12) that you are going to read about in this section. It is helpful to think of the cell as a city. A city has many needs, and each organelle caters for those needs. This idea is developed further in the STEM task at the end of this chapter.

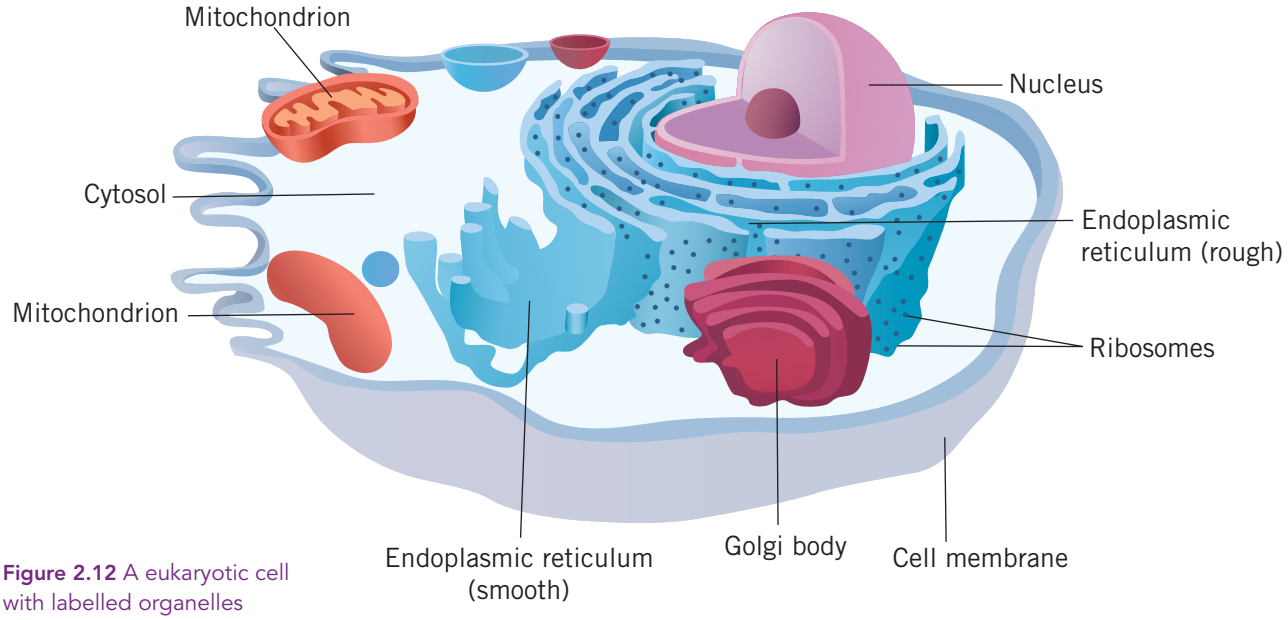

Figure 2.12 A eukaryotic cell with labelled organelles

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Nucleus

The nucleus is a large structure that holds the genetic material of a cell. It is like the brain of the cell and controls all of its functions. In a city, the nucleus would be the top level of government, which keeps all the plans and blueprints and makes all the important decisions.

Genetic material

The genetic material, or deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), is found in every cell. DNA is the coded information that makes you who you are and tells every cell what to do.

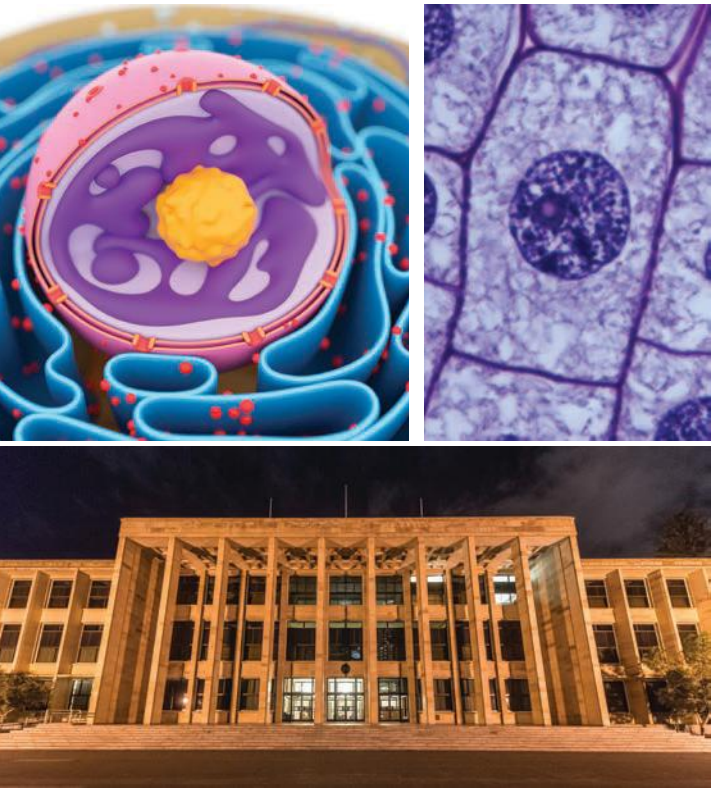

Figure 2.13 Top left: A graphic representation of a nucleus. Top right: An electron microscope image of a nucleus within a plant cell. Bottom: Parliament House of Western Australia. The nucleus makes all the major decisions for the cell city.

The code has all the instructions that a living organism needs to grow, reproduce and function. A DNA molecule is shaped like a twisted ladder, and this shape is called a **double helix** (Figure 2.14). In the cell city, DNA would be the plans and blueprints which the top level of government uses to keep everything running smoothly.

double helix
a description of the structure of DNA where two strands wind around each other like a twisted ladder

Figure 2.14 Top: A graphic representation of a DNA molecule. Bottom: A state Premier giving a press conference.

Did you know? 2.3

The Moon and back!

We have trillions of cells in our body and each one contains DNA. If you stretched the DNA in one cell all the way out, it would be more than two metres long! This means if you lined up the DNA from all your cells, it would reach to the Moon and back approximately 1500 times!

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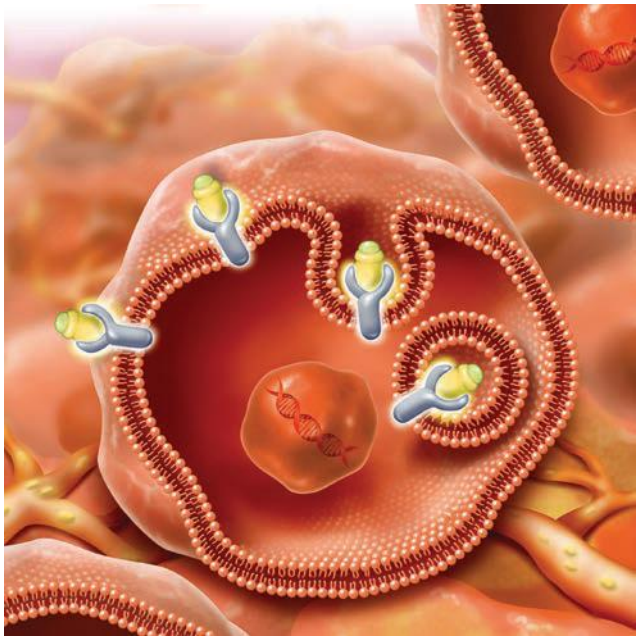

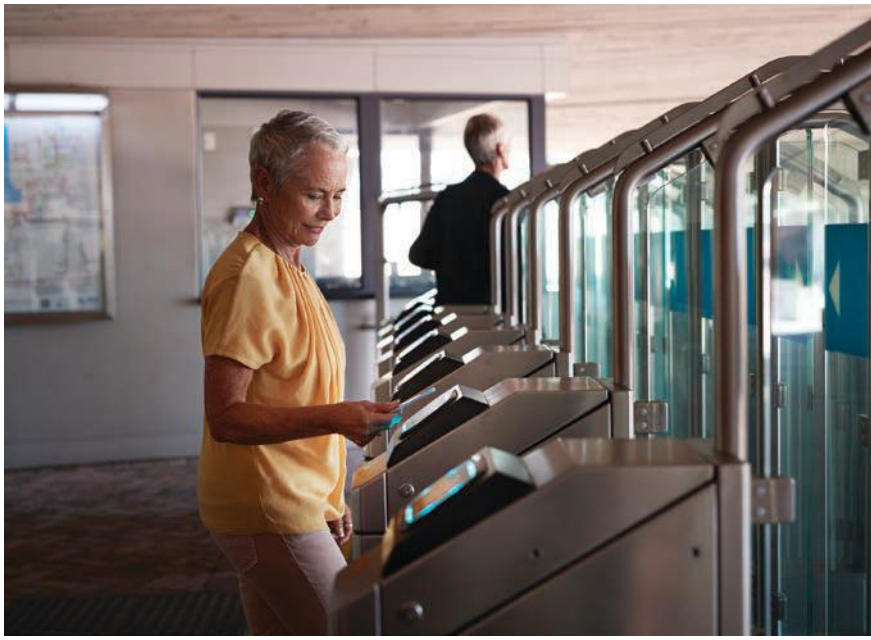

Figure 2.15 The cell membrane (left) provides 'border security' for the cell.

Cell membrane

The cell membrane is a thin double layer of molecules that separates the inside of the cell from its external environment, and controls what enters and leaves the cell (Figure 2.15). The cell membrane is like a protective border around the cell city, controlling who enters and leaves.

Cytosol

Cytosol is a water-based mixture of organelles and small and large molecules that fills the cell. In eukaryotic cells, it refers to the liquid outside the organelles. Although it appears mostly transparent in a light microscope, it has a very complex structure, with regions that vary greatly in concentration and viscosity, so parts of it may resemble jelly. Many of the chemical reactions that cells require to function take place between molecules dissolved in the water of the cytosol, controlled by enzymes. Many nutrients and other materials may be stored in the cytosol.

ribosome
a structure in a cell that reads genetic information to produce protein from amino acids

mitochondrion
a structure in a cell that converts the energy from food into the form needed by the cell during cellular respiration

Using the city analogy (a comparison with something familiar), we would say the cytosol makes the city to be like Atlantis, or a coral reef – it is an underwater city. The water fulfills the same functions for the cell city that the air does for us.

Ribosomes

Ribosomes are very small structures that 'read' the codes sent to them in the genetic material and use these to produce proteins that the cell needs to make structures and carry out different functions. Ribosomes would be the factories of the cell city, producing bricks, cars and different tools for the city to use.

Mitochondria

Mitochondria (singular: mitochondrion) are where sugars from food are turned into energy, in a process called *cellular respiration*. The output is a substance called adenosine triphosphate (ATP), the cell's source of energy. Cells use this energy for many tasks, such as moving things into and out of the cell, and cell growth, repair and reproduction. Therefore, the mitochondria can be thought of as the power station of the cell.

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Endoplasmic reticulum

The **endoplasmic reticulum** (ER) is a large folded membrane attached to the nucleus (Figure 2.17). The name 'endoplasmic reticulum' might sound complicated but it is just a description of what it does: *endo* (inside), *plasmic* (cytoplasm), *reticulum* (network). There are two types of ER in the cell. When ribosomes are attached, the ER is rough, and it is involved in the synthesis and transport of proteins. If no ribosomes are attached, then it is smooth and is involved in the making of lipids and **steroids**. The ER is basically a highway that produces, then connects and delivers substances to different parts of the cell.

endoplasmic reticulum
a network of tubes within a cell that are involved in protein and lipid synthesis

steroid
a compound made by cells that is used in cell membrane stability and for cell signalling

Figure 2.16 Left: A graphical representation of a mitochondrion. Middle: An electron microscope image of mitochondria. Right: The mitchondria produce energy from glucose, much like power stations can produce electricity from coal.

Figure 2.17 Left: A graphical representation of the endoplasmic reticulum around the outside of the nucleus. Right: The endoplasmic reticulum is the highway network of the cell city.

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Golgi body
a structure in a cell involved in the modification, packaging and transport of proteins and lipids

Golgi body

The role of the **Golgi body** (also known as the Golgi apparatus) is to modify and package the proteins and lipids made by the endoplasmic reticulum, then export them to their destination. Golgi bodies are like the post office of the cell. They place proteins and lipids into small sacks of membrane, called vesicles (postal vans), and send them to where they are required (Figure 2.18).

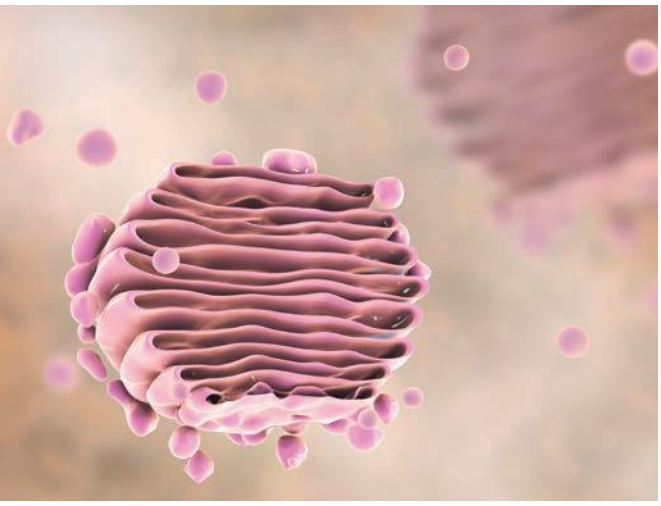

Figure 2.18 Left: A graphic representation of a Golgi body. Right: Golgi bodies act as the postal system of the cell city.

Try this 2.4

Organelles

Draw up a table with three columns. List all the organelles covered in this section in the left column. Describe their role in a cell in the middle column, and provide a simple picture or diagram in the right column.

VIDEO
What organelles do all eukaryotic cells contain?

Quick check 2.4

1 State the terms used for simple and complex cells.
2 Define the term 'organelle'.
3 Copy Figure 2.19 and label the following components: cell membrane, cytosol, nucleus (includes genetic material), ribosomes, endoplasmic reticulum, Golgi bodies, mitochondria.

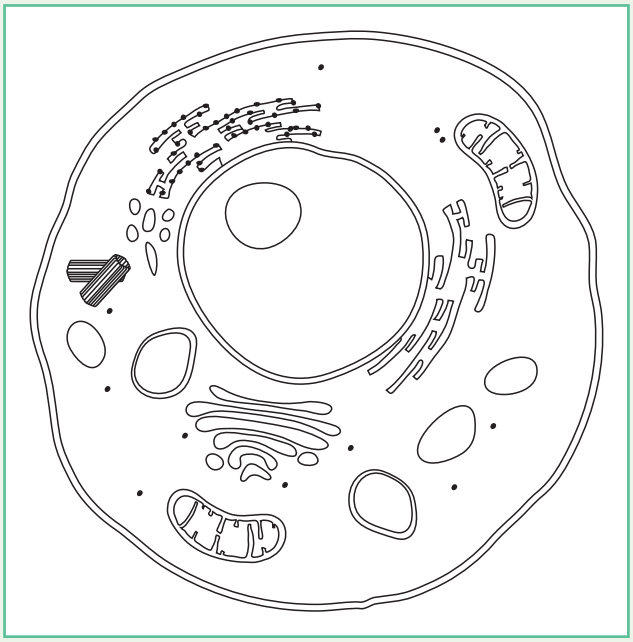

Figure 2.19 An unlabelled diagram of a eukaryotic cell

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Explore! 2.3

The cell's internal scaffolding

Eukaryotic cells have a cytoskeleton.
A cytoskeleton is a structure that helps the cell maintain its shape and internal organisation.
It also provides mechanical support that enables things to move around inside the cell. Research and summarise the roles of the following structures within cells: microtubules (Figure 2.20), intermediate filaments, microfilaments. These are challenging terms to understand and explain, so keep your answers simple.

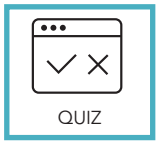
Figure 2.20 A graphical representation of a microtubule

Science as a human endeavour 2.2

A new cell structure discovered

In 2019, scientists discovered a new organelle that helps to prevent cancer by ensuring genetic material is sorted correctly as cells divide. The reason this organelle had not been discovered earlier is that it only forms in the cell when it is required to do so. The discovery could improve future cancer treatments.

Section 2.2 questions



Remembering

1 **State** three organelles found in all cells.
2 **State** three organelles found in all eukaryotic cells (not including the three from Question **1**).

Understanding

3 What am I? **Identify** the correct structure from the description.
   a I produce energy in the form of ATP for cells.
   b I am a barrier between the inside and the outside of cells, and I control what enters and leaves.
   c I am a water-based mixture that fills the cell, and many chemical processes happen within me.
   d I make proteins using the code in the genetic material of the cell.

Applying

4 **Explain** the function of the nucleus.
5 **Summarise** why the Golgi body can be thought of as the post office of the cell.

Analysing

6 **Compare** the roles of the rough endoplasmic reticulum and the Golgi body.
7 **Compare** the function of the cell membrane with that of the nucleus.
8 **Distinguish** between unicellular and multicellular, using examples.

Evaluating

9 Different cells have different numbers of mitochondria. **Propose** a reason why muscle cells contain more mitochondria than skin cells do.

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2.3 Eukaryotic cells

WORKSHEET

Learning goal

1 To be able to identify differences between the structure of animal, plant, fungi and protist cells.

zygote
a fertilised egg cell

embryo
a fertilised egg cell in the early stages of growth and differentiation

stem cell
a cell that is able to develop into many different types of cells

All eukaryotic organisms have many similar organelles. Eukaryotes can be found in the kingdoms Animalia, Plantae, Fungi and Protista. In this section, you will look at the differences between the cells of animals, plants, fungi and protists.

Figure 2.21 Fungi on tree bark. Can you find out what species it might be?

It is likely to be the Scarlet Bracket fungus (*Pycnoporus coccineus*).

Animal cells

Animal cells contain all the organelles you learned about in the previous section. However, the numbers of organelles in a cell may vary, depending on what type of animal cell it is. Multicellular organisms such as humans are made up of many different types of specialised cells. Each of these different cell types has a specific job that allows your body to function properly. All the cells in your body started as one cell, the **zygote** (fertilised egg). This cell divided into similar cells, which eventually differentiated into all the specialised cells in your body. A fertilised egg cell in the early stages of growth and differentiation is known as an **embryo**.

Cells that have the potential to turn into any other type of cell are called **stem cells** (Figure 2.22).

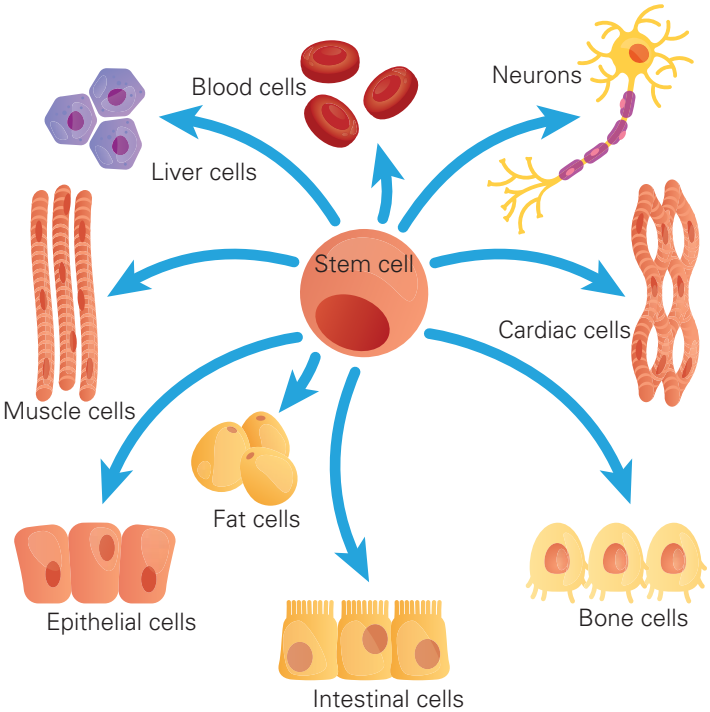

Figure 2.22 Embryonic stem cells can become many types of cells, in a process known as cell differentiation.

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The process by which stem cells become specialised is called **differentiation**. Once a stem cell has differentiated into a specialised cell, such as a nerve cell, it can only ever replicate into another cell of the same type.

Stem cells don't only exist in embryos. You still have some stem cells in your body today that are ready to become any type of cell you need. They can be found in different tissues around your body and are activated by certain triggers, such as an injury. For example, if you cut yourself, stem cells below the layers of your skin turn into skin cells to help replace the damaged cells. This replacement is not always perfect and, if the damage is too extreme, it can leave a scar.

The tissue that makes up a scar is made of the same material as normal skin, a protein called collagen. In normal tissue, collagen has a cross-weave structure where the fibres are oriented randomly. However, in scar tissue, it has a parallel alignment where all fibres run in the same direction (Figure 2.23). There is a simple reason for this: open wounds are dangerous and need to be healed as soon as possible. Parallel alignment is the faster way of repairing this tissue.

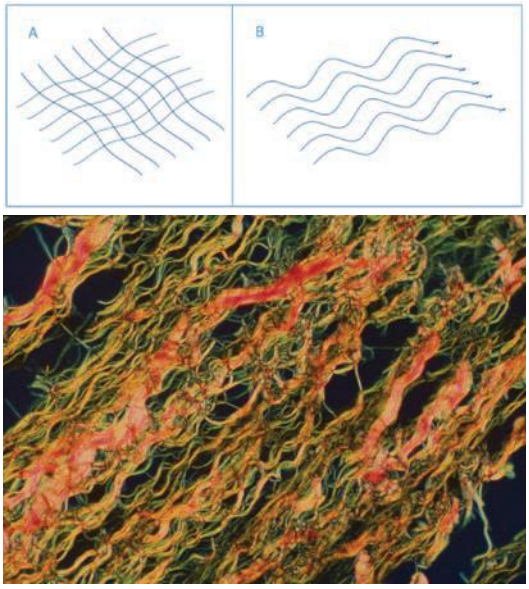

Figure 2.23 Top: Collagen fibre structure in (A) normal tissue and (B) scar tissue. Bottom: Scar tissue.

differentiation
the process by which stem cells become specialised

Explore! 2.4

Stem cell therapy

Because stem cells can become any type of cell, they have the potential to be used in treating and curing many types of diseases and conditions. These treatments are known as stem cell therapy or regenerative medicine.

1 Research the blood cancer called leukaemia.
2 Investigate how stem cell therapy is used to treat leukaemia, and summarise your findings.

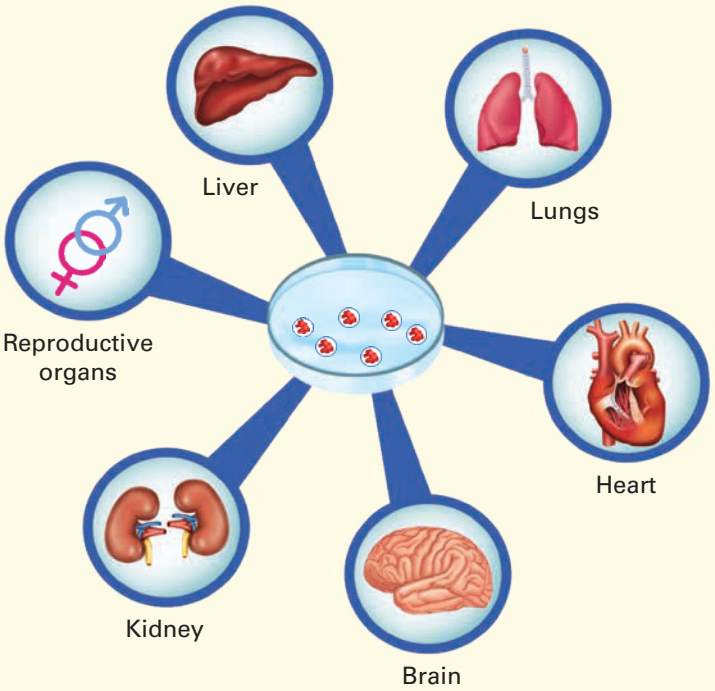

Figure 2.24 A stem cell can replicate and become any one of the more than 200 types of cells in the body.

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Science as a human endeavour 2.3

Exciting uses of stem cells

Late in 2018, the results of two exciting research projects were published by scientists in Europe. First, in Germany, scientists succeeded in generating beating heart muscle cells from stem cells. Their work may provide a new approach for the treatment of heart attacks. Second, in Sweden, scientists developed a faster method of generating functioning brain cells from embryonic stem cells. The new method reduces the time required to produce the cells from months to two weeks, and may help in the treatment of degenerative diseases of the nervous system, such as dementia.

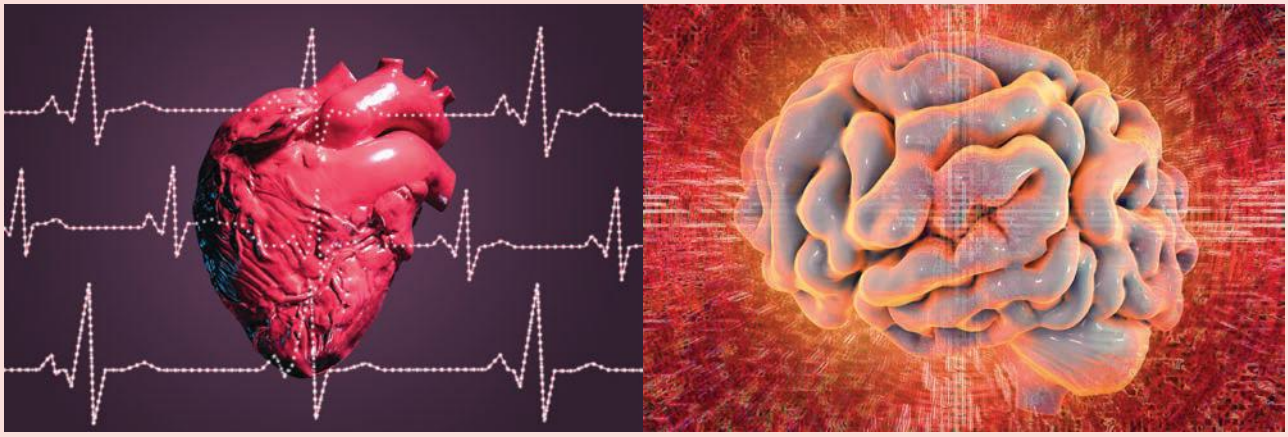

Figure 2.25 Stem cells may help in the treatment of heart and degenerative diseases of the nervous system.

Quick check 2.5

1. State the organelles that are found in animal cells.
2. Multicellular organisms are often made up of specialised cells. Describe what the term 'specialised cells' means.
3. Use the term 'differentiation' to explain how specialised cells form.
4. Describe what stem cells are and their use in medicine.

Plant cells

Plants are different from all other eukaryotic organisms in many ways. Most noticeably, they do not need to move in order to search for food, because they can make their own food in the process called *photosynthesis*. This difference means that plants have some organelles that animals and fungi lack. The special organelle in plants that carries out photosynthesis is called a **chloroplast** (Figure 2.26).

chloroplast
a structure in a plant cell that contains chlorophyll and conducts photosynthesis

Figure 2.26 Plant cells: the green blobs are chloroplasts. Also note the thick cell wall that surrounds each cell.

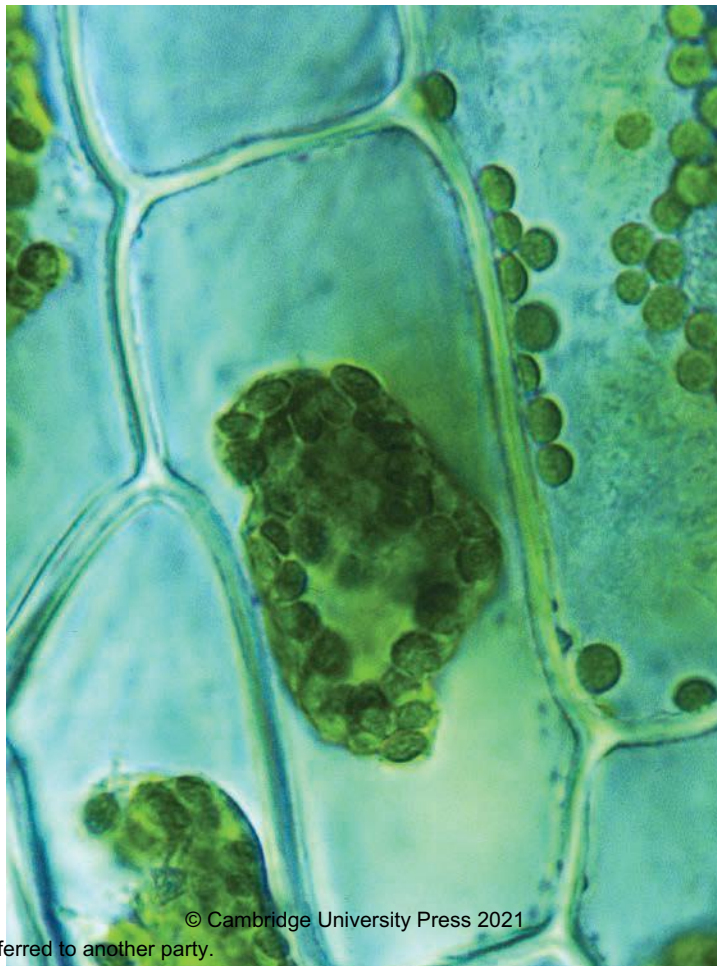

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Figure 2.27 Eucalyptus trees can only grow as tall as they do because of the rigid cell wall that surrounds each of their cells (Karijini National Park, Western Australia).

Chloroplasts contain a green pigment called *chlorophyll*, which captures the Sun's light and makes plants green. Chloroplasts are found in plant cells that are exposed to light (e.g. leaf cells) but not in cells of the roots.

Because plants do not need to move, they lack a skeleton and muscles, but they still need to be able to support their weight so they can grow tall, towards the light from the Sun. This is why plant cells have a **cell wall**. The cell wall is a rigid structure that surrounds each cell (sitting outside the cell membrane) and provides shape and support for the plant. The cell wall is made of a substance called *cellulose*.

Plant cells also contain an organelle called a **vacuole**. This organelle stores water and other nutrients for the plant. It also works with the cell wall to help support the plant and give it shape. If you have ever forgotten to water your plants at home, you might have noticed that they droop and wilt, becoming floppy, and if not watered will start to die (Figure 2.28). This is because the vacuoles in each cell are losing water, the cells become flaccid, and so the plant cannot hold its shape. Animal cells also contain vacuoles, but they are much smaller and are mainly used to store nutrients. The cells of some fungi, protists and bacteria also have vacuoles.

cell wall
a rigid structure that surrounds each cell, shaping and supporting the cell

vacuole
a structure in a cell that stores water and nutrients

Figure 2.28 A thirsty plant: the vacuoles are no longer full of water and so they cannot help to support the plant in standing upright.

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WIDGET
Eukaryotic organelles

Distinguishing animal cells from plant cells

You have seen that animal cells and plant cells have many organelles in common, as they are both eukaryotic cells that have many processes in common. However, you have also learned about the additional organelles that plant cells have due to their different structures and functions.

Furthermore, it is generally easy to identify plant cells under the microscope, because the cell wall usually gives them a shape with rigid straight lines and a thick outline, whereas animal cells have a less uniform shape and a much thinner outline.

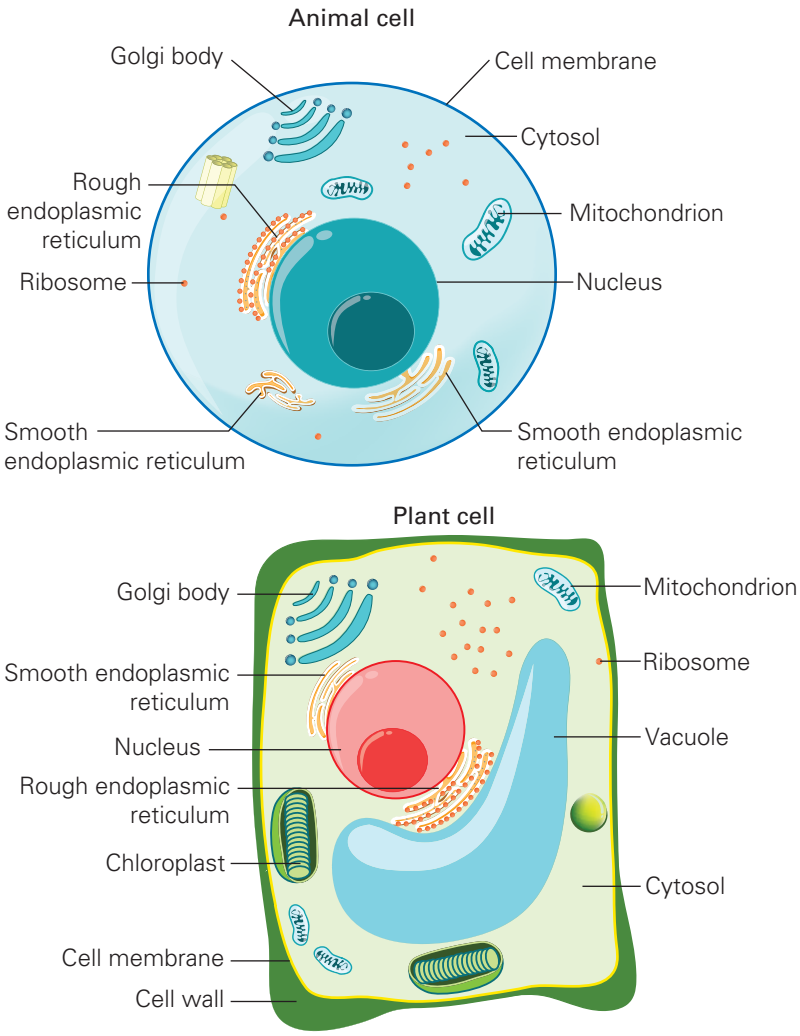

Figure 2.29 An animal cell (top) and a plant cell (bottom) showing the major structures and organelles

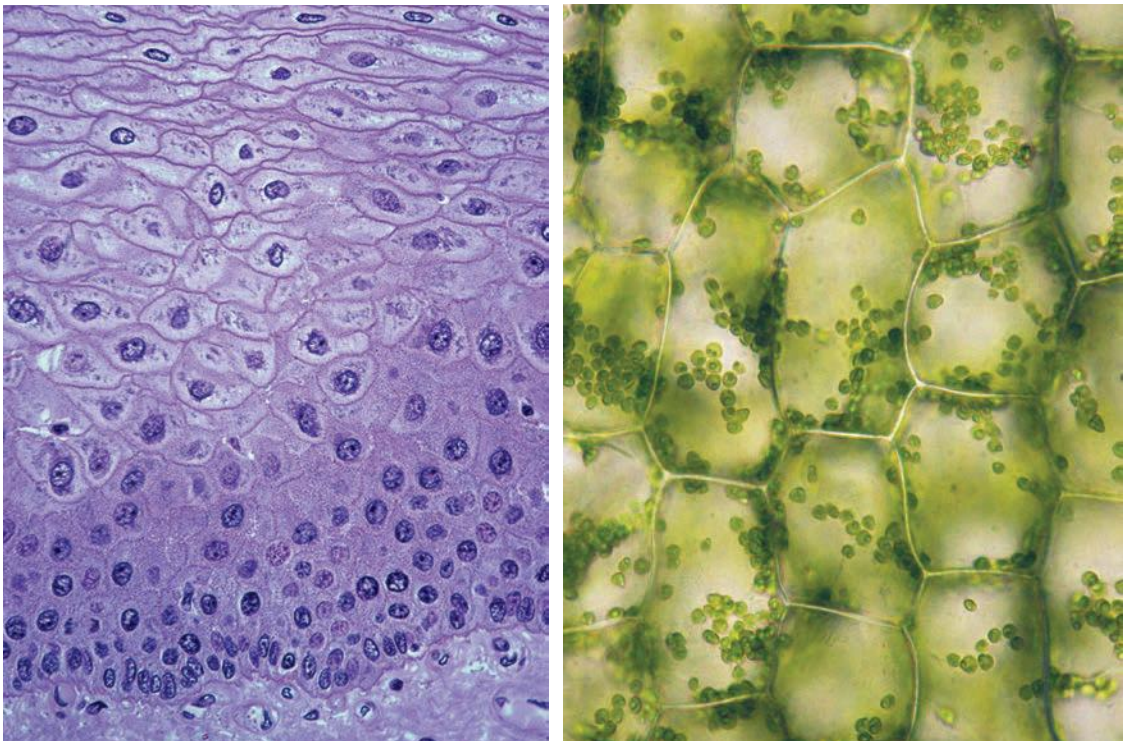

Figure 2.30 Left: Animal (oesophagus) cells at 100× magnification. Right: Plant cells at 100× magnification

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Quick check 2.6

1 Name the organelles in a plant cell that an animal cell does not have.
2 Explain why plant cells have each of the 'extra' organelles you named in Question **1**.

Try this 2.5

Making a wet mount

When you want to observe cells under a microscope, you need to prepare a *wet mount*. You can practise using pond water.

Use a pipette to place a drop of pond water in the centre of a glass slide. Then gently lower a cover slip onto the water, as shown in Figure 2.31. If the cover slip drops too quickly, it can trap air bubbles and then you won't be able to see your specimen as easily. Use a tissue or blotting paper on the edge of the cover slip to soak up any extra liquid.

Note: Some specimens may be dry and so you would need to add a drop of water. Some may be transparent, so you would need to add a stain instead of (or in addition to) water.

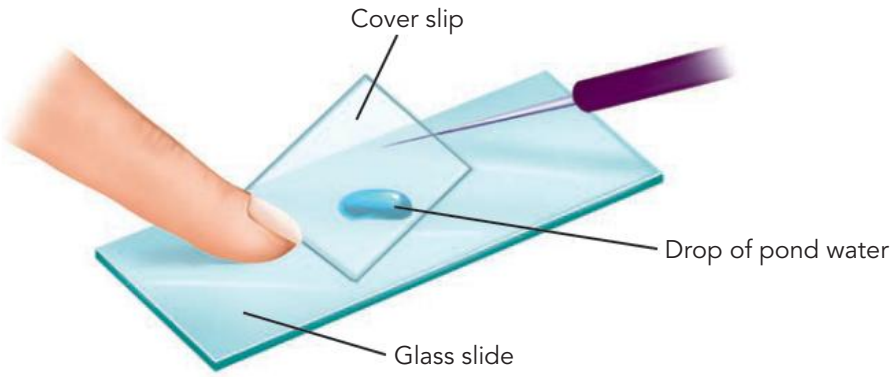
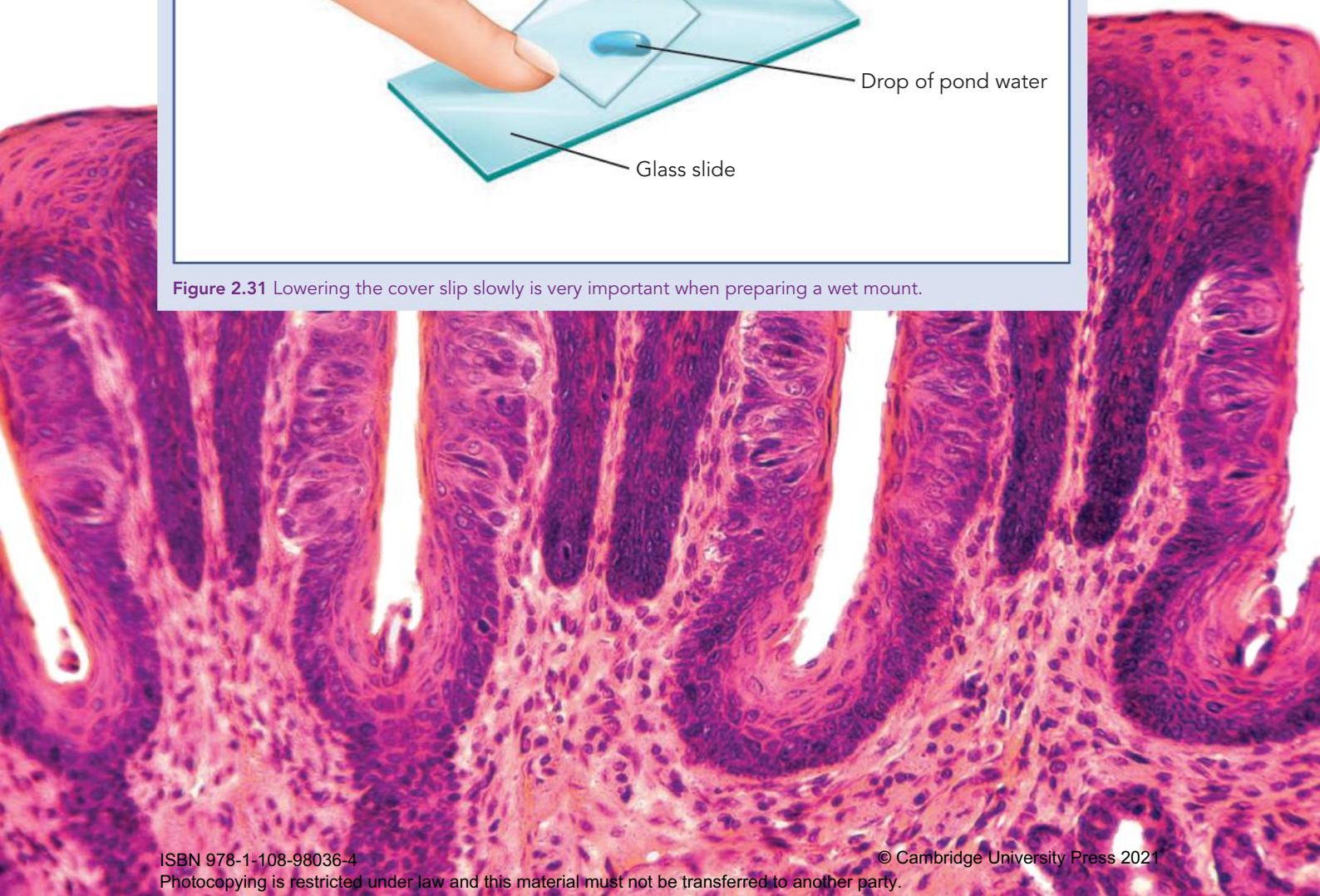


Figure 2.31 Lowering the cover slip slowly is very important when preparing a wet mount.



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Practical 2.2

Observing cells under a microscope

Aim

To observe the characteristics of plant and animal cells

Materials

- light microscope
- glass slides and cover slips
- toothpick
- onion and celery
- iodine solution
- ripe and unripe bananas
- prepared animal slides

Be careful

Ensure that you carry the microscope appropriately. Carry it with one hand holding the arm and one hand under the base. Be mindful when using the coarse focus knob because the objective lens can touch the glass slide and damage it. Do not consume food in the laboratory.

Method

1 Prepare wet mounts as follows.
   - a Peel a translucent (see-through) piece of tissue from the onion.
   - b Place the piece of onion tissue on a glass slide and add a drop of iodine solution.
   - c Cover the slide with a cover slip, using your wet mount technique.
   - d Repeat steps **a–c** for the celery.
   - e Use the toothpick to collect some ripe banana cells and smear them as thinly as you can across a glass slide.
   - f Add a drop of iodine solution and then cover with a cover slip.
   - g Repeat steps **e–f** for the unripe banana.
2 Observe the cells: starting with the microscope on the lowest magnification, turn the coarse focus knob until it is as close to the stage as it can go. Place on your first slide and focus using the coarse focus knob. Once focused, turn to the next objective lens. Use only the fine focus knob to focus now. Once focused, move to the highest magnification and again focus using the fine focus knob.
3 Draw a diagram: using a pencil, draw diagrams of an onion cell, a celery cell, a ripe banana cell, an unripe banana cell, and four animal cells from the prepared slides. Label all the organelles you can see, using a ruler and labels at the side of the diagram. Record the name of the specimen, and the magnification the drawing was drawn at, and determine the cell size.

Results

Your results will be in the form of four plant cell diagrams and four animal cell diagrams.

Discussion

1 Explain why stains are needed.
2 Compare the onion and celery cells: what similarities and differences did you observe?
3 Compare the ripe and unripe banana cells: what similarities and differences did you observe? Can you explain the differences?
4 What characteristics did you observe in the plant cells? In the animal cells? What did they have in common? Explain why there are differences.
5 Were the plant and animal cells all the same size? If there are differences, can you explain why?

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Practical 2.3

Making a model: 3D cell

Aim

To make a 3D model of a plant cell and an animal cell from the materials provided

Materials

- black beans
- white beans
- ping pong balls
- zip-lock bags
- red food colouring
- green food colouring
- takeaway food container
- poppy seeds
- balloons
- glue and tape

Method

1. Look at the materials your teacher has provided for you and decide what you are going to use to represent each part of the plant cell and the animal cell.
2. Copy and complete the results table to indicate how each organelle is going to be represented in your model.
3. Construct your 3D model of the cell.
4. Explain to the class and your teacher how your model represents all the parts of a cell.

Results

Plants		Animals	
Cell	Material used	Cell	Materials used
Nucleus		Nucleus	
Cell membrane		Cell membrane	
Mitochondria		Mitochondria	
Ribosomes		Ribosomes	
Golgi body		Golgi body	
Rough endoplasmic reticulum		Rough endoplasmic reticulum	
Cytosol		Cytosol	
Large vacuole		Small vacuoles	
Chloroplast			
Cell wall			

Discussion

1. Explain why models are used in science.
2. Assess two strengths and two limitations of your model.
3. Propose a way to make your model more accurate.

Fungi

Fungi are similar to both plants and animals, and most are multicellular, but they also have their own unique cell wall. Fungi are *heterotrophs*, like animals, which means they have to digest other organisms in order to gain nutrients. Therefore, fungal cells don't have chloroplasts like plant cells do. Their cell wall is made of *chitin*, not cellulose.

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Did you know? 2.4

Fungi and beetles

The cell wall of fungal cells is made of chitin, and this is the same chitin that makes up the exoskeleton of insects such as beetles.

Figure 2.32 Beetle exoskeletons and fungal cell walls are made of the same substance: chitin.

The main body of a fungus is called the *mycelium*; this is a large network of small filaments, called *hyphae*, that can stretch for more than 10 kilometres (Figure 2.33). You don't often see hyphae, as they are very small, and you only really notice a fungus when it develops a fruiting body when conditions are perfect. This fruiting body can be seen as a mushroom or a toadstool, a truffle or a puffball (Figure 2.34). This is why you often see mushrooms appear soon after heavy rainfall. The fungus makes these fruiting bodies to produce spores in order to reproduce.

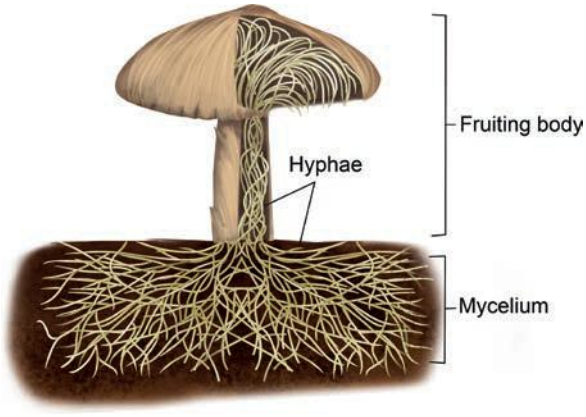

Figure 2.33 A diagram of a fungal cell

Figure 2.34 Fungi: (top) toadstool, (middle) chanterelle mushrooms, (bottom) puffball

Quick check 2.7

1 State whether fungi are prokaryotic or eukaryotic.
2 Contrast the cell wall of a plant with the cell wall of a fungus.
3 Explain the function of a fungal cell wall.

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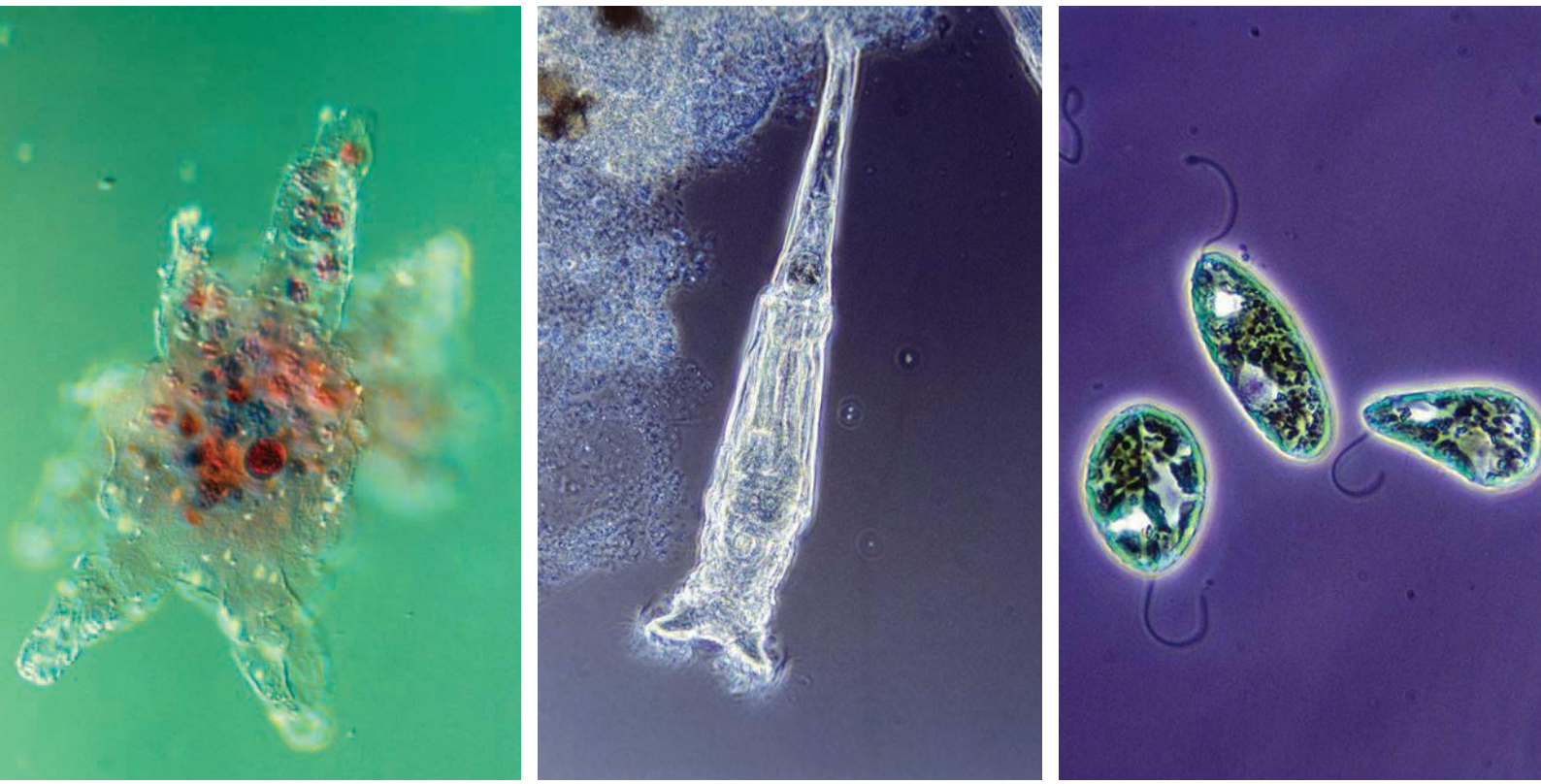

Figure 2.35 Protists: (left) amoeba, (middle) rotifer, (right) *Euglena*

Protists

Protista is a kingdom that consists mostly of unicellular organisms; however, there are a few multicellular examples, such as kelp. They are eukaryotic, so they contain the organelles that you learned about in the previous section. However, scientists have changed the classification of many of these organisms several times, because they display characteristics of both plants and animals.

All **protists** need to live in a moist environment and so are very common in most aquatic environments. If you look at a sample of pond water under the microscope in the warmer months of the year, you will likely see many types of protists, such as *Euglena*, rotifers, amoebas (Figure 2.35) and *Paramecia*. Each of these types of protists is slightly different in structure, depending on their function (Figure 2.36).

protist
a eukaryotic organism that is part of the kingdom Protista

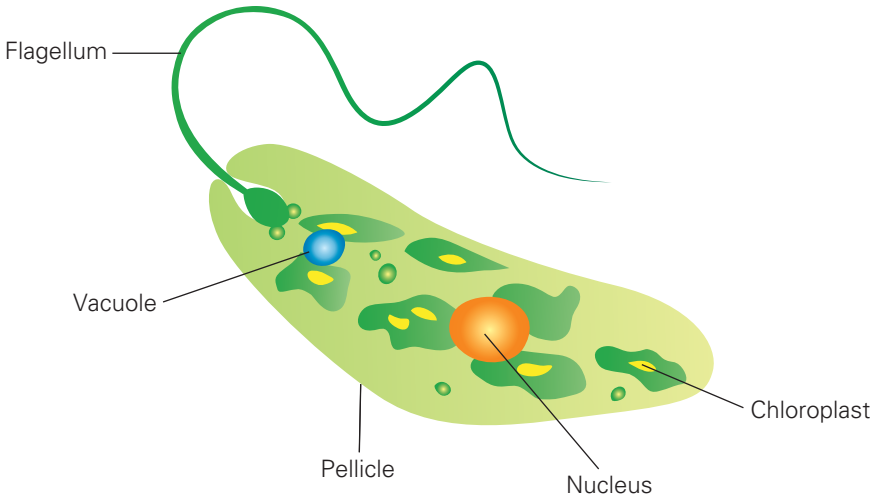

Figure 2.36 *Euglena* have chloroplasts, which are typically considered a plant cell organelle, but they also have a flagellum, which is more typical of an animal cell.

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Section 2.3 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **State** the organelle involved in photosynthesis.
2 **Name** the three key differences between plant cells and animal cells in terms of their organelles.
3 **Recall** three examples of protists.
4 **Define** 'specialised cells' and provide an example.
5 **Identify** the two parts of a plant cell that provide support and explain how they work together.
6 a **Name** the organelles labelled A–E in the eukaryotic cell shown in Figure 2.37.
b **Identify** the type of cell shown in Figure 2.37. Explain your answer.

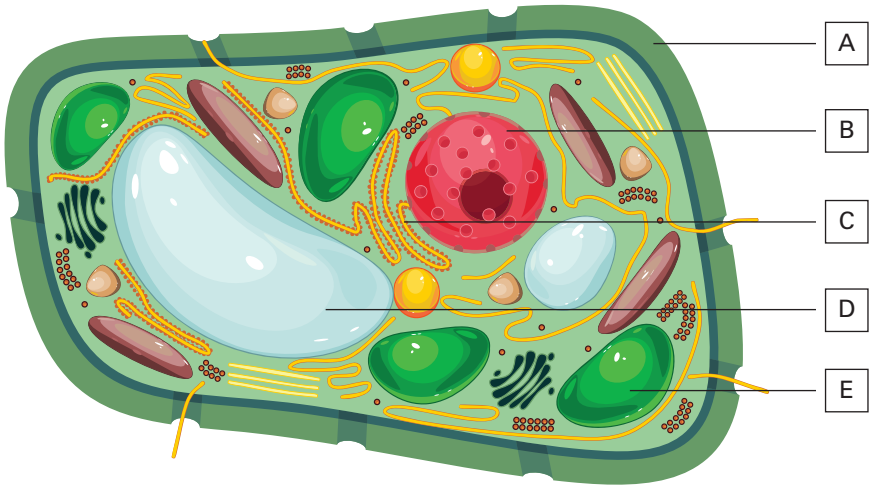

Figure 2.37 A eukaryotic cell

7 **Identify** where you are most likely to find protists.

Understanding

8 **Explain** why fungi are known as heterotrophs.
9 **Summarise** the steps you need to take when preparing a wet mount.

Applying

10 Stem cells are currently of massive interest to scientists. **Explain** why this is the case, using what you have learned about their use in therapy and other medicinal applications.
11 **Explain** how the shapes of various cells help them to carry out their functions within the body. You may like to refer to red blood cells, sperm cells and muscle cells.

Analysing

12 a Draw a Venn diagram to **compare** an animal cell with a fungal cell in terms of the cell's structure and organelles.
b Draw a Venn diagram to **compare** a plant cell with a fungal cell in terms of the cell's structure and organelles.
13 Yeast are unicellular eukaryotic cells, and belong to the Fungi kingdom. A student conducted an experiment to test the effect of temperature on the activity of yeast, which will produce a gas when added to a solution of sugar in water. The student placed 2 g of yeast and 10 g of sugar into a glass apparatus full of water, designed to trap any gas produced in a narrow closed vertical tube at the top. The amount of gas can be measured by the height of the column of gas that collects in the tube. The student did the experiment three times with the apparatus containing water at three different temperatures, and measured the height of the column of gas produced after 1 minute.

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Temperature (°C)	Height of column of gas produced in the tube (mm)			
	Trial 1	Trial 2	Trial 3	Average
10	60	64	62	62
30	102	98	100	100
60	20	14	17	17

a Using the student's results, **identify** the effect of temperature on yeast function.
b **Identify** the optimum temperature for yeast.
c **Infer** the effect that an even higher temperature, such as 100°C, would have on the yeast being tested.

Evaluating

14 **Justify** this statement: 'Fungi are all around us but you can't always see them'.
15 **Propose** reasons why humans need muscles and a skeleton, whereas plants do not.

2.4 Function and malfunction

Learning goals

1 To be able to describe the roles of cell mitosis and binary fission.
2 To be able to explain the effects of pathogens on human health.

WORKSHEET

Cell division

At the start of this chapter you learned about cell theory. The development of cell theory was made possible by the invention of the microscope, which allowed scientists to observe and prove certain characteristics that all cells display. One of the most easily observable parts of cell theory is that 'all cells come from pre-existing cells'. This is referring to cell division, when one cell splits to form two new identical cells, called *daughter cells*. The scientific term for this process in eukaryotes is **mitosis** (Figure 2.38). In prokaryotes, it is known as **binary fission**.

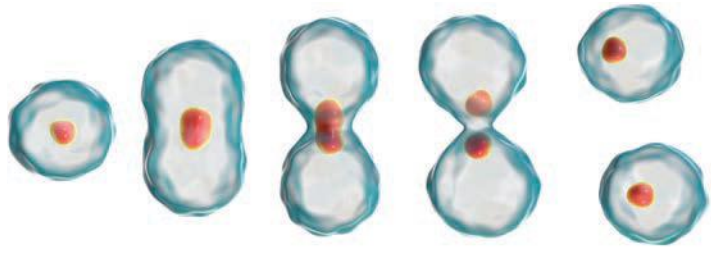

Figure 2.38 A simplified representation of mitosis: one cell forms two new identical daughter cells

Why do cells divide?

Cell division primarily occurs for repair, growth and reproduction.

mitosis
the type of cell division in which one cell divides into two cells that are exactly the same

binary fission
a mode of asexual reproduction by bacteria, where genetic information is copied and the cell splits in half

Repair

If you cut your skin or break a bone, your body can close the wound or set the bone over time. This happens because millions of new cells are produced to replace the damaged cells. Some cells in your body, such as your red blood cells and skin cells, need to be replaced regularly.

Figure 2.39 A cut heals because mitosis occurs, creating new cells to replace the damaged ones.

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Growth

In order to grow, your body needs to make more cells. You started as a single cell, which was a fertilised egg. By the time you become an adult, you will be made of about 37.2 trillion cells. A massive amount of cell growth occurs before you are born and in your first few years of life, but you will still be growing until your late teens. This means your bone cells need to reproduce in order for you to get taller, your muscle cells need to keep up with your bone cells, and your nerve cells need to grow in order to extend throughout your body.

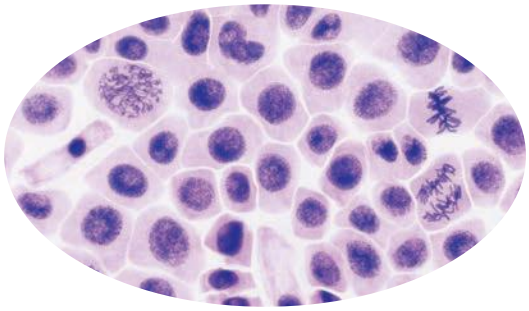

Figure 2.40 The ability to view cells under a microscope, such as these onion cells undergoing mitosis, has helped us understand cell function and division.

Reproduction

Unicellular organisms such as bacteria remain as one cell their entire life. They don't undergo cell division for growth and repair, because their whole body is just one cell. The only reason bacteria divide is for reproduction. This form of reproduction is known as *binary fission* and involves the bacterium splitting in half to produce an identical copy of itself (Figure 2.41). Because this process does not require a mate and is fairly simple, bacteria can reproduce around every 30 minutes. This means that, in one day, a single bacterial cell could become 140 737 488 355 328 cells.

Did you know? 2.5

Skin

You lose about 40 000 skin cells every minute of every day. This means that, over a lifetime, you will lose at least half of your body weight in skin cells. Have you ever wondered where dust comes from? Most of the dust in your house is made up of your dead skin cells. No wonder mitosis happens a lot!

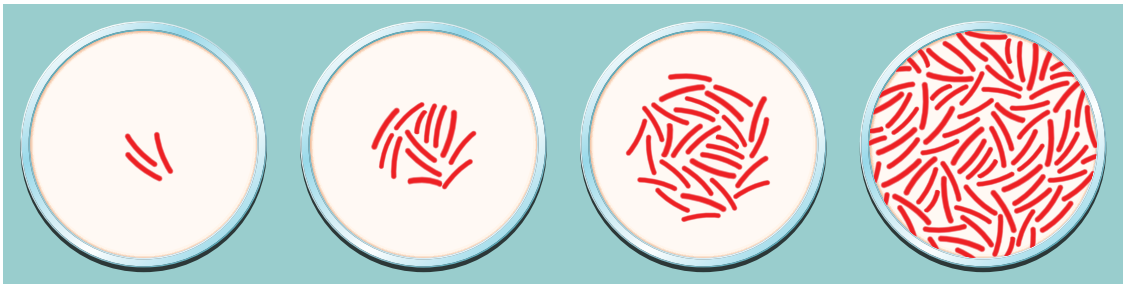

Figure 2.41 Under the right conditions, bacteria can reproduce very quickly by binary fission.

Explore! 2.5

Cancer

Cancer is a disease of the body's cells. Cells normally grow and multiply in a controlled way, but if there is a change in someone's genetic code, this control can be lost. 'Cancer' is the term used to describe uncontrolled cell division. Because cancerous cells can arise from almost any type of cell, there are about 100 different types of cancers.

1. Research and define the terms 'benign' and 'malignant'.
2. Select a type of cancer to investigate – for example, prostate, breast, bowel, skin, lung. Summarise the cause, prevention and treatment of the chosen cancer.

Figure 2.42 A doctor checking a mole for signs of skin cancer

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Science as a human endeavour 2.4

Cervical cancer

In 2019, it was reported that Australia is on track to be the first country in the world to eliminate cervical cancer. This prediction has been credited to the introduction, a decade ago, of the human papillomavirus (HPV) vaccination program for schoolchildren. The Cancer Council NSW has shown that if vaccination and screening levels are continued, rates of diagnosed cervical cancer will drop.

Quick check 2.8

1 Cell division is a normal process that occurs in your body. Recall the three reasons it occurs.
2 Explain why skin cells need to divide regularly.
3 State the name of the process that bacteria undergo to reproduce.
4 Describe a disease that results from a malfunction of the normal process of cell division.

Microorganisms

Microorganisms are organisms that are so small they can only be viewed under a microscope. Bacteria, some fungi and some protists are examples of such small organisms. Most bacteria (such as those in your intestines) and fungi (e.g. the yeast used to make bread) are harmless and can actually benefit us in some way. However, some bacteria are dangerous. 'Germ' or '**pathogen**' is the general term used to refer to a microorganism that can cause a disease or infection. When you go to the toilet, you probably wash your hands straight away. This is because you were taught from an early age that washing your hands kills germs. This might seem like common sense, but until about 150 years ago, people didn't know that diseases came from microorganisms and that the air is full of microorganisms. Before this time, people believed that mould on bread appeared spontaneously – this theory is known as *spontaneous generation*.

Louis Pasteur was a microbiologist who used microscopes to study the microscopic world. He conducted a series of experiments proving that food went off because it was contaminated by microorganisms in the air. His experiments in the 1860s led him to invent *pasteurisation*, which is the process of heating food or drink to a high enough temperature to kill any harmful microorganisms, before sealing it (Figure 2.43). This greatly increases the shelf life of foods and prevents the spread of disease.

pathogen
an organism that causes disease

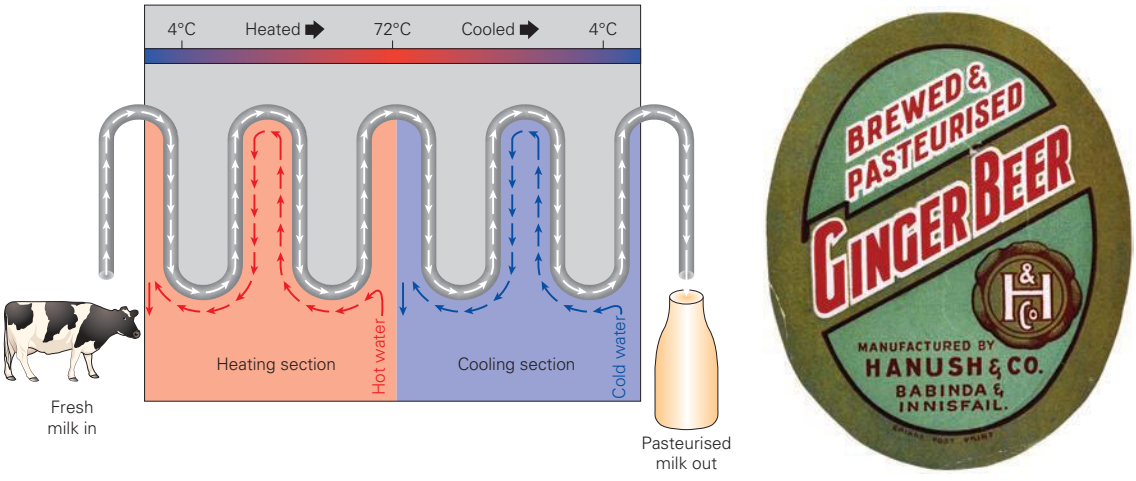

Figure 2.43 The process of pasteurisation (left) has been used for a long time, as can be seen in the label of ginger beer from the 1940s (right).

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Try this 2.6

Observing 'friendly' bacteria under the microscope

Using your wet mount preparation skills, look at some bacteria under the microscope. You will need the stain methylene blue and a sample of yoghurt or probiotic drink containing live bacteria strains. Look at the size and structure of the bacterial cells, and consider how similar or different they are to eukaryotic cells like plant and animal cells.

Practical 2.4: Investigation

Modelling pasteurisation

Be careful

Ensure benches are cleaned and hands are washed before leaving the laboratory.
Do not open the agar plates after sealing.

Aim

To test the effect of temperature on the growth of bacteria

Planning

1 Conduct some background research and summarise the factors that affect the growth of bacteria and methods that prevent this growth.
2 Write a specific and relevant research question for your investigation.
3 Identify the independent, dependent and controlled variables.
4 Write a hypothesis for your investigation.

Materials

- probiotic drink
- 4 agar plates
- sterile swabs
- evaporation dish
- Bunsen burner
- tripod, heatproof mat, pipe clay triangle
- sticky tape
- disposable gloves

Method

Part 1: Boiled (100°C) probiotic

1 Place 10 mL of probiotic drink into the evaporation dish.
2 Heat the probiotic drink to boiling point using a Bunsen burner.
3 When the mixture starts to boil, turn off the heat.
4 Dip a sterile swab into the heated mixture and spread the mixture over the agar sheet, as shown in Figure 2.44 and explained below.

Swabbing technique

When you use the sterile swab, gently rub the swab over the agar in tight lines to start with, and then slowly spread the lines apart as you move down the agar plate.

5 Place the lid on the plate and, with 2–4 pieces of sticky tape, tape down opposite edges of the plate.
6 Label the agar plate. Write your group name, date and the independent variable. Keep your writing small, and write around the outside edge of the agar plate.

Figure 2.44 How to rub the swab over the agar

7 Place the agar plate in the incubator with the agar side up, at 30°C, for two days.

Part 2: 30°C probiotic

8 Dip a new sterile swab into the original probiotic mixture (unboiled).
9 Swab an agar plate as you did previously.

continued...

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...continued

10 Place the lid on the plate and, with 2–4 pieces of sticky tape, tape down opposite edges of the plate. Label the agar plate.
11 Place the agar plate in the incubator with the agar side up, at 30°C, for two days.

Part 3: Refrigerated (4°C) probiotic

12 Repeat steps **8–10** and place the agar plate in the refrigerator at 4°C for two days.
13 After two days, remove the agar plates from the incubator and refrigerator, and count the number of colonies that you can see on the agar plates. A colony should look like a slightly raised round dot on the agar plate.

Results

1 Draw a results table for your experiment.
2 Produce a suitable graph for your experiment.

Discussion

1 Describe any patterns, trends or relationships in your results.
2 Explain any relationships you have identified.
3 Suggest two ways that your results could be useful for controlling bacterial growth.
4 Identify any limitations in your investigation.
5 Propose another independent variable that could have been tested, to expand on your results.
6 Suggest some improvements for this experiment.

Conclusion

Draw a conclusion from this experiment regarding the effect of temperature on bacterial growth, using data to support your statement.

Following on from Pasteur's experiments, other scientists used microscopes to help them link microorganisms to disease. This led to the realisation that washing our hands, cleaning our homes and cooking food properly can limit the spread of disease.

Figure 2.45 Washing hands can prevent the spread of microorganisms.

By following simple hygiene practices, humans are living much longer and healthier lives. Some ways in which you can prevent the spread of microorganisms and prevent diseases from passing from one person to another are as follows.

1 Cover your mouth and nose with a tissue or your elbow pit when you sneeze.
2 Wash your hands regularly, especially if you cough or sneeze into your hands.
3 Avoid touching your eyes, nose or mouth after touching contaminated surfaces such as hand rails or door handles.
4 Do not share drink bottles or cutlery with other people.
5 Quarantine – this is when a sick person is kept away from the healthy population, to prevent the illness from spreading. If your doctor has ever told you to stay home from school, that is a form of quarantine.

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Figure 2.46 Always sneeze into a tissue.

Did you know? 2.6

Touching your face is one of the easiest ways to allow microorganisms into your body. On average people touch their face hundreds of times a day. See how many times you touch your face in the next 20 minutes – it may shock you!

Figure 2.47 How many times a day do you touch your face?

Quick check 2.9

1. Define the following terms: pathogen, microorganism, pasteurisation.
2. Explain the link between the three terms in Question **1**.
3. Explain why it is better to sneeze into your elbow than into your hands.

Disease

virus
a microscopic particle containing a nucleic acid (like DNA) capable of infecting host cells

disease
any condition that negatively affects the normal functioning of any part of a living thing

antibiotic
a medicine or chemical that can destroy harmful bacteria in the body or limit their growth

When someone says 'disease' it might seem obvious what they mean. However, a disease can be many things: it can be a viral (from a **virus**), bacterial or fungal infection; it can be inherited from your parents; or it can be a condition that develops over time due to your environment. That is why we define a **disease** as any condition that negatively affects the normal functioning of any part of a living thing. Because this definition is very broad, we classify diseases into two categories: infectious and non-infectious.

Having a deeper understanding of cells allows us to understand and treat many diseases.

In the past, if you were very sick and had to go to the doctor, you may have been given **antibiotics**. Antibiotics kill most of the bacteria they come into contact with, but do not harm the cells of your body.

Figure 2.48 Antibiotics kill most of the bacteria they come into contact with.

Before the invention of modern antibiotics, there were limited ways to treat bacterial infections, so if you had a cut that was infected, you had two choices. You could either try the limited treatments, wait and hope that the infection got better and did

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Figure 2.49 Infected mouth ulcer

not spread, or you could cut that part of your body off, to prevent the infection from spreading to the rest of your body.

In 1928, Alexander Fleming accidentally discovered the first antibiotic effective against a wide range of bacteria, when he was growing some bacteria in a laboratory. The bacteria became contaminated with a mould, and he noticed that the mould was killing the bacteria (Figure 2.50). This led to the discovery of the first antibiotic, called *penicillin*. Penicillin works by breaking down the cell wall of bacteria, which causes the cells to burst and die. For his work on developing penicillin and being the first to use it to treat an infection, the Australian scientist Howard Florey shared the

Figure 2.50 A photo of Fleming's culture Petri dish

Figure 2.51 Testing antibiotics

Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine with Alexander Fleming and Ernst Boris Chain, a scientist who isolated and purified penicillin.

In 1964, Dorothy Hodgkin won the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for being the first person to uncover the structure of penicillin using X-ray analysis. Her discovery allowed scientists to develop many other types of antibiotics. Some work in the same way as penicillin, and others slow or prevent the reproduction of bacteria, which gives the body's immune system a better chance to deal with the infection itself.

Figure 2.52 Sometimes rest is all your body needs to help heal itself.

It is important to remember that antibiotics only work on bacteria. If you are infected by a virus or another type of microorganism, taking antibiotics will not cure you. In fact, taking antibiotics when you don't need them can kill the good bacteria in your body, and in the long term can lead to bacteria that are resistant to antibiotics, sometimes referred to as 'super bugs'.

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Science as a human endeavour 2.5

Fighting antibiotic-resistant bacteria

According to the World Health Organization, about 700 000 people die every year as a result of antibiotic resistance. Antibiotic-resistant bacteria cannot be killed by antibiotics and it is predicted that this issue will become the biggest global threat to human health in the next 15 years. However, in 2020, a new group of antibiotics that have a unique approach to attacking bacteria were discovered. This discovery could lead to the development of different antibiotics and help overcome antibiotic resistance.

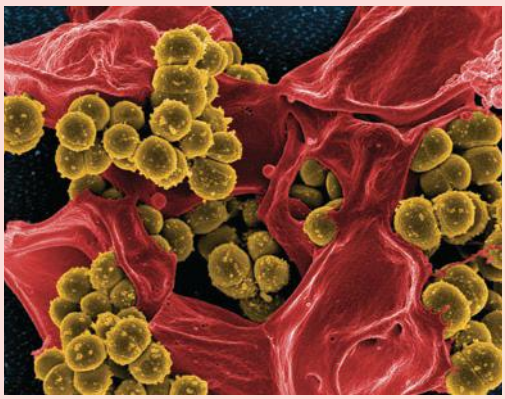
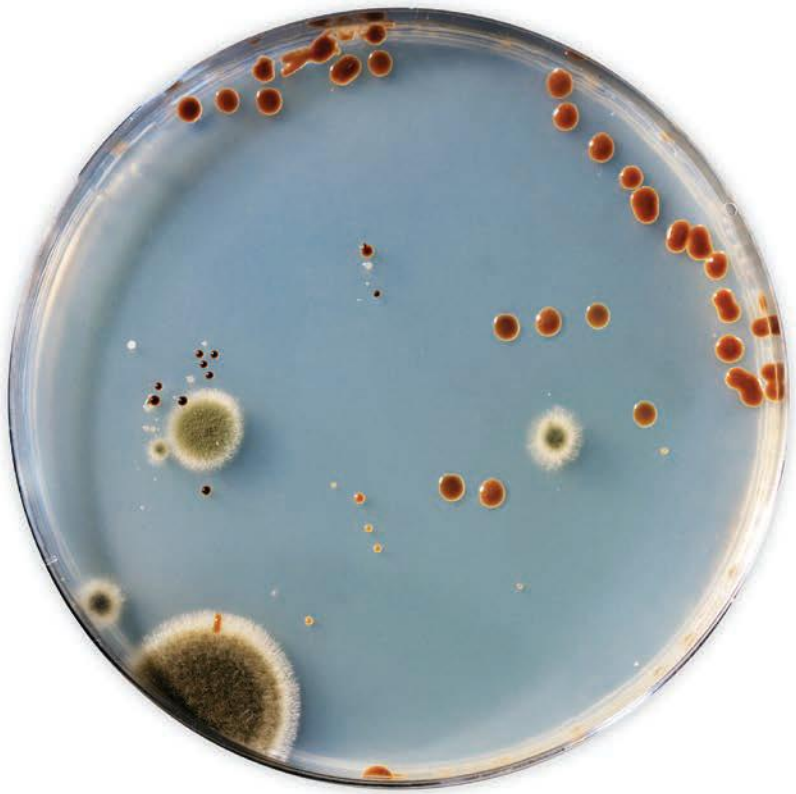


Figure 2.53 Antibiotic-resistant bacteria are a very real threat. This is a scanning electron micrograph of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (green) surrounding a human white blood cell.

Quick check 2.10

1. Define 'disease'.
2. State the categories of disease.
3. Name a type of antibiotic.
4. Describe how antibiotics work.



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Practical 2.5: Investigation

Fungi-fighting bacteria

Background information

Some bacteria produce an antifungal substance – a substance that can kill fungi. Soil is a good source of antifungal bacteria, and so your aim in this experiment is to test the effectiveness of different soil dilutions on the growth of fungi.

Be careful

Ensure benches are cleaned and hands are washed before leaving the laboratory.
Do not open the Petri dishes after sealing.

Aim

To test the effectiveness of different soil dilutions on the growth of fungi

Planning

1. Conduct some background research and find out about fungi and the factors that affect fungal growth.
2. Write a specific and relevant research question for your investigation.
3. Identify the independent, dependent and controlled variables.
4. Write a hypothesis for your investigation.
5. Write a risk assessment for your investigation.

Materials

- 4 dilutions of soil: 10% (1 g soil), 20% (2 g soil), 30% (3 g soil) and 40% (4 g soil) with water added up until the 10 mL mark for each dilution
- yeast solution (1 tablespoon yeast in 250 mL warm water)
- 1 agar plate per group
- sterile swab
- 4 plastic pipettes
- sticky tape
- disposable gloves

Method

1. Draw a cross on the bottom of the agar plate to create four quadrants.
2. Thoroughly swab the agar plate with the yeast solution, horizontally and then vertically, to get full coverage.
3. Using a different pipette for each soil dilution, place a few drops of each soil dilution in each quadrant and label the agar plate lid.
4. Allow time for the drops to be fully absorbed into the agar.
5. Cover the agar plate with the lid and with 2–4 pieces of sticky tape, tape down opposite edges of the plate. Label the outside edge of the plate on the agar side.
6. Place the plate in an incubator at 30°C for two days.
7. Observe the growth of the yeast in each quadrant and record the results.

Results

1. Draw a results table for your experiment.
2. Produce a suitable graph for your experiment.

Discussion

1. Describe any patterns, trends or relationships in your results.
2. Explain any trends you have identified.
3. Suggest two ways that your results could be useful for controlling bacterial growth.
4. Identify any limitations in your investigation.
5. Propose another independent variable that could have been tested, to expand on your results.
6. Suggest some improvements for this experiment.

Conclusion

Draw a conclusion from this experiment, using data to support your statement.

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Section 2.4 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **Define** 'mitosis'.
2 **State** the three reasons that cells divide.
3 **Recall** why antibiotics are only useful in treating bacterial infections.

Understanding

4 **Explain** how bacteria reproduce.
5 Sometimes cells are described as clones. **Explain** what this means.
6 **Describe** the difference between infectious and non-infectious diseases, using examples.

Applying

7 **Summarise** the process of pasteurisation, illustrating how it is beneficial to humans.
8 **Explain** how cancer relates to the control of cell division.
9 **Explain** how the development of different microscopes has led to our current understanding of cells.

Analysing

10 **Distinguish** between malignant and benign cancer.

Evaluating

11 **Propose** the reasons why you should never remove the sticky tape from your agar plates after carrying out an experiment investigating bacteria and its antifungal properties.
12 **Decide** on the truth of this statement: 'Pasteurisation has led to improved human health'.
13 **Develop** an experiment that investigates hand washing. Your aim is to determine the effectiveness of washing hands on preventing bacterial growth. You may like to begin by identifying your independent and dependent variables. Consider using agar plates for this task.

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Chapter review

Chapter checklist

In the Interactive Textbook, the success criteria are linked to the review questions and will be automatically ticked when answers are correct. Alternatively, you can download this checklist from the Interactive Textbook to complete it.

Success criteria		Linked question	Check
2.1	I can identify the parts of a microscope and use it correctly.	4, 13	
2.1	I can distinguish between different types of microscopes.	8	
2.1	I can recall modern cell theory.	2	
2.2	I can compare prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells.	16	
2.2, 2.3	I can describe the structure and function of different cell organelles.	5, 12	
2.3	I can compare animal, plant and fungi cells.	14	
2.4	I can recall the purpose of mitosis.	9	
2.4	I can describe the effect of microorganisms on human health.	1	

Review questions

SCORCHER

Remembering

1 **Define** 'disease'.
2 **List** four statements of the modern cell theory.
3 **Name** three types of specialised cells.
4 **Name** the common components of the monocular light microscope.
5 a **Recall** the role of the following organelles in the cell.
- Nucleus
- Cytosol
- Golgi body
- Ribosome

b Copy the cell diagram in Figure 2.54, and **identify** the organelles listed in part **a**.
c Is the cell shown in part **b** a plant cell or an animal cell? **Explain** how you know.

6 **Recall** the role of the mitochondria in cells and why they are so important.

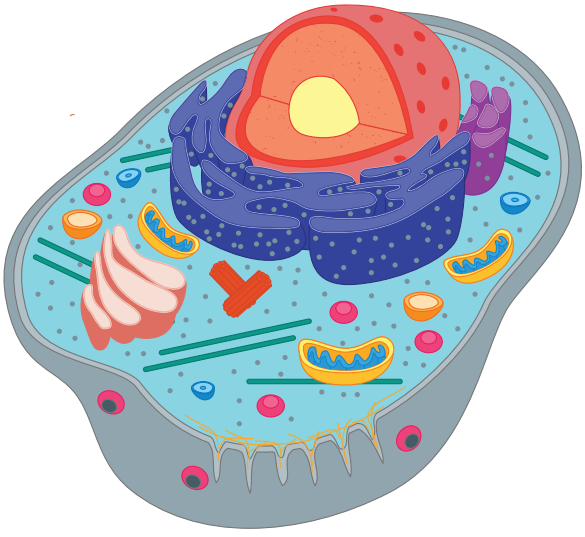

Figure 2.54 A eukaryotic cell

Understanding

7 **Identify** the type of cell that can become any other type of cell.
8 **Identify** two disadvantages of the electron microscope.
9 **Describe** the role of mitosis in human cells.

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10 Peroxisomes are small organelles found in eukaryotic cells. Their job is to break down waste in the cell. Using the 'cell as a city' model, **select** an appropriate analogy for peroxisomes.

Applying

11 After going on holiday, you come home to find that all your plants are wilted. **Explain** why this has occurred, referring to parts of the cell.

12 **Summarise** the organelles that are found in each cell type (animals, plants or fungi). You may do so by organising the information in a table like the one below and writing 'yes' or 'no' in the appropriate places.

Organelle	Animals	Plants	Fungi
Nucleus			
Cell wall			
Large vacuole			
Cytosol			
Cell membrane			
Chloroplast			

Analysing

13 **Organise** the following microscope instructions in order by numbering the steps in the left column. Step 1 has been done for you.

Step	Description
	Check that the iris adjustment is open.
	Draw a diagram.
	Return to the low magnification objective lens.
	Centre your specimen slide on the stage.
	Rotate the objective lenses until the low magnification lens is in place.
	Turn on the power.
1	Carry the microscope with two hands to the bench.
	Carry the microscope with two hands back to the cupboard.
	Turn off the power and let the lamp cool.
	Using the coarse focus knob, focus away from the slide.
	Lower the lowest magnification objective lens until it is close to the stage.
	Swing a higher magnification objective lens into place.
	Remove the cover and plug in the microscope.
	Unplug the microscope, pack up and place the cover on.
	Use only the fine focus knob.

14 **Classify** animals, plants and fungi as unicellular, multicellular or both.

15 **Contrast** the terms 'resolution' and 'magnification'.

16 **Compare** prokaryotic cells (such as bacteria) with eukaryotic cells (such as plant and animal cells). You may choose to display the information on a Venn diagram.

Evaluating

17 **Create** a flow diagram to describe the process involved in a stem cell transplant for leukaemia.

18 **Evaluate** the use of models when explaining the structure of the cell.

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Data questions

Eukaryotic organisms can achieve cell growth and repair through the process known as mitosis. The relative time required for each of the stages of cell duplication in a eukaryotic cell is shown in the pie chart in Figure 2.55. The time taken for the mitosis phase (M) of cell division for different types of cells is given in Table 2.2.

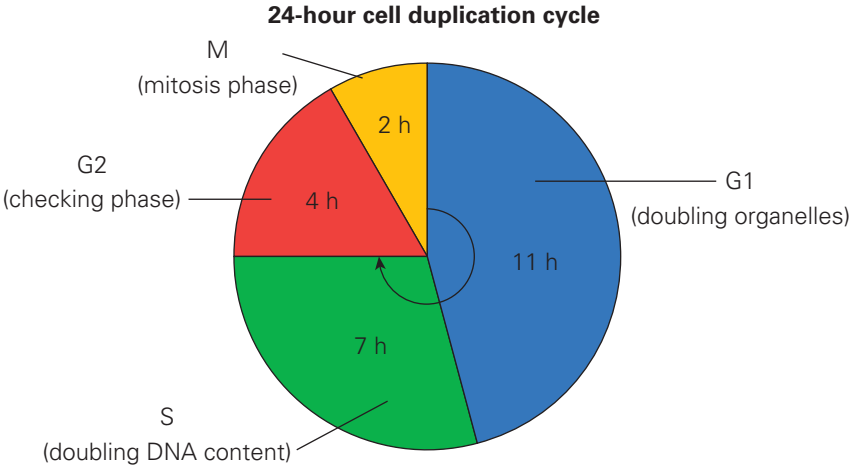

Figure 2.55 The relative duration of each of the four phases of a typical 24-hour cell division cycle in a eukaryotic cell

Cell type		Temperature (°C)	M phase duration (min)
Plants	Grass	20	110
	Sunflower	20	5
	Pea	3 10 20 25	18 000 4200 110 80
Animals	Rat	37	43
	Chicken	37	80
	Cockroach	35	140

Table 2.2 Duration of the mitosis phase (M phase) at different temperatures for different cell types

1 **Identify** which stage in the eukaryotic cell division cycle takes the longest time.
2 **Identify** which animal in Table 2.2 has the longest duration of mitosis phase.
3 **Calculate** the percentage of time in the cell duplication cycle used for doubling organelles.
4 **Identify** the relationship between the duration of the M phase in a pea cell and the temperature.
5 **Identify** how long a cell will take to duplicate all of its content if it follows the typical 24-hour cycle.
6 **Infer** why the M phase duration is given at different temperatures for plants and animals in Table 2.2.
7 **Predict** in what phase of cell duplication the content of DNA in the cell is the highest.
8 Refer to Table 2.2 and **deduce** whether or not it is possible to affirm that animals have longer mitosis phases than plants.
9 Based on the data provided, **predict** whether the mitosis phase of cell replication would be faster or slower for a grass cell at a temperature lower than 20°C.

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STEM activity: Designing a city

Background information

All living things, from humans to dogs, trees and bacteria, are made up of cells. Cells are the smallest unit of life and are so small that you cannot see most of them without a microscope. While some organisms, such as bacteria, are made up of only one cell, multicellular organisms can be made up of trillions of cells. Cells work together to form organs, which work together to form body systems (e.g. respiratory, circulatory), which are vital in working together to form complex multicellular organisms.

Although cells are small, they are complex. For example, we can use microscopes to see inside a cell and observe even smaller components of the cell, called organelles. These organelles all have different functions and work together to keep the cell alive. Cells also reproduce by mitosis, a process in which each cell divides and produces two identical cells. Unicellular organisms reproduce by mitosis, and multicellular organisms use mitosis for growth and repair.

Analogies are often used in science to explain, in simple terms, how processes work. An *analogy* is a comparison with something familiar. The way in which organelles in a cell function together can be compared with the way in which the components of a city work together to make the city function well. Cities all need to have structures and processes in place, to manage functions such as transport, sanitation, utilities, housing, construction and food production. There also needs to be a governing body that oversees all these activities.

Design brief: Design a city using cells as a model

Activity instructions

Your task is to design a city, based on the structure and functions of a cell. You will use your knowledge of the functions of cells and make comparisons with the functions of a city to create a modern city design that addresses some of the challenges we face in modern cities (e.g. transportation, overcrowding).

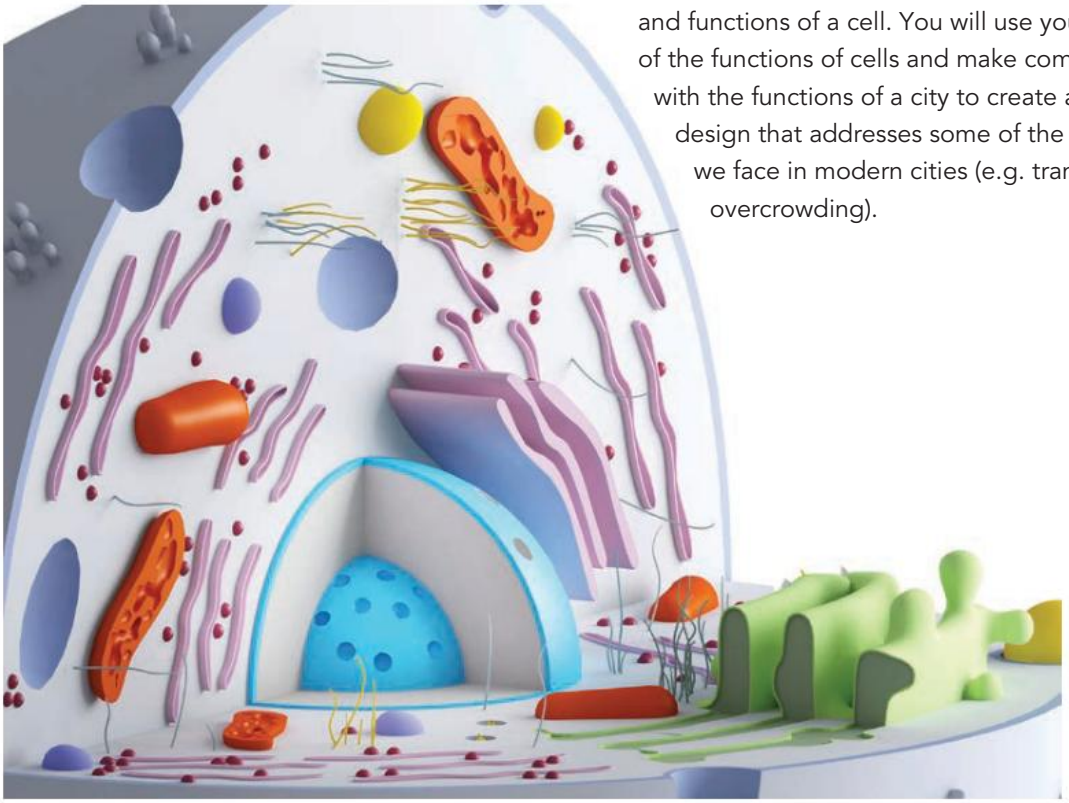

Figure 2.56 A cell can be compared to a city.

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Suggested materials/presentation format

- Poster
- PowerPoint
- Video

Research and feasibility

1 List all the major organelles and their functions in a table similar to the one below. As a group, research the issues/resources that face a city such as Perth (or any major capital city) and then match the issues/resources required with the organelle.

Organelle	Function	City issue/resource	How the organelle provides the solution
Mitochondrion	Provides energy for the cell	Cities need energy from a power plant.	Mitochondria provide energy for the cell; they are like a power plant that gives energy to the whole city.

Design and sustainability

2 In your group, discuss which type of cell you are going to model your city on and sketch a diagram of this type of cell. Then, as a group, label the organelles with the name and corresponding city resource.

3 In your group, discuss the sustainability of the city you have designed. How could the city be self-sufficient for *all* its resources?

Create

4 Reflect on your basic design and as a group start building a larger drawing that uses all your ideas, making annotations on your drawing or using your vlog. As you are creating, keep thinking about all the issues faced by a city and how they are managed/solved, including the sustainability of your city.

Evaluate and modify

5 Analyse the solutions you have come up with and comment on how achievable they would be in the real world today.

6 Explain any problems that might be encountered when implementing your solutions in the real world today. What types of technologies could be incorporated into your solutions (e.g. artificial intelligence, renewable energy)?

7 Evaluate the effectiveness of your analogies by examining the differences between the functions of a cell and the functions of a city. For example, if you have mentioned that chloroplasts are like solar panels, explain how the process of photosynthesis is different from the process of converting light energy into electricity.

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Chapter 3
Organ systems

Chapter introduction

You are a large and complex multicellular organism. You eat, move, sleep, think, breathe and fight disease every day, and you can only do this because of all the different types of cells and tissues in your body. Throughout this chapter, you will learn about how the cells, tissues and organs in your body work together to allow you to function effectively. You will also explore how scientific advances have allowed humans to repair and replace parts of the body.

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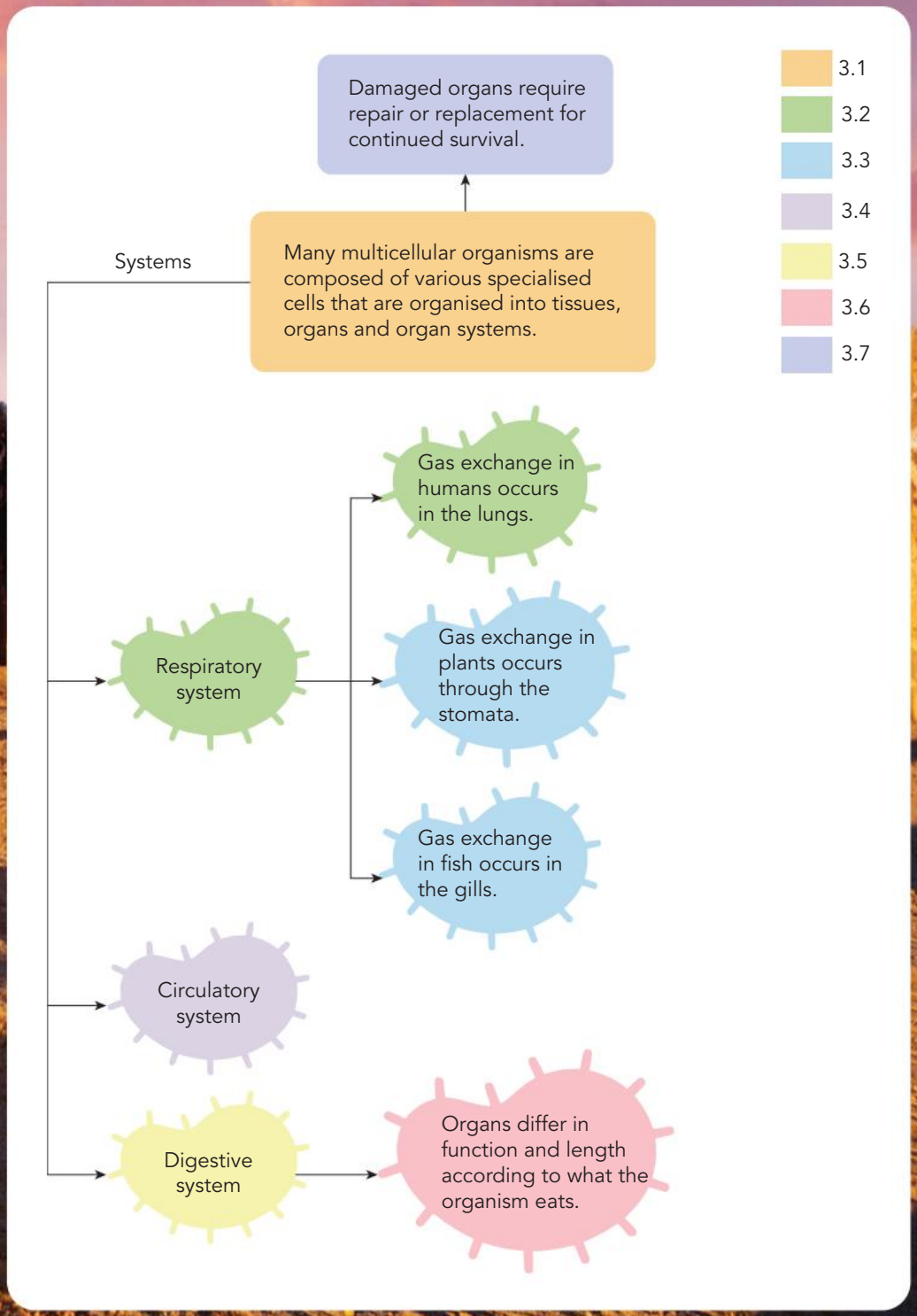
Chapter map



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3.1 Cells to systems

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to describe how the structure of specialised cells relates to function.
2 To be able to recall the level of organisation in an organism.

Specialised cells

Humans are animals, and our cells contain a nucleus, cell membrane, cytosol, mitochondria and all the other organelles discussed in Chapter 2. Even though most of our cells contain the same basic components, the different types of specialised cells within our bodies all have certain features or **structures** that allow them to perform a specific **function**. A structure is any physical part of an object, and a function is an activity that the structure helps the object to complete.

structure
a physical part of an object

function
the job that an object does

differentiation
the process by which cells become specialised

neuron
a nerve cell

biconcave
concave on both sides

All the cell types in your body begin as unspecialised stem cells. As the cells grow and develop, they **differentiate**, forming over 200 different types of cells that are you. These cells then replicate to produce more copies of each type of specific cell.

Neurons

Nerve cells or **neurons** allow all the parts of your body to work together, by transferring signals to and from your brain to each part of your body via the nervous system. Nerves are important because they allow us to interact with the world around us via our senses. Neurons are long, thin cells that connect to each other via their highly branched ends. They have long axons, which are specialised to carry electrical signals over long distances, at very fast speeds. The longest nerve cell in your body is your sciatic nerve, which stretches from the bottom of your spine to your big toe.

Red blood cells

Red blood cells transport oxygen to all the cells in your body. As discussed in Chapter 2, these blood cells have to pass along tiny blood vessels and so they are flat and have a **biconcave** shape (Figure 3.2).

When they reach maturity, red blood cells do not have a nucleus, which gives them extra room to carry oxygen around the body.

Figure 3.1 Neurons (left) and the main organ of the nervous system, the brain (right).

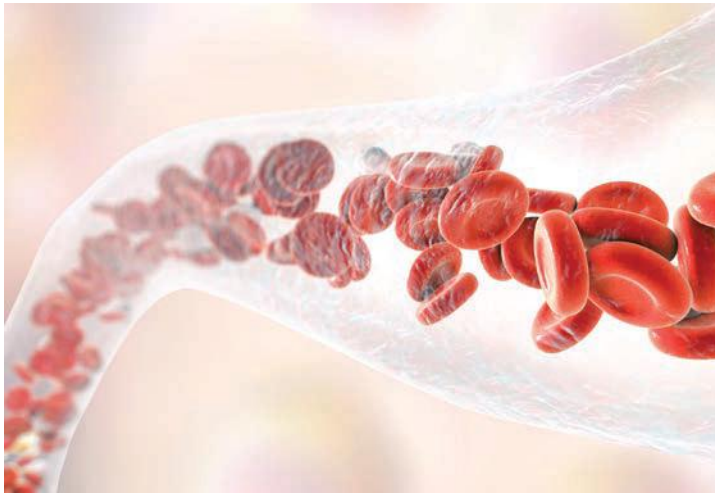

Figure 3.2 Red blood cells travelling through a blood vessel. Note their biconcave shape.

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Because they do not have a nucleus, red blood cells cannot undergo cell division, and so all red blood cells are produced in the bone marrow. Your red blood cells are replaced every 120 days.

Sperm cells

Sperm cells carry half the genetic information of a normal human body cell. Their purpose is to combine with an egg cell in a process known as fertilisation, which is the first step of reproduction. This means that the sperm cells have to be able to move. That is why they have a specialised tail, called a flagellum, which beats in a corkscrew motion and allows the sperm cell to swim. Sperm cells have many mitochondria in their midpiece, to provide energy for fast movement. Their head also contains an acrosome, a sac of digestive enzymes which digest through the membrane of the egg cell, allowing the sperm nucleus to enter.

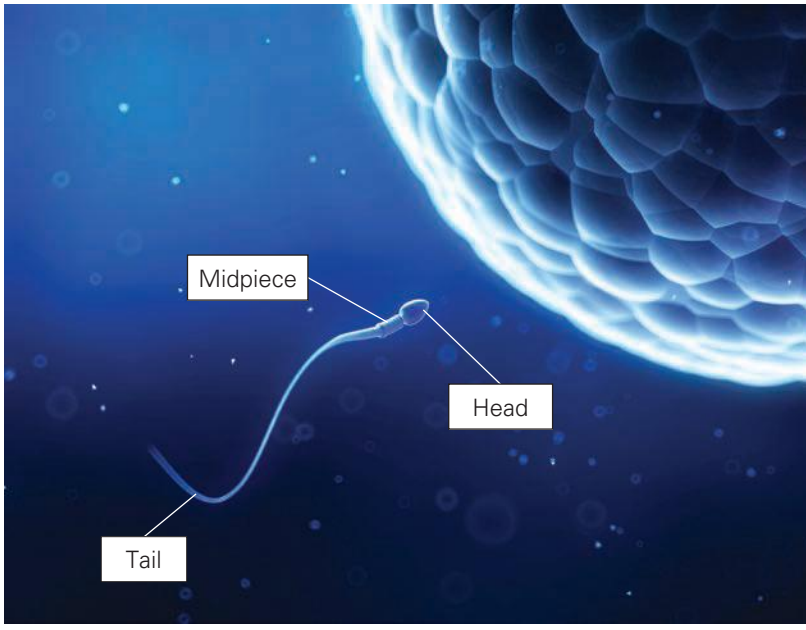

Figure 3.3 A sperm swimming towards an egg. Note its long whip-like tail, or flagellum.

Quick check 3.1

1 Recall the number of different types of cells in the human body.
2 Recall what unspecialised cells are called.
3 Identify one structural feature of each of the following cell types:
   a neuron b red blood cell c sperm.

Practical 3.1

Specialised cells

Aim

To observe specialised cells under the microscope

Materials

- compound microscope
- transparent ruler
- prepared slides of blood
- prepared slides of neurons
- prepared slides of blood vessels

Be careful

Ensure that you carry the microscope appropriately. Carry it with one hand holding the arm and one hand under the base. Be mindful when using the coarse focus knob because the objective lens can touch the glass slide and damage it.

Method

Estimating the field of view

1 Place the transparent ruler on the stage of the microscope.
2 Starting on the lowest magnification, focus on the ruler.
3 Measure the diameter of the area you can see under the microscope (field of view) using the ruler.
4 Record this measurement (in mm) in the field of view (FOV) table.

continued...

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...continued

5 Calculate the FOV diameter in micrometres (μm) by multiplying the FOV in millimetres by 1000.
6 Calculate the FOV for each of the higher magnifications by repeating steps **2–5**.

Estimating the size of the object

7 Place your first prepared slide on the stage of the microscope.
8 Focus on the object using the lowest-power lens.
9 Estimate how many of the cells will fit in a straight line across the middle of the FOV.
10 Divide the total FOV diameter that you have already calculated by the estimated number of cells that will fit across the FOV.
11 Record your estimated diameter for the object in the results table.
12 Draw a scientific drawing of the cell you are observing.
13 Repeat steps **8–12** for each slide.

Results

Copy and complete the following tables and use them to record your observations and measurements.

Magnification (ocular lens × objective lens)	FOV diameter (mm)	FOV diameter (μm) (mm × 1000)

Cell	Scientific drawing and magnification	Number of times cell would fit across the FOV	FOV diameter	Estimated diameter of object (FOV/number of times object fits across)
Blood				
Neuron				
Blood vessel				

Discussion

1 Describe how the size and shape of each of the cells you observed benefits its function.
2 Assess the accuracy of your estimated sizes.
3 Suggest a way of improving your size estimates.

Levels of organisation

Cells are organised into tissues, tissues into organs, and organs into organ systems. An example is shown in Figure 3.4.

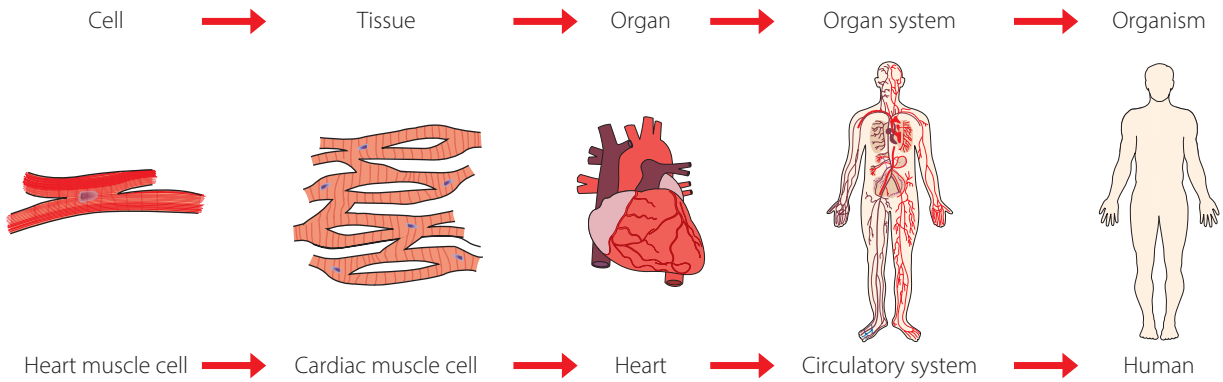

Figure 3.4 The circulatory system is an example of cells being organised into an organ system.

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Cells

A cell is the basic unit of life. Every living organism is made up of at least one cell. Unicellular organisms are made up of only one cell and this cell interacts directly with its environment. This means that the cell can absorb nutrients from the substance it is on or in, and excrete waste directly into its surroundings. Humans are multicellular, and are composed of many specialised types of individual cells that carry out specific functions. Because of this, the cells inside your body cannot gain nutrients and get rid of wastes without the help of other cells. This is where tissues, organs and organ systems are important (Figure 3.5).

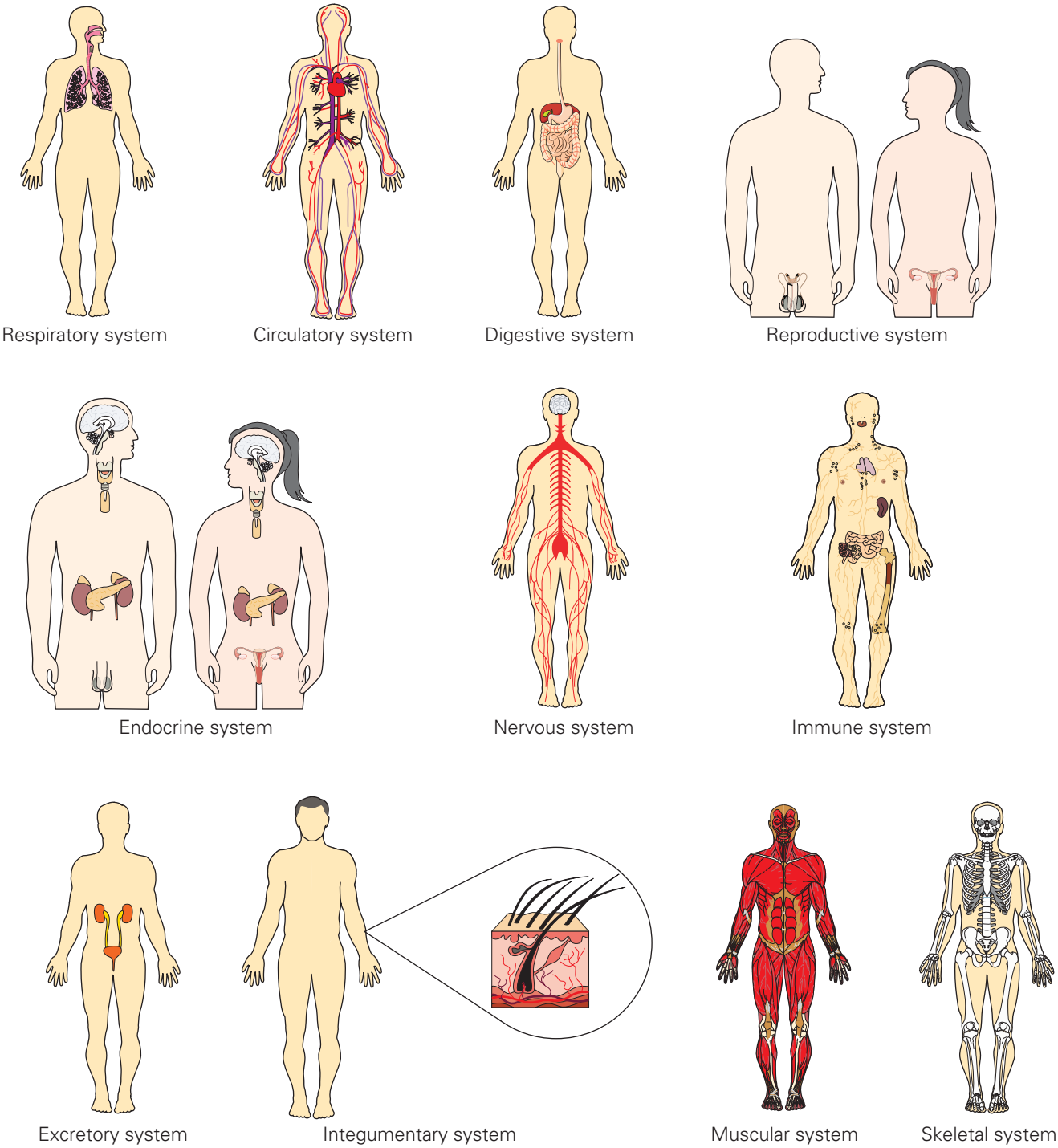

Figure 3.5 A multicellular organism, such as a human, is composed of many specialised cells, which are organised into tissues, organs and organ systems. You will learn about the respiratory, circulatory, digestive and reproductive systems in Year 8, and the endocrine and nervous systems in Year 9. You will learn about the remaining systems if you study Human Biology in Years 11 and 12.

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Tissues

When a group of cells of the same type work together in a body, we call them a **tissue**.

tissue
a group of cells performing the same function

One of the most obvious tissues in animals is muscle tissue. These groups of cells contract and relax in order to generate movement by the animal. Muscle tissues require lots of energy, and so each cell has many mitochondria to carry out cellular respiration and provide that energy. Muscle cells also have a good supply of blood to deliver oxygen and glucose for cellular respiration and to remove waste products such as carbon dioxide. Other types of tissue include lung tissue, liver tissue, and connective tissues such as tendons and ligaments. Even blood is considered a tissue.

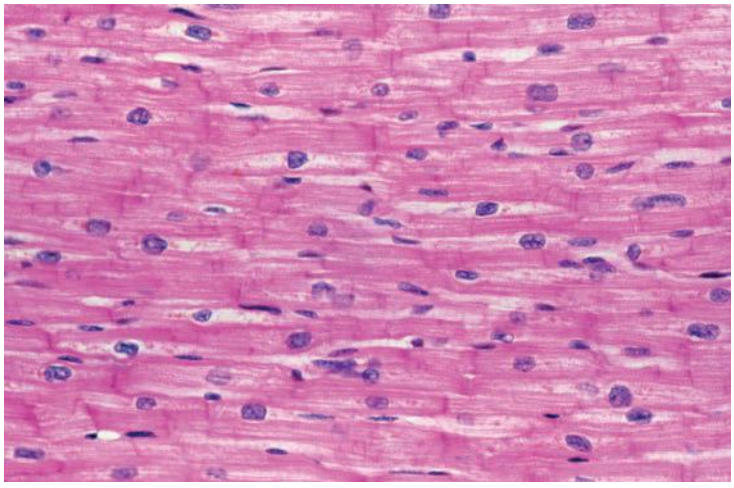

Figure 3.6 A high-magnification photograph of human cardiac (heart) muscle, seen through a light microscope. Each of the long, thin muscle cells has a purple nucleus. Note that a stain has been added to the tissue to make it more visible.

Organs

A group of different tissues working together to perform a specific function is called an **organ**. The brain is one of the most important organs in the body and is made up of different nerve tissues that make up the grey and white matter. There are also many blood vessels that flow through the brain.

organ
a group of tissues working together to perform a function

Did you know? 3.1

The largest organ in the human body is our skin. On average, skin weighs around 2.7 kg and, if stretched out, would cover more than 1.5 m^2. If you look closely at a small area of skin – say, the top of your hand – you will see tiny holes, called pores. What you can't see is that there are more than 6 metres of blood vessels, thousands of nerve endings and hundreds of tiny glands secreting oil onto your skin. The skin cells themselves are replaced every 10–30 days, which means that, on average, we each get through around 900 complete skins in a lifetime.

Science as a human endeavour 3.1

Practice makes perfect

In late 2017, a research team from the University of Minnesota in the United States used 3D printers to produce lifelike artificial organs for training surgeons to practise on. While the use of models and computer simulations in surgical training is not new, these fake organs are much more realistic, as they perfectly mimic the anatomical structure, look and feel of a patient's organ. It is even possible to embed soft sensors in them, to give the surgeons feedback about their technique, with the aim of minimising surgical errors and improving patient outcomes.

Figure 3.7 The human brain is a complex organ composed of neurons, blood vessels and other cells.

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Organ systems

A group of different organs working together is called an organ system (or body system). The structures of the system each perform distinct processes or functions. Your digestive system (Figure 3.8) is one of the most diverse organ systems in your body, with about 12 main organs, such as the mouth, stomach, liver, pancreas and intestines, along with many other smaller organs and glands that help to break down food and absorb nutrients into your bloodstream.

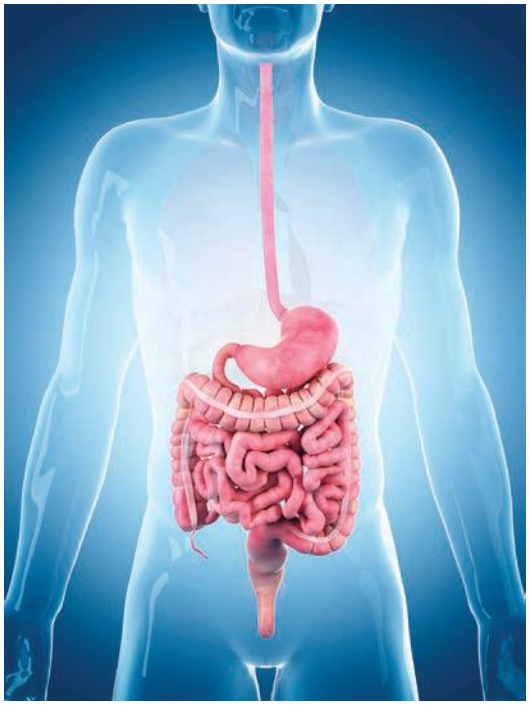

Figure 3.8 The human digestive system is essentially a long tube from the mouth to the anus. Many accessory glands assist in the digestive process.

Try this 3.1

How many human organ systems can you name? Brainstorm with a partner and make a list. A helpful starting point might be to think of organs in the body and then classify them according to what organ system they belong to.

Organisms

organism
a living creature, such as a plant or an animal, with a group of organ systems working together

A group of organ systems working together supports a living being, called an **organism**. Each day, we eat food, breathe air and excrete waste products from our bodies. The many organ systems in our bodies work together in integrated ways to detect and respond to changes and complete the processes required to keep us alive.

VIDEO
Seeing a developing organism

Figure 3.9 A couple show an ultrasound image of their unborn baby. It is amazing to think that inside this tiny organism (within another organism!), all the body's essential organ systems are developing.

Quick check 3.2

1. Sequence the following structures into the correct level of organisation, from largest to smallest: cell, organ system, organism, organ, tissue.
2. Propose why unicellular organisms don't have organs.
3. Name five components of the human digestive system.

Explore! 3.1

Plants are complex

Plants are eukaryotic organisms, just as we are. This means their cells have complex membrane-bound organelles, such as the nucleus. We tend to think that because plants are usually sessile (stationary), they are less complicated than animals, but plants also have specialised cells that are organised into tissues, organs and organ systems.

Research one plant of your choice and list one example of each of the levels of organisation: cell, tissue, organ, organ system, organism.

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Try this 3.2

Levels of organisation study mate

Step 1 Hold a piece of A4 paper in 'portrait' (upright) orientation.

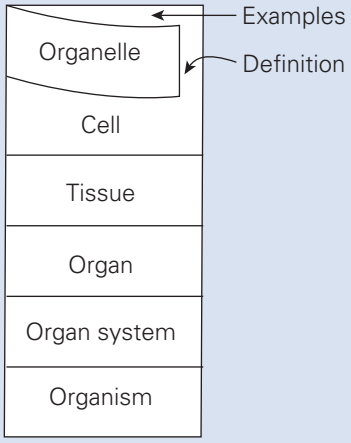
Step 2 Fold it in half vertically – from left to right. You have formed a brochure with four sides or pages.

Step 3 Cut the front page only into six horizontal sections, and label the front of these six flaps from the top down 'organelle', 'cell', 'tissue', 'organ', 'organ system' and 'organism'.

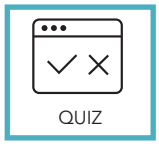
Step 4 On the back of each flap, add the definition of each of the six levels of organisation.

Step 5 On the third page of the brochure, add some examples of each of the six levels of organisation.

When you look at the front of the brochure, you should see the names of the levels of organisation. As you open each flap, you should see the definition and examples.



Section 3.1 questions



Remembering

1 **State** the function of red blood cells.
2 **State** one structure of a nerve cell that allows it to complete its function.
3 **Define** 'tissue'.

Understanding

4 **Identify** whether the following statements are true or false.
   a An organ is composed of different types of tissue.
   b A tissue is composed of only one type of cell.
   c If you look at a tissue under the microscope, you will see many different organs.

Applying

5 **Explain** how a sperm cell's tail relates to its function.
6 **Explain** why multicellular organisms need multiple specialised cell types working together to function properly.
7 **Illustrate** some simple diagrams that model the difference between a cell, a tissue, an organ and an organ system.

Analysing

8 **Contrast** a sperm cell and a red blood cell.
9 **Categorise** the following terms as cells, tissues, organs, organ systems or organisms: liver, neuron, sperm, dog, digestive, human, eucalyptus, brain, muscle, blood.

Evaluating

10 A new organism is discovered, and a study of its internal anatomy reveals that nutrients enter through a hole and are transported through a long tube into a storage area, before being excreted through a sphincter (a muscle that surrounds an opening in the body and can tighten to close it). **Justify** whether this is evidence of a tissue, an organ or an organ system.

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3.2 The human respiratory system

Learning goals

1 To be able to describe the process of cellular respiration.
2 To be able to label parts of the respiratory system.

WORKSHEET

Breathing vs respiration

You can probably hold your breath for about a minute, maybe two, but after that your body forces you to take a huge gulp of air. This is because the cells in our bodies need a constant supply of fresh oxygen to produce energy and function efficiently, as well as remove carbon dioxide, which can be harmful to the body in high concentrations. **Cellular respiration** is the process that happens inside the mitochondria in our cells, which turns glucose and oxygen into stored chemical energy in a molecule called adenosine triphosphate (ATP). The process also produces the waste products of carbon dioxide and water. If you stop breathing, you are preventing oxygen entering your body and therefore depriving your cells of oxygen, meaning ATP cannot be made.

cellular respiration
a process that occurs inside the mitochondria, where oxygen and glucose react to form carbon dioxide and water, producing useable energy

Figure 3.10 When you breathe out on a cold day, you can see your warm breath start to condense in the cold air.

Key idea
To summarise: breathing is a physical process, respiration is a chemical process.

Did you know? 3.2

Freedivers

While you or I might be able to hold our breath under water for about 30 seconds, people who practise freediving can hold their breath for more than 20 minutes! Freedivers do not use equipment such as scuba gear. Instead, they have developed techniques such as hyperventilation, which allows them to reduce the concentration of carbon dioxide in their blood. Special breathing exercises aim to increase their lung capacity, and their bodies are adapted to dealing with prolonged periods of low oxygen. In 2018, Croatian freediver Budimir Šobat held his breath under water for 24 minutes and 11 seconds, breaking the Guinness World Record by 8 seconds.

Figure 3.11 Freediving in the ocean

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The respiratory system

The main function of the organs in the respiratory system is to get oxygen into your body cells and release the waste product carbon dioxide into the air. The respiratory system works very closely with the circulatory system, which transports the oxygen you breathe in and removes the carbon dioxide you breathe out.

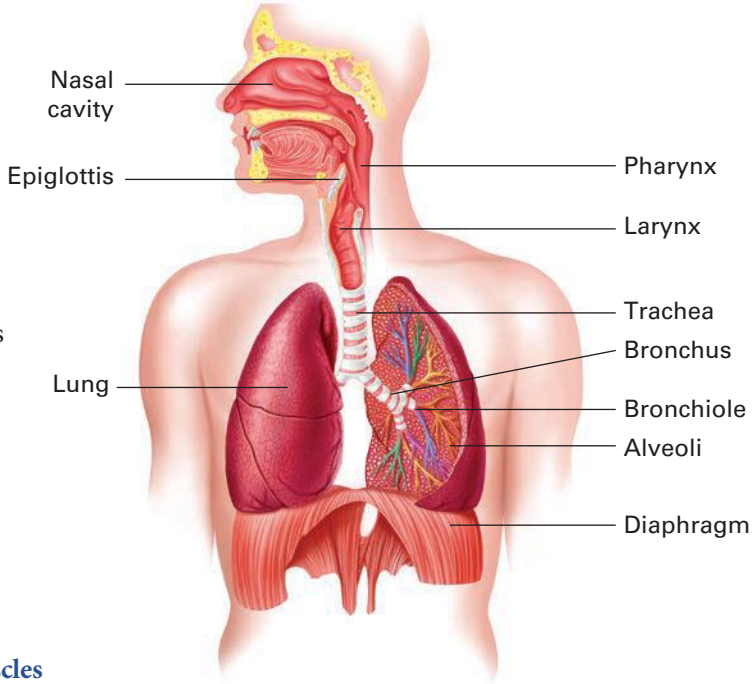

Figure 3.12 Structure of the human respiratory system

Big breath in!

When you breathe in (inhale), a large muscle at the base of your ribs, called the **diaphragm**, contracts and moves down, drawing air in through your mouth. At the same time, the **intercostal muscles** between your ribs contract, moving the ribs upwards and outwards. This increases the volume in your chest, drawing air in through your mouth and nose, decreasing the pressure in your lungs compared with the outside. As you breathe out (exhale), the diaphragm relaxes and moves back up, and air is passively released through your nose and mouth because the pressure has increased in the lungs (Figure 3.13).

diaphragm
a dome-shaped muscle that separates the chest and abdominal cavities; it contracts to cause us to inhale

intercostal muscles
many different muscle groups that run between the ribs, and help form and move the chest wall

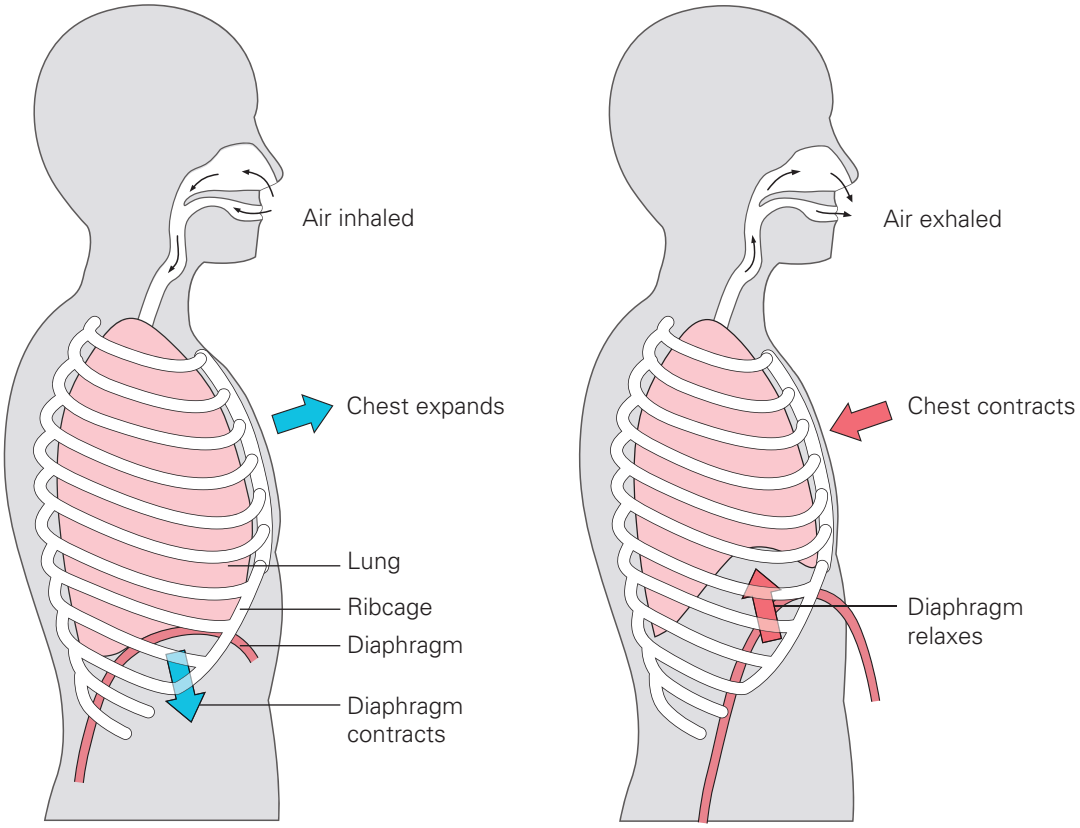

Figure 3.13 The movements of the chest during inhalation and exhalation

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Try this 3.3

Diaphragmatic breathing

Diaphragmatic breathing involves paying close attention as you breathe, in a slow and controlled way. It is commonly used during mindfulness activities and meditation. Let's have a try!

Step 1 Find a comfortable position where you are standing up straight against a wall, or seated in a chair with your feet flat on the floor. Close your eyes.

Step 2 Relax your shoulders. Place your hands over your stomach, around the level of the base of your ribs.

Step 3 Close your mouth and begin to breathe in and out slowly through your nose. Notice how, when you breathe in, your stomach seems to swell under your hands and your rib cage expands upwards and outwards. As you breathe out, you can feel the diaphragm relax and your ribs sink back in.

Step 4 Practise breathing in and out through your nose, in a slow and controlled way. Pay attention to the noise of your breath, and try to notice the sensation as the air enters and exits your nose. If you are aware of any tension you are holding in your body, for example in your shoulders, try to relax and breathe out the tension with each exhalation.

Practising diaphragmatic breathing is a great way to refocus and allow yourself to be present in the moment. It can slow your heart rate, boost oxygen levels and even reduce blood pressure.

Mouth and nose

The two main openings to your respiratory system are your mouth and your nose. It is best to breathe through your nose, as the function of your nose is to warm up and moisten the air coming into your body, filter out any particles via the hairs in your nasal cavity and stimulate your sense of smell. If you close your mouth and exhale, the air will be directed out through your nose. This is because the nose and the mouth are connected in a region called the **pharynx**, which leads to the **trachea** or windpipe.

Trachea and bronchi

The trachea is a wide tube with thick protective rings of cartilage that keep it open. You can feel the rings if you feel your throat. Warm, moist air from the nose and mouth enters the lungs by travelling down the trachea. The structure of your lungs is very similar to a tree. The trunk of the tree is the trachea, and this large tube splits into two smaller tubes called **bronchi**,

pharynx
the throat region where the nasal cavity and oral cavity meet, leading into the trachea

trachea
the tube that carries air down to the lungs; also known as the windpipe

bronchi
the two branches of the airways that split off the trachea, one main left bronchus to the left lung and one main right bronchus to the right lung

Explore! 3.2

Snoring

Snoring can be an annoying habit and can prevent people from getting a good night's rest. You snore because parts of your throat relax and vibrate as you breathe once you're asleep. However, snoring can also be a symptom of medical problems. Research why snoring occurs and what can be done to stop it. Your research should answer the following questions.

1. What are some risk factors for snoring (things that increase your likelihood of snoring)?
2. Which structures in the respiratory system are involved in snoring?
3. Snoring can be a warning sign of a medical condition called sleep apnoea. Describe this condition.
4. What treatments are available to reduce snoring?

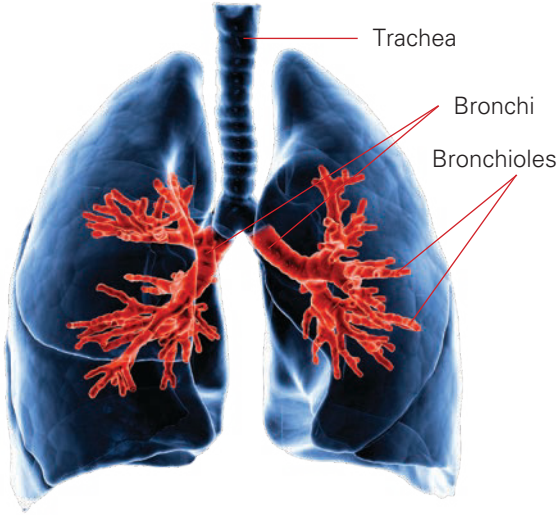

Figure 3.14 This drawing of the lungs shows the blue central trachea dividing into the left and right bronchi. The orange bronchi then branch into bronchioles.

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VIDEO
Describe what happens in an alveolus

which are similar to branches and lead into the left and right lungs. The bronchi then branch into smaller and smaller tubes called **bronchioles**, which are similar to small twigs.

Alveoli

When the air gets to the end of the smallest bronchiole, it enters small sac-like structures called **alveoli**. The alveoli are only one cell thick and are surrounded by a net of very small blood vessels, called **capillaries** (Figure 3.15). This is where gas exchange occurs: inhaled oxygen diffuses out of the alveoli and into the capillaries (into the bloodstream) for transport around the body. Carbon dioxide moves in the opposite direction, from the capillary into the alveoli. As the diaphragm and intercostal muscles relax, the carbon dioxide-rich air is exhaled out through your nose and mouth.

bronchioles
small branching tubes that branch off the two large bronchi and lead to the alveoli

alveoli
the tiny sacs at the end of bronchioles in the lungs; the site of gas exchange with the capillaries

capillaries
the smallest blood vessels, one cell thick, and the site of gas exchange with cells

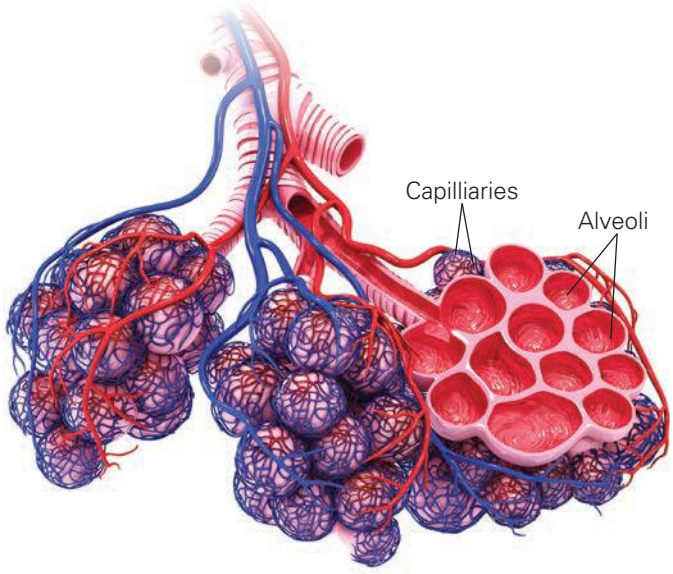

Figure 3.15 Gas exchange occurs between the alveoli and the capillaries. The oxygenated blood is returned to the heart, and the carbon dioxide-rich air is exhaled.

Practical 3.2

Modelling the pressure changes in the lungs

Aim

To model how contraction of the diaphragm creates negative pressure inside the lungs

Materials

- 500 mL or 1 L plastic bottle
- straw
- 2 rubber bands
- 2 balloons
- putty
- scissors
- sticky tape

Method

1. Tie a knot in one of the balloons and then cut off about a quarter of the other end.
2. Cut the bottle in half and only use the top half.
3. Put sticky tape around the cut edge of the bottle.
4. Stretch the cut balloon over the cut bottle opening, and secure it in place with an elastic band and sticky tape.
5. Put a straw into the second balloon and use an elastic band to hold them together.
6. Place the straw with the balloon attached through the neck of the bottle and seal the hole with putty.
7. Pull down on the bottom balloon covering to mimic the diaphragm contracting and describe what you observe.

continued...

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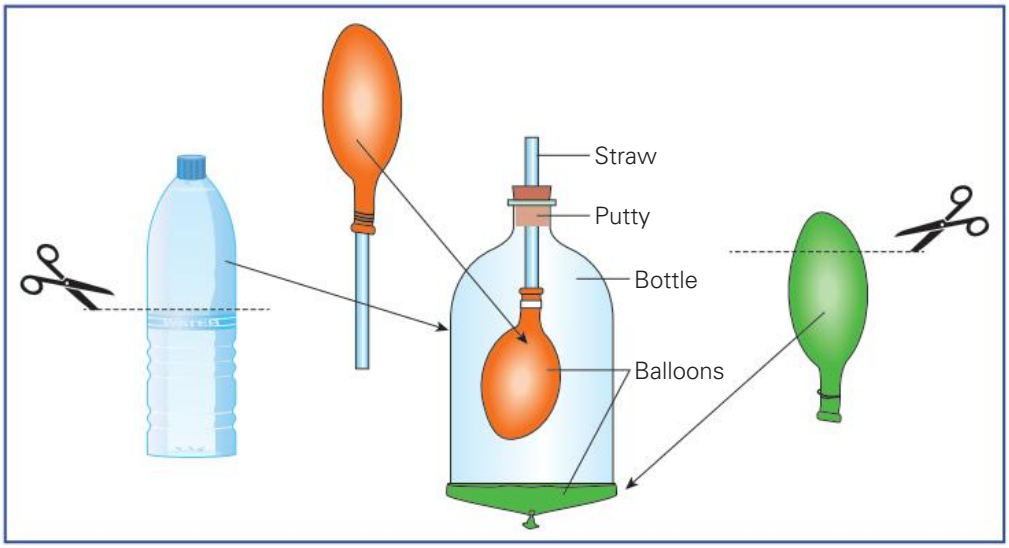

Figure 3.16 The experiment set-up. Breathing in: pressure in the lungs is lower than the atmosphere, so air flows in. Breathing out: pressure in the lungs is greater than the atmosphere, so air flows out.

Results

Draw your model of the lung in your book and label each of the parts that represent the following structures: lungs, ribs, diaphragm, trachea, mouth.

Discussion

1 What similarities can you draw between your model and the actual human respiratory system?
2 Describe the flow of air when you pull down on the balloon at the bottom of your model.
3 Explain what happens to the balloon lung when you push the balloon at the bottom of your model upwards.

Science as a human endeavour 3.2

Asthma

Asthma is a chronic lung condition that involves inflammation of the airways, tightening of the bronchioles in response to certain triggers, and hypersecretion of mucus in the airways. People who suffer from mild asthma might feel slightly tight in the chest when they exercise or breathe in cold air, but some people with severe reactions must take medications such as steroids every day to treat the inflammation.

A recent development in asthma treatment is the use of an antibody that has previously been used to treat eczema (an inflammatory skin condition that causes dry, itchy rashes). The antibody appears to block a protein that causes some of the inflammation in the airways, and results in improved lung function in the participants and less reliance on steroid medications.

Figure 3.17 An asthma sufferer uses a reliever medication (an inhaler or puffer) to reduce the inflammation and open up their airways.

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Quick check 3.3

1 Recall the main function of the respiratory system.
2 Describe what happens to air as it passes through the nose.
3 Sequence these terms in order so that they represent the direction of airflow during inhalation: alveoli, pharynx, nose/mouth, bronchus, trachea, bronchiole.
4 Explain how the diaphragm is involved in breathing in and out.

Did you know? 3.3

Your lungs float!
Each of your lungs contains around 300 million alveoli, which you can imagine as tiny balloons. When 'inflated', the lungs are the only organ in the human body that can float on water.

Gas exchange in animals

Deep in the lungs, the alveoli are the site of gas exchange in humans and other species that have lungs. But some members of the animal kingdom have developed very different specialised structures for gas exchange, such as gills in fish, skin in frogs and tracheoles in insects. All these structures have similar features to allow for efficient function. These features are:

- a very large surface area. This is usually achieved by a folded surface, which increases the amount of gas that comes into contact with the animal's blood.
- a moist surface that gases dissolve into before they enter or leave the body. This makes the process of diffusion much easier for gases.
- a thin surface and small barrier between the inside and the outside of the body. This means that the gas has to travel a smaller distance.
- a transport system near these structures, such as blood vessels, to transport the gases to all parts of the body.

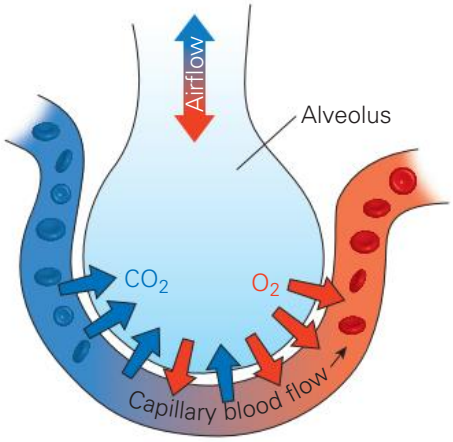

Figure 3.18 Gas exchange between the alveolus and the capillary. Note the direction of diffusion as oxygen enters the bloodstream and carbon dioxide leaves the bloodstream.

The alveoli in our lungs have all the features listed above, which makes them an extremely efficient gas exchange surface. Their surface area is so large that if you were to pop your alveoli open and spread them out flat, they would cover 18 table tennis tables. That is a lot of surface area for gas exchange, squeezed into your chest.

Quick check 3.4

1 Recall the site of gas exchange in the lungs.
2 State three other gas exchange structures found in the animal kingdom.
3 Recall the advantage of having a moist surface for gas exchange.

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Practical 3.3

The products of breathing

Aim

To demonstrate the products found in exhaled air

Materials

- air pump
- straw
- conical flask
- glass Petri dish
- bromothymol blue
- water

Method

Bromothymol solution

1 Add 50 mL of water to the conical flask.
2 Add a few drops of bromothymol blue. Copy the results table and record the colour in the 'Observations before' column.
3 Using a pump and a straw, blow air slowly through the solution for 30 seconds.
4 Record your observations in the 'Observations after' column of your results table.
5 Using your breath and the same straw, blow air slowly through the bromothymol solution for 30 seconds, being careful not to suck up any of the solution.
6 Record your results in the 'Observations after' column.

Petri dish

7 Using the pump, blow air directly over the Petri dish.
8 Record any changes in the results table.
9 Using your breath, exhale directly over the Petri dish.
10 Record any changes in the results table.

Results

Copy and complete the following table.

Air source	Bromothymol solution		Petri dish	
	Observations before	Observations after	Observations before	Observations after
Pump				
Exhaled				

Discussion

When carbon dioxide is dissolved in water, the water becomes acidic. Bromothymol blue turns from blue to green/yellow when it is exposed to acid.

1 Using the information above and the results you collected, explain your bromothymol blue before and after results.
2 Discuss your observations of the Petri dish portion of the practical, and relate your findings to the products of respiration.

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Explore! 3.3

Frog business

Life on Earth began in the oceans, and gills were the first form of respiratory organ. As animals began to move onto land, a new gas exchange surface was needed. Evidence of this gradual change from aquatic life to terrestrial (land) life is present in amphibians today. In amphibians such as frogs, newts and salamanders, there are several ways in which gas can be exchanged. Unlike mammals and birds, amphibians are cold blooded. This means that their level of respiration can be lower than that of warm-blooded animals, and so their cells need less oxygen to function properly.

1 Tadpoles spend all their time in water. Research how tadpoles get oxygen, and explain how the features of gas exchange (thin, moist surface etc.) relate to this process.
2 As tadpoles transition into adults, the process they use to gain oxygen changes. Explain how the process changes.
3 Research what 'cutaneous respiration' is and how it relates to a frog getting oxygen. Link this information to the features that gas exchange surfaces exhibit.

Figure 3.19 A frog keeping its nostrils above water to breathe

Figure 3.20 A frog with an extended buccal cavity

Try this 3.4

Modelling an animal respiratory system

Using whatever materials you can find (e.g. plastic bags, string, bucket, rubber tubing), construct a model of an animal's respiratory system.

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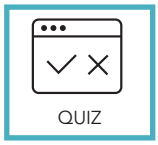
Section 3.2 questions



Remembering

1 **Name** the gas that is absorbed into the body by the respiratory system.
2 **Name** the gas that is removed from the body by the respiratory system.
3 **State** the scientific name for the 'windpipe'.

Understanding

4 **Describe** the features necessary for effective gas exchange.
5 **Explain** how the parts of the respiratory system are similar to a tree.
6 **Summarise** the functions of each of the following parts of the respiratory system. You may do so by organising the information in a table like the one below.

Structure	Function
Alveolus	
Trachea	
Nose	
Bronchiole	

7 **Summarise** the movement of the diaphragm during inhalation and exhalation.

Applying

8 **Describe** how the structure of the alveoli facilitates gas exchange.
9 A person suffers a spinal cord injury at a level that paralyses their diaphragm. **Describe** the effect this would have on their ability to breathe.
10 **Contrast** the term 'breathing' with the term 'respiration'.

Analysing

11 The graph in Figure 3.21 shows a person's respiratory rate when resting and when exercising on a treadmill.
   a **Identify** the person's respiratory rate at rest.
   b **Identify** their respiratory rate at the maximum treadmill speed.
   c **Infer** why their respiratory rate increased during exercise.

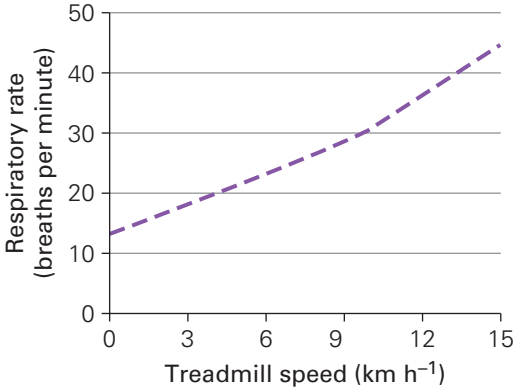


Figure 3.21 Respiratory rate vs treadmill speed

Evaluating

12 **Construct** a flow chart showing the route taken by an oxygen molecule, starting from the air in your classroom and finishing in a body cell.
13 **Decide** why it is better to breathe through your nose than through your mouth.
14 Cystic fibrosis is a disease that causes over-production of mucus in the airways and can be life-threatening if the person catches a cold or the flu, which then results in a chest infection. **Propose** a reason why a build-up of fluid in the lungs can be harmful, and why the person may experience shortness of breath.

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3.3 Other respiratory systems

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to describe how gas exchange occurs in plants.
2 To be able to describe how gas exchange occurs in fish.

Respiratory systems in plants

Gas exchange is important for all living organisms, including plants. Plants carry out cellular respiration as well as photosynthesis, and so they need organs that allow their internal structures to exchange gases with the environment. The main organ for gas exchange in plants is the leaf. It is in the leaf that plants take up carbon dioxide (one of the reactants in photosynthesis) and release oxygen (a waste product of photosynthesis).

stomata
tiny pores (holes) in leaves that allow entry/exit of gases such as oxygen and carbon dioxide

guard cells
cells on either side of a plant stoma that control gas exchange by opening and closing the stoma

Each plant has many leaves, in the same way that your lungs have many alveoli. Leaves are usually flat, which increases the surface area not just for light absorption but also for gas exchange. Each leaf has tiny pores called **stomata** (singular: stoma) (Figure 3.23). The stomata are mainly on the underside of the leaf, and they control the entry and exit of gases from the plant. **Guard cells** in the stomata enable them to open and close.

The guard cells of stomata contain large vacuoles that, when filled with water, become swollen (turgid) and hold the stomata pores open. The vacuoles fill with water when plants are in strong sunlight or high carbon dioxide concentration. However, when the plant begins to dry out in periods without rain, or in high temperatures or low humidity, the vacuoles inside the guard cells empty and the cells become floppy or flaccid. This closes the stomata pores and reduces the amount of water vapour lost through the leaf. The stomata also close at night, when the light levels are low. Plants need to allow gases to move in and out, but they also need to minimise the loss of water vapour through the stomata. It is a balancing act, and plants do an amazing job (especially those that live in the desert).

Figure 3.22 Leaves are like lungs for a plant.

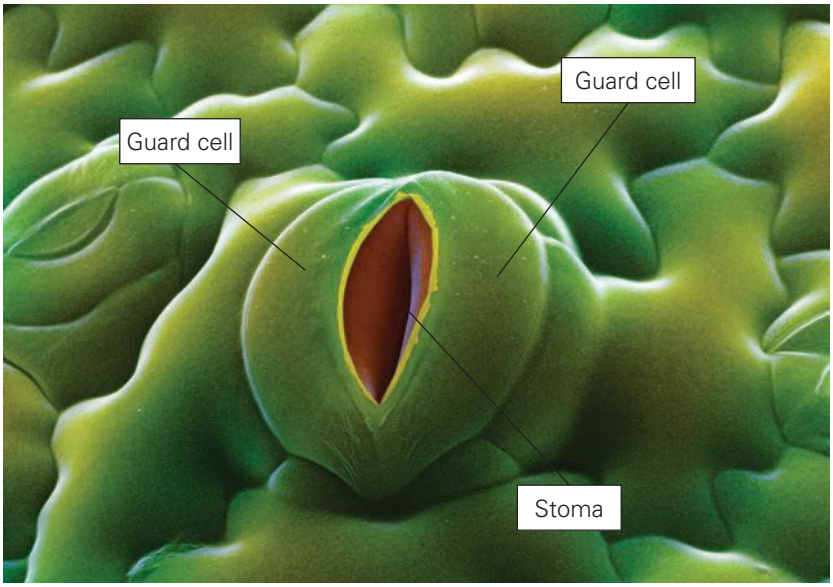

Figure 3.23 Swollen guard cells have forced open this stoma, allowing gases to enter and exit the leaf.

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Practical 3.4

Stomata lab

Aim

To observe plant stomata using a compound microscope, and estimate their size

Materials

- leaves
- compound microscope
- transparent ruler
- sticky tape
- glass slide
- transparent nail polish

Be careful

Ensure that you carry the microscope appropriately. Carry it with one hand holding the arm and one hand under the base. Be mindful when using the coarse focus knob because the objective lens can touch the glass slide and damage it.

Method

Calculating FOV and estimating the size of the object

Refer to Practical 3.1 for the methods of calculating the size of the field of view and estimating the size of the object.

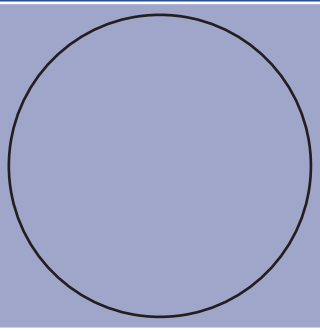
Creating a stomata slide

1. Either pick three leaves from your school grounds or choose from leaves provided by your teacher.
2. Identify the top and bottom of a leaf.
3. Paint a thin layer of nail polish on a small section of the bottom side of the leaf.
4. Allow the polish to dry completely.
5. Place the sticky tape over the dry polish and pull it off.
6. Place the sticky tape with the polish impression onto a microscope slide, and use the compound microscope to focus on the stomata impression.
7. Focus on the highest possible magnification and sketch an image of the stomata. Use the FOV calculations to estimate the diameter of the stomata. Record your results in the results table.
8. Repeat steps **2**–**7** for each leaf.

Results

Copy and complete the following table.

Magnification (ocular lens × objective lens)	FOV diameter (mm)	FOV diameter (μm) (mm × 1000)

Plant	Sketch, magnification and diameter estimate
	

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Discussion

1 State the estimated size of a stoma.
2 Explain why different plants are likely to have a different number of stomata.
3 Suggest a reason why some stomata are open while others are closed.

Try this 3.5

Modelling stomata with a balloon

1 Blow up a twist balloon and fold it in half. Do not tie a knot in the end.
2 Keeping the balloon folded, allow some air to escape slowly from the balloon.
3 Notice how the two sides of the balloon begin to come together.

This is similar to what happens in the stomata as they lose water. By closing the stomata, the plant is able to limit water evaporation and save water.

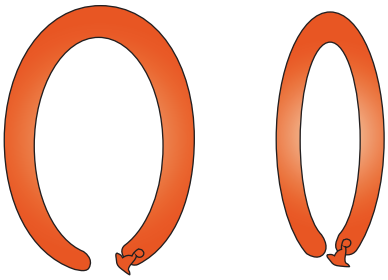

Figure 3.24 Using a balloon to model stomata

Science as a human endeavour 3.3

Thirsty plants

At present, agriculture consumes 90% of the world's fresh water to irrigate (water) crops. Scientists have found a way to genetically alter crops so that they are only able to partially open their stomata. This means the plants lose less water vapour when they open their stomata to gain the carbon dioxide they need to carry out photosynthesis. In a study conducted on tobacco plants, the modification improved crop water use by 25% but did not affect the yield of the crops – that is, the same amount of tobacco was produced. Tobacco plants are easier to genetically modify, but now the research team hope to apply their discoveries to food crops.

Although the stomata on leaves do a great job of providing gases for the leaves, other parts of the plant need to respire, using oxygen. The thick woody parts of trees, such as the branches, stems and trunks, have structures called **lenticels**. You can often see these in the bark – they look like small dots or stripes. Lenticels allow the thick woody parts of the plant to exchange gases with the air.

lenticels
small slits on trunks or branches of trees that allow gas exchange

Figure 3.25 The small horizontal slits in this tree trunk are lenticels.

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Quick check 3.5

1 Name the structures in leaves that allow gas exchange.
2 Recall three environmental factors that could cause stomata to close.
3 Explain the process involved in closing the stomata.
4 Identify how trees conduct gas exchange through their trunks.

Respiratory systems in fish

Lungs cannot function under water, and gills do not function on land. However, both these structures take in oxygen from the surroundings and excrete carbon dioxide as a waste product from the body.

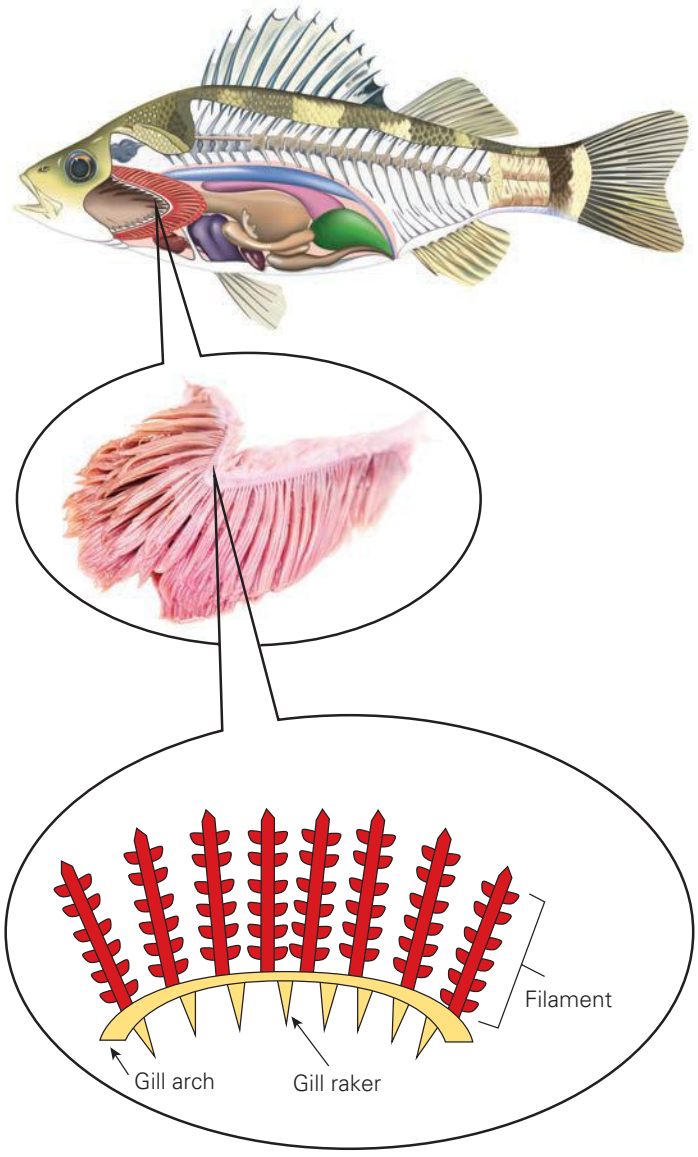
It might seem strange to think of water containing gases such as oxygen and carbon dioxide, but it does. These gases are dissolved in the water, just like sugar can dissolve in water.

Most fish respire through their gills, which are on either side of their head, near the mouth. Fish open their mouths, gulp in water and then open their gill flaps to let the water out. This flow of water across the gills provides a constant supply of oxygen. The sections of gills look very similar to feathers and are called **filaments** (Figure 3.27). Filaments are like the alveoli in your lungs. They provide a large surface area to maximise the amount of gas that can be exchanged between the fish and the water around it. Each filament also contains individual capillaries that increase the blood's exposure to the water around the fish, and this increases the amount of oxygen that the fish can absorb.

filaments
red, fleshy part of gills with thousands of fine branches that take oxygen from water into the blood

Figure 3.26 The highly folded inside of fish gills maximises the surface area available for gas exchange.

Figure 3.27 The complex structure of fish gills



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Explore! 3.4

Counter-current flow

Fish also have another way of increasing the level of diffusion in their gills, known as *counter-current flow*. This process maximises the exchange of gases, because a guiding rule for diffusion is: the bigger the difference between the concentration of a gas in two areas, the faster diffusion occurs.

1 Research what counter-current flow is and explain how it works.
2 Draw a picture to demonstrate counter-current flow in a fish gill.

Did you know? 3.4

Axolotls

You may think axolotls have a super stylish headdress, but it actually has a very important job. It is their gills!

Unlike other salamander species, axolotls are neotenic, meaning they keep their juvenile characteristics when they become adults. Axolotls remain aquatic for their entire life, even though they develop fully functional lungs. Instead, they use their feathery gills to breathe underwater.

Figure 3.28 The gills of an axolotl stick out from the side of its head to maximise gas exchange with the surrounding water.

Quick check 3.6

1 State the gases that fish need to exchange with their environment.
2 Summarise the features of gills that allow efficient gas exchange.
3 Recall three ways in which gills speed up the diffusion of gases into and out of a fish.

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Practical 3.5

Fish dissection

Aim

To observe a fish dissection and view gills under a microscope

Materials

- dissection microscope
- Petri dish
- ½ fish per class
- dissecting scissors
- probe
- small knife
- disposable gloves

Be careful

Ensure that you carry the microscope appropriately. Carry it with one hand holding the arm and one hand under the base. Be mindful when using the coarse focus knob because the objective lens can touch the glass slide and damage it.

Method

Retrieving the gills

1 Your teacher will make incisions with dissecting scissors, as shown in Figure 3.29.

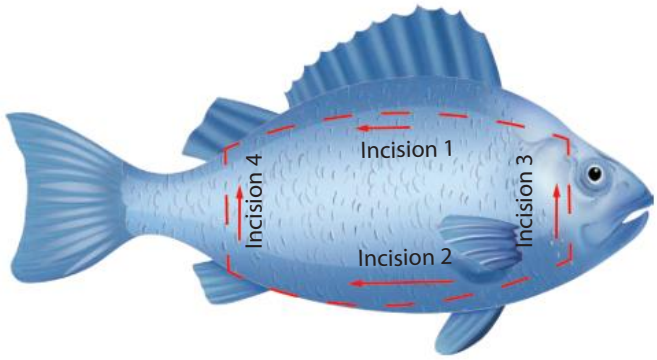

Figure 3.29 The external incisions

This will expose the internal anatomy of the fish.

2 Your teacher will identify the structures shown in Figure 3.30.

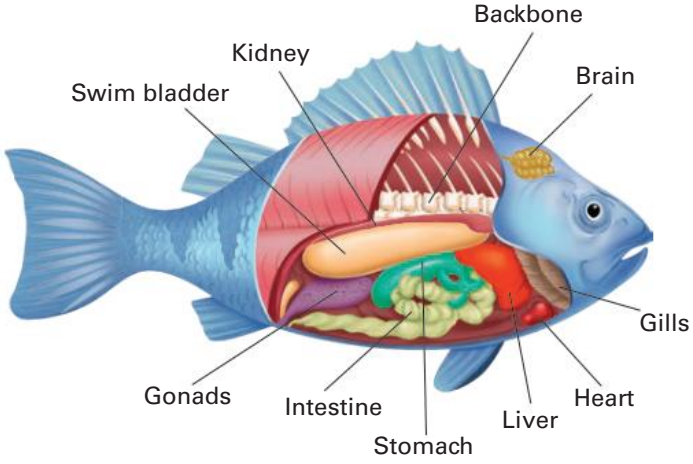

Figure 3.30 The internal organs of the fish

continued...

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...continued

Organ	Feature
Heart	The heart of a slow-moving fish is small; the heart of a fast-moving fish is large.
Liver	A large organ located near the heart. Produces many digestive liquids and stores some vitamins and nutrients.
Gonads	Sex organs, male or female. Some species have both types of gonads in one fish.
Kidneys	Two kidneys, located near the spine, regulate water levels in the body.
Gills	The aquatic version of lungs. Each gill arch holds many hundreds of filaments, which are feather-like structures with a large surface area.

Table 3.1 Structural features of each organ

3 Your teacher will cut open the gill arch to expose the gills. You will be able to see that the gills are stacked on top of each other.
4 Your teacher will cut the gill arches and pass one to each group.

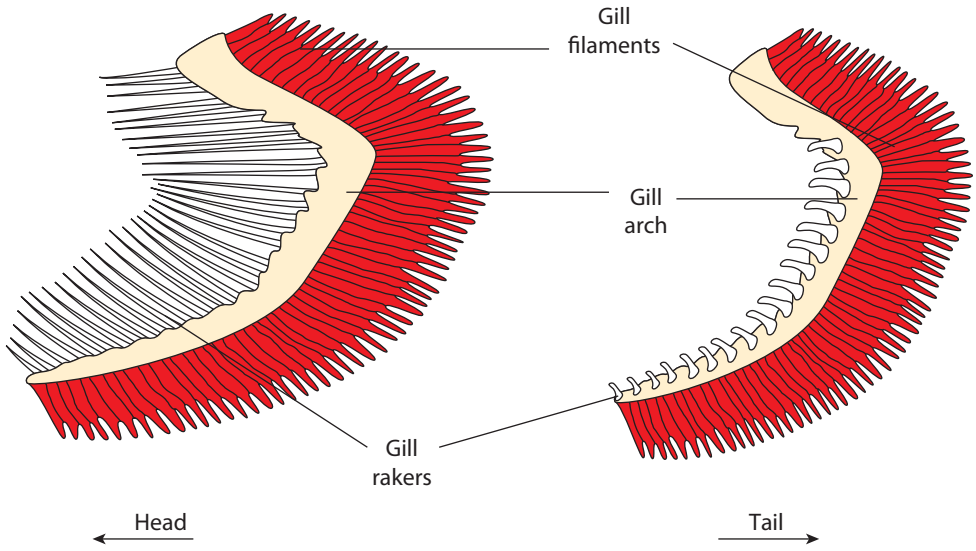

Figure 3.31 Observe the structures: *gill filaments* are the site of gas exchange; *gill rakers* are appendages along the front edge of the gill arch; *gill arches* support the gills.

Observing the gills

5 Place your gill arch in a Petri dish. Observe the structure of the gill filaments – each filament has many plates, called *lamellae*.
6 Add a small amount of water to the Petri dish and observe how the gill filaments and lamellae separate when they are in water.
7 Use a dissecting microscope to focus on the structure and draw a sketch.
8 Notice that there is a yellow/red sticky substance on the gills. This is a protective mucus similar to the mucus in your lungs.

Discussion

1 Name the organ involved in water regulation in fish.
2 Explain what you observed when you added water to the gill arch.
3 Using your observations, suggest why fish cannot 'breathe' out of water.

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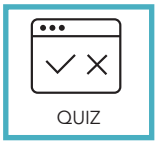
Science as a human endeavour 3.4

Super crab!

The green shore crab is an invasive species to Australia. It has surprised researchers because it uses its gills not only for obtaining oxygen but also for getting nutrients. Because crabs have a hard shell, it was assumed that they obtained their nutrition by eating food and digesting it. However, crabs have been observed to absorb amino acids (which make up proteins) through their nine sets of specialised gills. This might explain why crabs are able to thrive in tough environmental conditions.

Figure 3.32 The green shore crab

Section 3.3 questions



Remembering

1 **Define** 'gas exchange'.
2 **State** three gas exchange structures found in nature.
3 **State** the location of stomata.

Understanding

4 **Explain** how stomata open and close.
5 **Describe** the reason for lenticels on a tree.
6 **Summarise** how surface area is maximised in gills.

Applying

7 **Construct** a graph of the following data, showing the amount of dissolved oxygen (in mg L^{-1}) in fresh water and sea water at different temperatures. Use temperature as the independent variable (on the *x*-axis of the graph) and dissolved oxygen (mg L^{-1}) as the dependent variable (on the *y*-axis of the graph). Use different coloured lines for fresh water and sea water.

Water temperature (°C)	0	10	20	30	40	50
Dissolved oxygen in fresh water (mg L^{-1})	14	11	9	8	7	6
Dissolved oxygen in sea water (mg L^{-1})	12	9	7	6	5	5

Analysing

8 **Contrast** the structure of the lungs with the structure of a tree.
9 **Contrast** the structure of human lungs with the structure of frog lungs.

Evaluating

10 Imagine a world where plants ceased to exist. **Discuss** the impact this would have on humans in terms of the gases that we each require and produce when breathing.

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3.4 The human circulatory system

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1. To be able to label the parts of the heart.
2. To be able to distinguish the role of arteries, veins and capillaries.
3. To be able to identify the components of blood.

The partner of most of the organ systems in the body is the circulatory system. This is a transport system that moves oxygen, nutrients, hormones, immune cells, waste and heat throughout the body, in one continuous loop, for your entire life. Without the circulatory system, none of the other organ systems would be able to function.

Heart

The heart is a powerful muscular pump. It has one job: to maintain pressure in your circulatory system, which moves the blood around your body. It generates high pressure, which pushes blood out of your heart into the arteries. Blood is pushed towards the heart because valves in the veins prevent back-flow, and it continues moving because of muscles around the veins applying pressure.

Once in your heart, blood is ready for recirculation. Your heart does this by contracting and relaxing about 60–90 times per minute.

Try this 3.6

Testing your heart rate

Your heart rate responds to the oxygen requirements of your body. For each of the following test conditions, follow the procedure below and record your heart rate (in beats per minute) in the table. You will need a stopwatch.

Find your pulse by gently pressing two fingers over your radial artery (on the soft side of your wrist, slightly off centre towards the thumb). Count the number of beats you feel in 15 seconds, using the stopwatch, and then multiply by 4 to find your heart rate in beats per minute (bpm).

Test your pulse under the following conditions, then copy and complete the following table.

Test condition	Heart rate (bpm)
Lying down	
Sitting	
After jogging for 3 minutes	

Figure 3.33 Feeling for the radial pulse

Graph your data as a bar chart, and answer the following questions.

1. During which test condition was your heart rate at its:
   a. highest
   b. lowest?
2. For each answer you gave to Question **1**, propose a reason why this was the case.

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Science as a human endeavour 3.5

Printed heart

In 2019, scientists in Israel announced that they had 3D-printed an entire heart, using a bio-ink gel made from cells. The thumb-sized heart was printed in just three hours and contained the atria and ventricles of a normal heart. The scientists are now working on how to make it beat and circulate blood. In the future, this development could potentially be used to 3D-print organ replacements for humans.

Figure 3.34 3D printing of a human heart

Your heart is located near the centre of your chest, and it is about the same size as when you form a fist with your hand. It is made up of four main sections: the right **atrium** and left atrium (top parts of the heart), and the right and left **ventricles** (v-shaped bottom part of the heart) (Figure 3.35).

Unlike other muscles in your body, the heart is myogenic, meaning it contracts (beats) without having to receive instructions from the brain. The heart has its own natural pacemakers, called the **sinoatrial node**, located in the wall of the right atrium, and the **atrioventricular node**, located between the atria and the ventricles. The nodes send an electrical signal throughout the heart, causing it to contract.

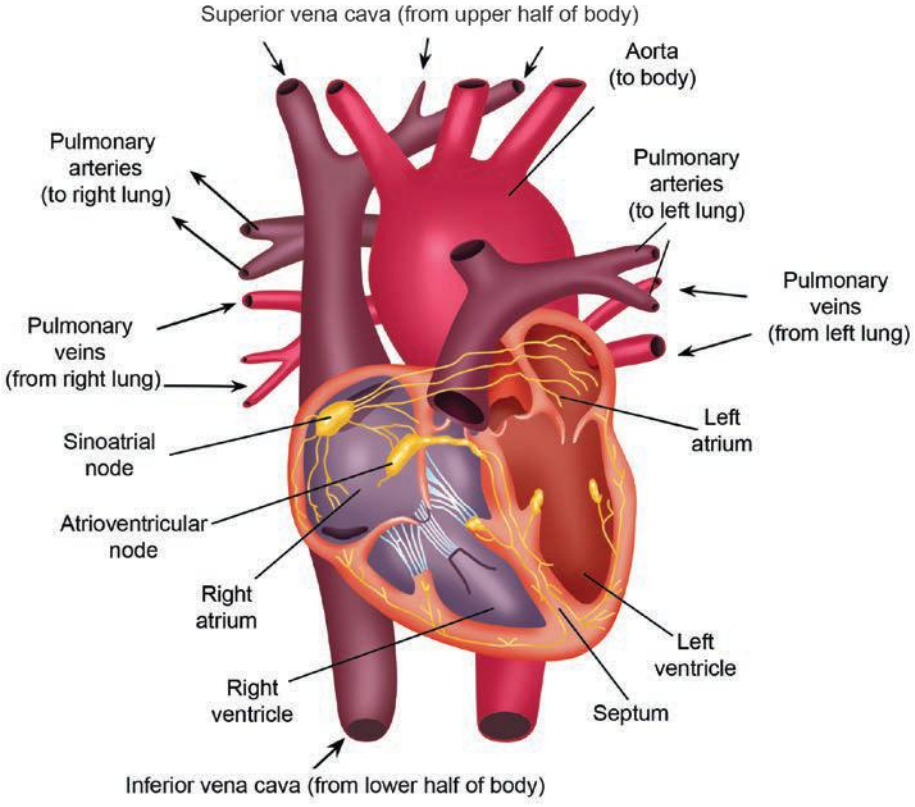
The human circulatory system is like a double pump: the left side sends blood out to the body, and the right side sends blood to the lungs. Let's follow the path of a red blood cell through the circulatory system, using Figure 3.36 on the following page.

atrium
one of the two upper chambers of the heart, the left atrium and right atrium

ventricle
one of the two lower chambers of the heart, the left and right ventricles

sinoatrial node
a natural pacemaker that controls the heartbeat and is located in the wall of the right atrium

atrioventricular node
a natural pacemaker that controls the heartbeat and is located in between the atria and the ventricles



VIDEO
Describe how the heart chambers contract

Figure 3.35 The human heart and its major vessels, chambers and valves. The heart is labelled as it sits in your chest, but it is drawn as if it were visible to someone facing you. This is why the left ventricle is located on the right-hand side of the diagram.

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vena cava
the large vessel that returns deoxygenated blood to the heart, emptying into the right atrium

aorta
the largest vessel leaving the heart, from the left ventricle, carrying oxygenated blood to the body

Blood returning to the heart from the body enters the heart though the **vena cava** and goes into the right atrium. This blood has low levels of oxygen and high levels of carbon dioxide, and so in the diagram it is coloured dark red.

The blood then passes into the right ventricle, and is prevented from travelling backwards by a valve between the atrium and the ventricle. Once in the ventricle, the blood is then pumped out of the heart and travels via the pulmonary artery to the lungs.

As the blood passes through the lungs, it releases the carbon dioxide it has stored within it and gains oxygen from the alveoli of the lungs. Notice that, in Figure 3.36, the blood coming from the lungs is now coloured bright red.

The oxygenated blood then returns from the lungs through the pulmonary veins into the left atrium. It passes into the left ventricle and is then pumped out via the **aorta** to all the different parts of the body, delivering oxygen to the cells and picking up the waste carbon dioxide.

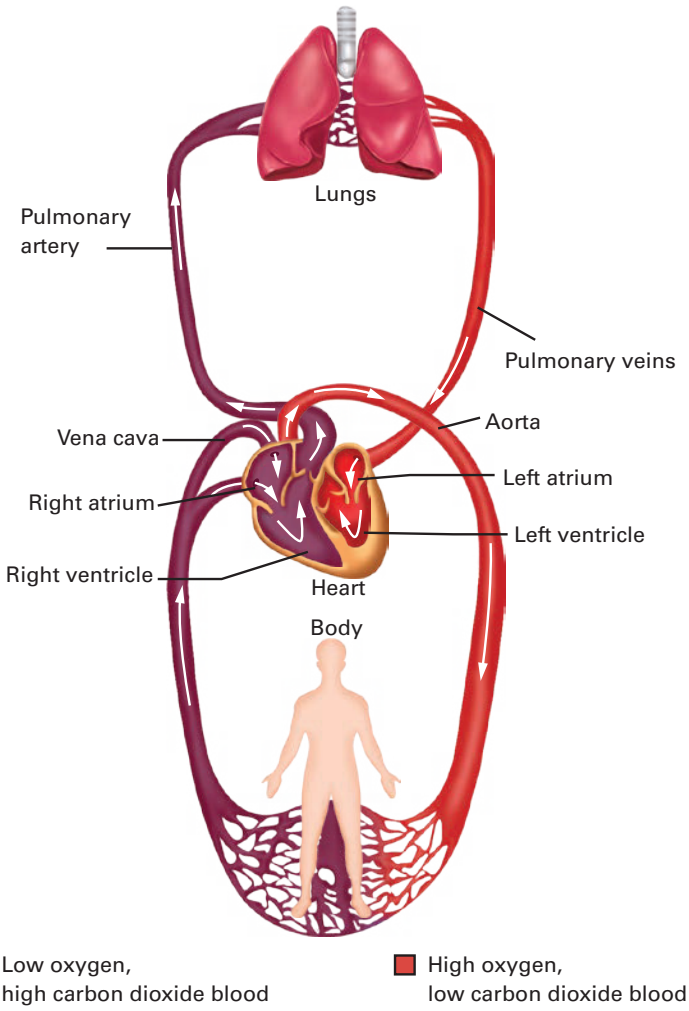

Figure 3.36 Blood flows in the following loop: right atrium ➔ right ventricle ➔ pulmonary artery ➔ lungs ➔ pulmonary vein ➔ left atrium ➔ left ventricle ➔ aorta ➔ body tissues ➔ vena cava ➔ right atrium … and the loop starts again.

Did you know? 3.5

Red or blue?

When you look at your wrist, you might be tempted to think that your veins are blue. The light passing through our skin makes our veins look blue, but this is just an illusion. Veins look blue because blue and red light have different wavelengths and penetrate your skin by different amounts. Red light travels easily through your skin and is absorbed by the red pigment (haemoglobin) in your red blood cells. However, blue light is largely scattered when it hits your skin and is reflected back to your eye as blue light.

Blue veins are particularly noticeable on very pale skin, and may have caused the expression 'blue blood' when talking about royals. In the 18th century, nobility were not tanned because they did no manual labour outside, and so their veins would have appeared very blue.

Your veins contain deoxygenated blood (lower levels of oxygen), which is actually still red, just a darker shade. Some diagrams use blue to indicate areas of the circulatory system containing deoxygenated blood, but this is just a colour choice. Your blood is always red.

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Quick check 3.7

1 Name the four chambers of the heart.
2 Name the two structures that make up the heart's natural pacemaker.
3 State whether each of the following vessels carries oxygenated or deoxygenated blood.
   a vena cava
   b pulmonary artery
   c pulmonary vein
   d aorta

Practical 3.6

Sheep heart dissection

Aim

To identify the path of blood flow through the heart and become familiar with the structures

Materials

- lamb heart, preferably with aorta and vena cava attached
- dissecting scissors
- disposable gloves
- two blue and two red pipe cleaners (or straws)
- wash bottle
- dissecting tray

Method

1 Place the heart on the dissecting tray, and identify the front (anterior) and back (posterior).
2 Before cutting into the heart, identify:
   - the vena cava – place a blue pipe cleaner into the vena cava (representing deoxygenated blood)
   - aorta – place a red pipe cleaner into the aorta (representing oxygenated blood)
   - pulmonary artery – place a blue pipe cleaner here (representing deoxygenated blood, note that this connects to the same chamber as the vena cava)
   - pulmonary vein – place a red pipe cleaner here (representing oxygenated blood, note that this connects to the same chamber as the aorta)
   - right/left side (remember, these will be opposite your left and right).

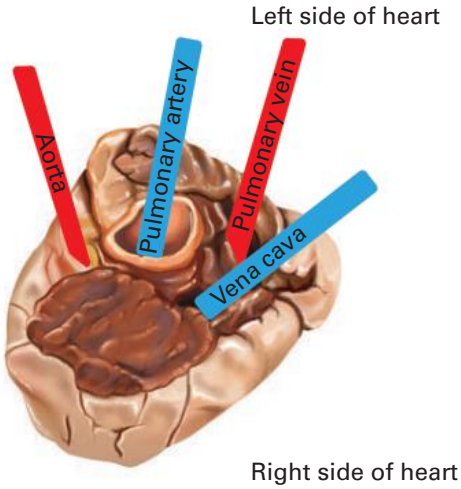

Figure 3.37 Positioning the pipe cleaners in the heart

3 Place your finger into the vena cava and then into the aorta. Notice the difference in strength and thickness of the walls of the blood vessels.

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...continued

Right atrium

4 To open the right side of the heart, place the dissecting scissors into the vena cava and cut down the wall of the heart, stopping about a quarter of the way down the heart.
5 Open the atrium chamber and locate the valve joining the right atrium to the right ventricle.
6 Using water from a wash bottle, fill the right ventricle through the valve.
7 Gently squeeze the heart and observe as the water moves up and tries to re-enter the atrium.

Right ventricle

8 Continue to cut down the line you made earlier, to expose the right atrium.
9 Locate the 'heart strings' within the ventricle.

Left side of the heart

10 Repeat steps **4–6** to expose the left side of the heart.
11 Compare the thickness of the walls of the heart on the left and right sides.

Discussion

1 Identify which chambers of the heart receive the blood and which pump the blood.
2 Describe the action of the valves in the heart.
3 Compare the wall thickness of the right and left sides of the heart. Suggest a reason why they differ.
4 Describe how the vena cava and aorta felt on your finger.

Science as a human endeavour 3.6

Mapping the heart

The electrical signals generated in your heart usually keep it beating in a way that allows the atria to fill, then the ventricles to fill, and then the blood to exit via the major vessels. But occasionally, the electrical signals become faulty. In some cases, the heart can go into a rapid, dangerous arrhythmia. In a recent study, scientists created 3D simulations of a patient's heart, to allow them to tailor medical treatment. A 3D simulation can allow cardiac surgeons to identify the exact location of the electrical problem, and destroy the tiny areas of heart muscle that are causing the problem, to prevent the heart from going into a fatal arrhythmia.

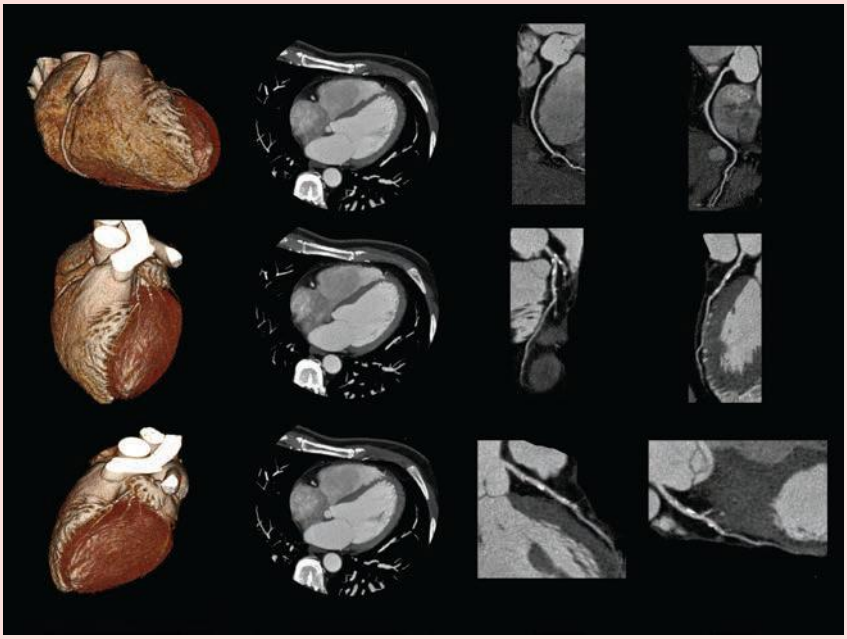

Figure 3.38 A computed tomography (CT) scan of a human heart

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Vessels of the circulatory system

There are three main types of blood vessels in the body: arteries, veins and capillaries.

Arteries

Arteries take blood away from the heart. They usually carry oxygenated blood to all the cells of the body, with one exception: the pulmonary artery, which carries deoxygenated blood to the lungs. The blood in arteries is pumped out of the heart with a lot of force and this means that the artery walls have to be thick, muscular and strong to withstand the great pressure being pushed upon them.

artery
a thick, muscular elastic vessel that carries blood away from the heart

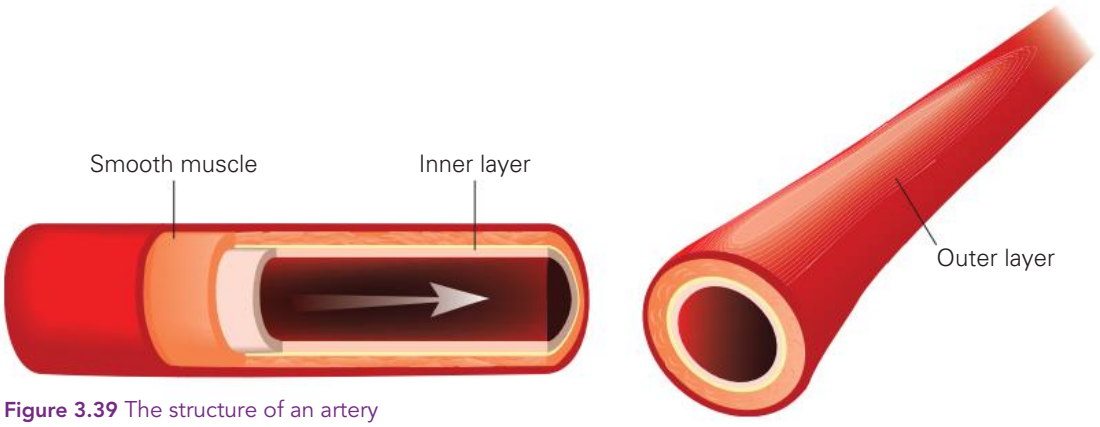

Figure 3.39 The structure of an artery

Capillaries

As the blood travels away from the heart, it enters smaller and smaller blood vessels, eventually leading to the capillaries. Just like the alveoli in the lungs, all other tissues in the body are surrounded by a network of tiny capillaries that allow nutrients and gases to be delivered to cells while removing waste. The walls of capillaries are extremely thin, only one cell thick, to allow nutrients and gases to pass into the tissues.

Figure 3.40 A capillary is only slightly wider in diameter than a red blood cell.

Veins

As the blood travels away from the body tissues and back towards the heart, it moves from the capillaries into the **veins**. At this point in the cycle, the blood is under much less pressure and so the vein walls do not need to be as thick and muscular as artery walls. However, the veins need to prevent blood from flowing backwards, and so they have special valves that prevent this from happening (Figure 3.41).

vein
a thin-walled vessel with valves that carries blood back to the heart

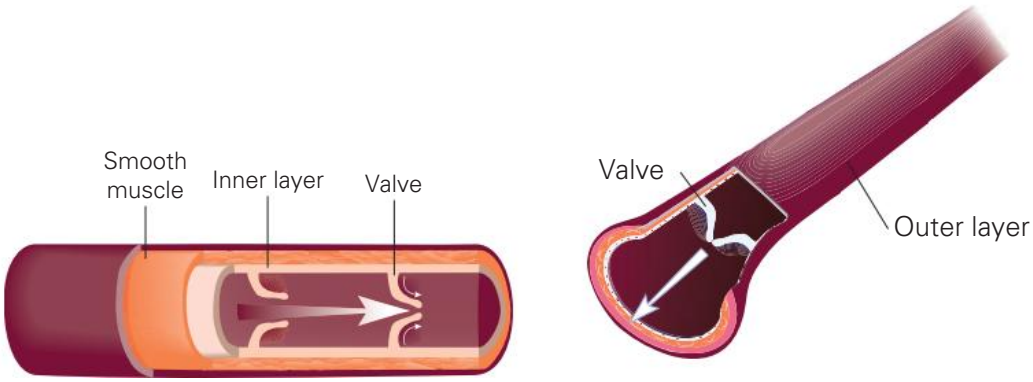

Figure 3.41 The structure of a vein

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Quick check 3.8

1 State the vessel type that matches each feature listed below.
   a thick, muscular walls
   b diameter one cell wide
   c valves to prevent backflow of blood
   d carries oxygenated blood (except for the pulmonary vessel)
2 Explain why arteries carry blood at high pressure.

Explore! 3.5

Circulatory system technologies

There are a number of surgical procedures and devices that can assist people who have malfunctioning hearts. Choose one or more of the following to research, and answer the questions below.

- coronary artery stents
- automatic external defibrillators
- implanted pacemakers
- mitral valve replacements

1 How does this device or technique work?
2 What problems of the heart does it assist with?

Did you know? 3.6

Bruises

Bruises occur when an impact breaks the capillaries under the skin. As the trapped haemoglobin in the red blood cells breaks down, it changes colour, which you can see in bruises over a couple of weeks.

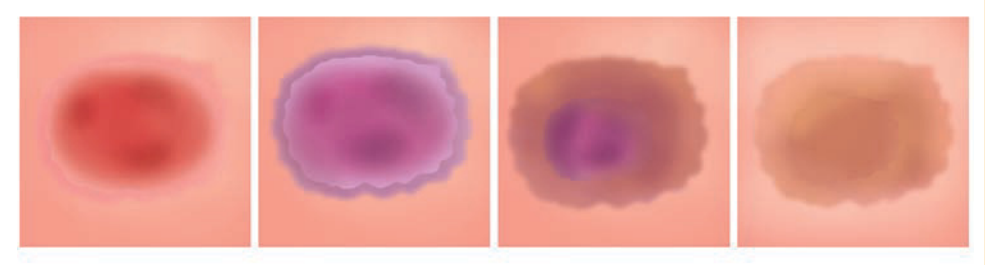

Figure 3.42 Left to right: a stage 1 bruise is red; a stage 2 bruise is purple. At stage 3 it becomes blue, and at stage 4 it becomes more yellow.

Try this 3.7

Examining vessel types

Your teacher can provide some prepared slides showing cross-sections of arteries, veins and capillaries. Observe these vessel types under the microscope, and try to identify all the features discussed in this section.

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Blood

The human circulatory system is structured around a pumping heart and connected vessels, but the third part is the tissue that is actually circulated: blood.

You have about five litres of blood circulating around your body all the time. This blood contains dissolved nutrients, gases and several types of cells.

Most of your blood is made up of a yellowish liquid called **plasma**. Plasma mainly consists of water and contains all the dissolved nutrients and hormones that are travelling to the tissues around your body.

The second-largest component of blood is the red blood cells. These cells contain a molecule called **haemoglobin**, which gives blood its red colour. Haemoglobin molecules contain iron and can bind with oxygen molecules. Red blood cells are unusual because they do not have a nucleus. This gives them more space for haemoglobin to carry oxygen molecules.

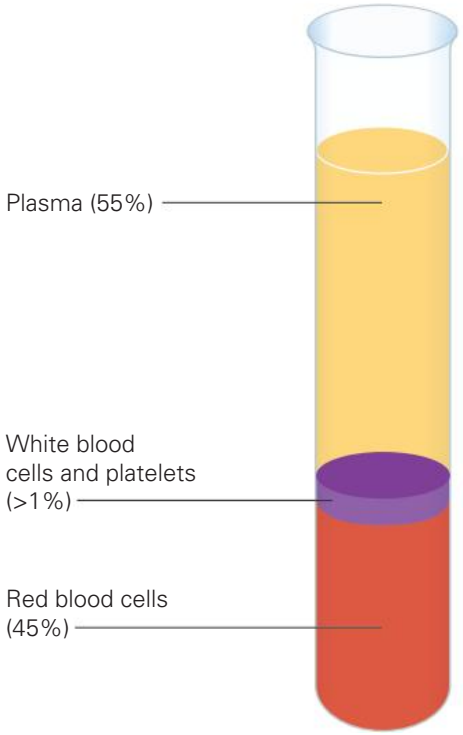

Figure 3.43 The components of blood, separated into layers by a centrifuge

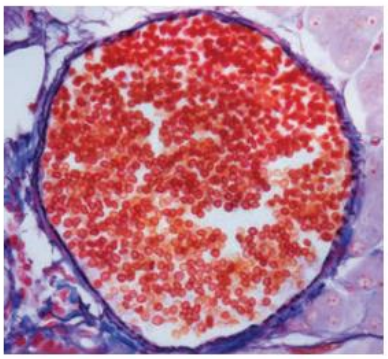

Figure 3.44 Red blood cells in a very small vein

The biconcave shape provides a greater surface area for gas exchange and also allows the cells to be extremely flexible so that they can fit through small capillaries easily.

plasma
the yellow liquid component that makes up 55% of blood; carries water, dissolved gases and hormones

haemoglobin
the red pigment in blood that binds to oxygen, allowing red blood cells to carry oxygen

White blood cells make up about 1% of the overall volume of blood. This varies depending on whether you are sick, because white blood cells are part of the immune system (also known as the lymphatic system). White blood cells are generally much bigger than red blood cells. They help the body fight infection by engulfing foreign organisms and breaking them down or by using special chemicals known as antibodies to destroy the invaders (Figure 3.45).

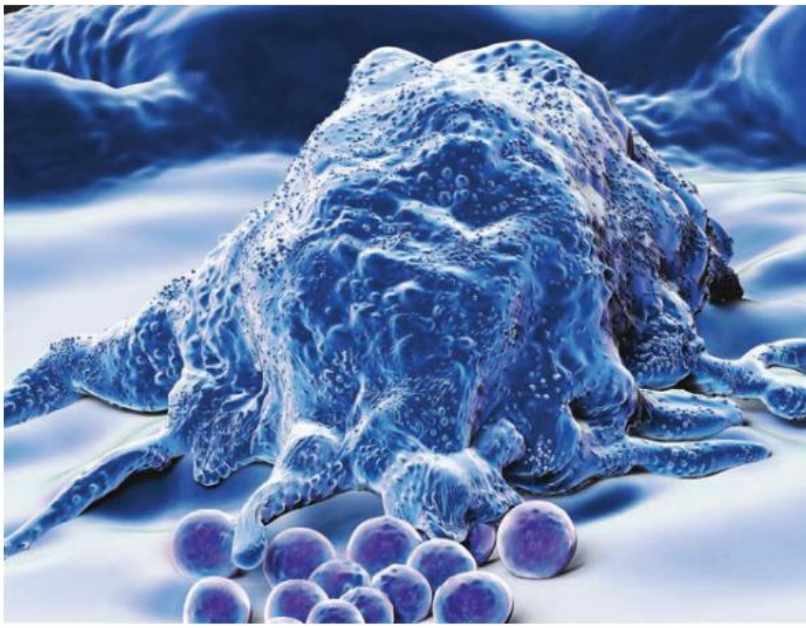

Figure 3.45 A large white blood cell (called a macrophage) engulfing and destroying bacteria

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platelets
tiny cells that assist with blood clotting

Another component of blood is the **platelets**. These tiny cells help blood to clot and scabs to form. Platelets are much smaller than red blood cells. If platelets come into contact with any punctures along the blood vessels, they become activated and change shape. This allows them to seal the puncture (Figure 3.47). If your body has too few platelets, then you won't be able to stop bleeding if you have an injury. If you have too many platelets, clots can form inside the blood vessels and stop the blood from flowing properly. These internal clots can lead to heart attacks or strokes.

Figure 3.46 Platelets help a scab to form over a wound.

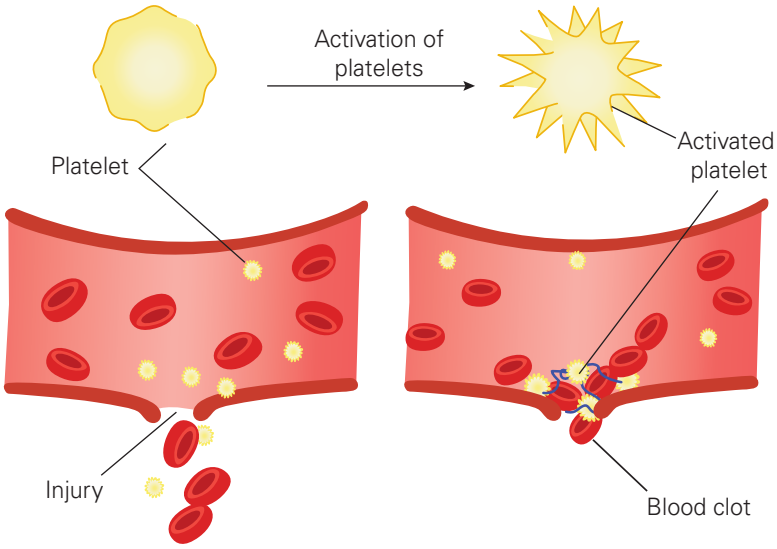

Figure 3.47 Platelets in the blood, sealing a hole in a blood vessel

Did you know? 3.7

Changing blood composition

The composition of your blood can change, depending on many environmental factors. At higher altitudes, there is less air, and so there is less available oxygen. People who live at higher altitudes have more red blood cells to cope with this. If you were to go and live on the top of a mountain, after about a week your blood would have adjusted too.

Quick check 3.9

1. Recall how much blood, on average, is in your body.
2. Name the three components of the human circulatory system.
3. Name the three components of blood and state their percentage composition.
4. Recall what is contained in the plasma.

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Section 3.4 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **State** the function of the heart.
2 To find your heart rate in beats per minute (bpm), **recall** what number you multiply by, after counting the number of beats you feel in 15 seconds.
3 **State** the components of blood.
4 **Name** the smallest type of blood vessel.

Understanding

5 **Identify** the point in your circulatory system where your blood pressure would be highest.
6 **Identify** the point in your circulatory system where your blood pressure would be lowest.
7 The image in Figure 3.48 is an electrocardiograph (ECG) readout of a person's heartbeat. The ECG machine captures the electrical signals of the heart. The section between the arrows represents one full cardiac cycle (heart beat + refilling stage). If the person's heart rate is 120 beats per minute, **calculate** how much time this full cycle takes.

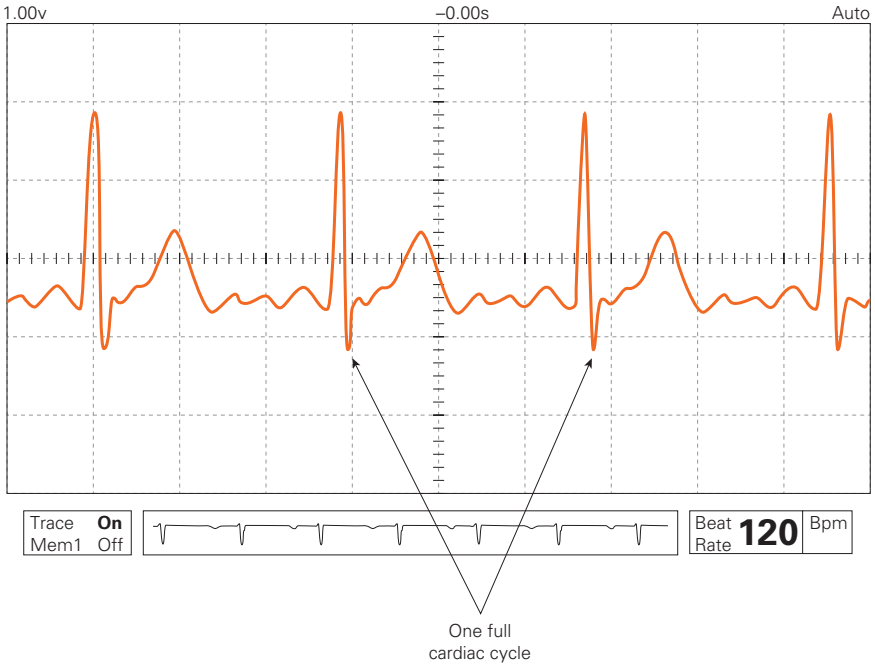

Figure 3.48 An ECG printout of a person's heartbeat

Applying

8 **Explain** how heart muscle is different from a muscle in your arm.
9 **Explain** the function of a platelet.
10 **Explain** how the structure of a capillary allows it to exchange nutrients and gases with cells.

Analysing

11 A baby is diagnosed with 'patent foramen ovale', a condition distinguished by a hole in the wall of the heart, between the left and right atria. **Infer** what effect this hole would have on the blood that is being pumped out the aorta.

Evaluating

12 **Construct** a flow chart showing the path of an oxygen molecule, from when it diffuses from the alveoli into the capillary, until it reaches a muscle cell in your leg.
13 **Propose** a problem that would be faced by someone who has too few platelets in their blood.

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3.5 The human digestive system

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to state the main nutrients required in the human body.
2 To be able to label the parts of the digestive system.
3 To explore the role of enzymes in the digestive system.

The nutrients we need

Humans are **heterotrophs**, and we cannot produce our own food as plants can. We need to obtain nutrients from the environment around us by eating other living organisms. The main types of nutrients that humans need can be grouped into four main categories:

heterotroph
any organism that obtains its nutrients by consuming other organisms

- Carbohydrates are the main source of energy in the human diet. Bread, pasta, rice and oats are all great sources of carbohydrates. The simplest carbohydrate is glucose.
- Proteins are the building blocks of life and the main structural component of most of the living parts of your body. Proteins are needed for growth and repair. Meat, cheese, eggs, seeds, nuts and legumes are great sources of protein.
- Lipids are also called fats and oils. Fats transport some vitamins around our bodies, are a good energy source, and help protect the delicate organs inside our bodies from shock or impact.
- Vitamins and minerals are essential for the efficient functioning of our body. There are many vitamins and minerals that we can't make ourselves, so we have to consume them in the food we eat.

Did you know? 3.8

Where does vitamin C come from?

Vitamin C helps the body to absorb more iron, which is required for oxygen-carrying haemoglobin in the blood. It also aids in the production of collagen, which helps heal cuts in your skin.

You would get most of your vitamin C from red, yellow and orange fruits and vegetables. But where do carnivores get their vitamin C from? Dogs and many other animals can actually make their own vitamin C inside their bodies.

Figure 3.49 All citrus fruits have high levels of vitamin C.

Quick check 3.10

1 Recall the simplest carbohydrate.
2 Recall what you might also know lipids as.
3 Name some sources of protein.

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Parts of the human digestive system

The role of the digestive system is to acquire all the nutrients the body needs. Food is broken down into its smallest components by chemical and mechanical digestion, and the nutrients are absorbed into your bloodstream and transported to the cells that need them.

Mechanical digestion involves physical changes – that is, physically breaking food into smaller components but not changing the chemical structure of the food. Examples include breaking food apart with your teeth and tongue, and bile acting to emulsify (break up) fats.

Chemical digestion involves chemical changes that occur when special chemicals called **enzymes** break the food down into its most basic chemical components.

mechanical digestion
a series of mechanical processes that breaks food down, such as chewing with teeth, mixing in the stomach and emulsification with bile

chemical digestion
a series of chemical reactions in which enzymes break food into simpler chemical substances that can be used by the body

enzyme
a protein that can help speed up chemical reactions

The human digestive system is essentially a long tube from your mouth to your anus (Figure 3.50). Let us take a closer look at the structure and function of this vital organ system.

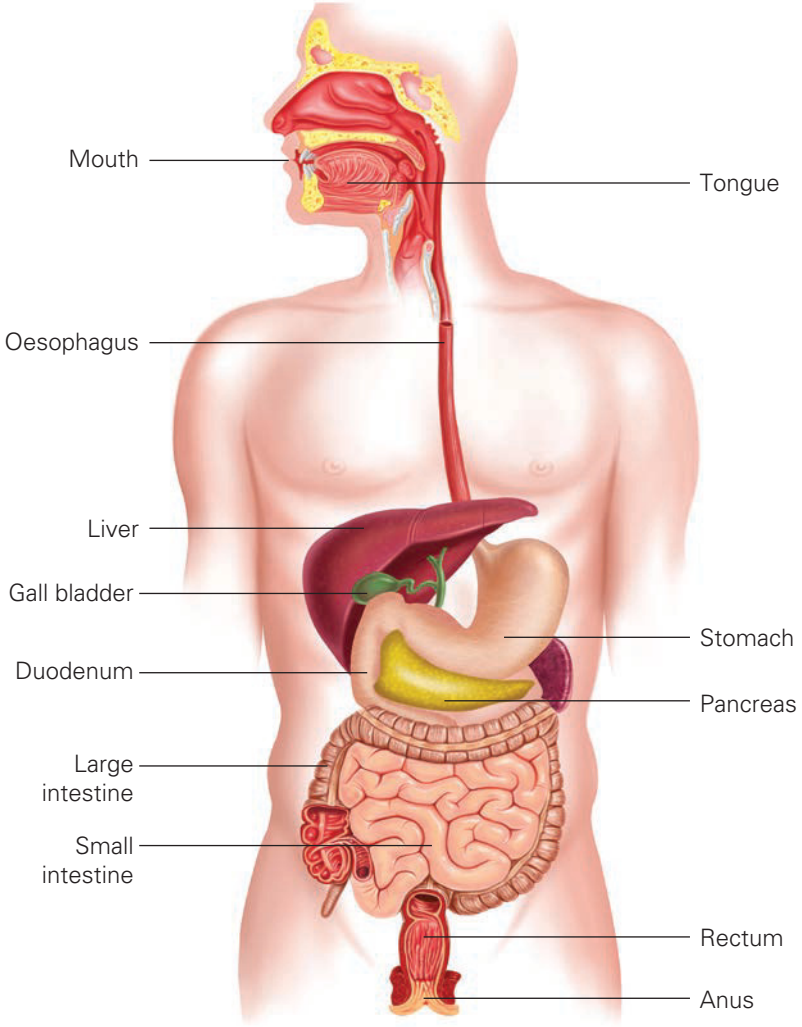

Figure 3.50 The human digestive system

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Mouth and tongue

The mouth has many specialised structures that start the digestive process. First, your teeth snip, tear, chomp and grind the food, breaking it down into smaller pieces. This increases the surface area of the food, which helps with chemical digestion later. The tongue moves the chewed food around the mouth and coats it in saliva. It forms a lump of partially broken-down food, called a **bolus**.

bolus
a lump of partially digested food

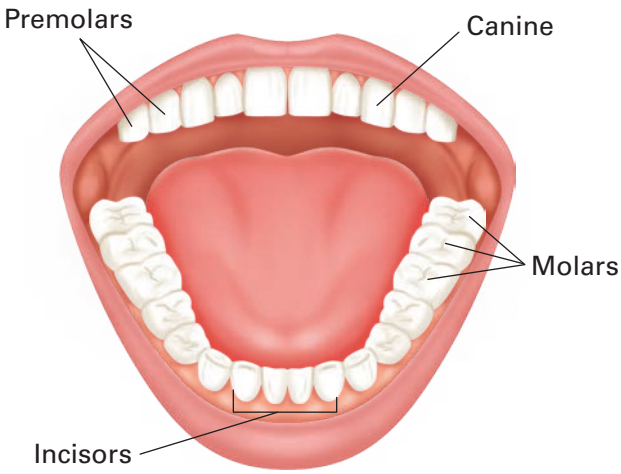

Figure 3.51 The different kinds of adult teeth: incisors for cutting, canines for tearing, and molars for grinding

Did you know? 3.9

The average person's tongue is around 8.5 cm long and has 2000–4000 taste buds on it. A quarter of the population have 4000 taste buds and have a superior sense of taste. Your taste for certain foods can change throughout your life, because as you age you lose some taste buds and your sense of smell decreases, meaning that you become less sensitive to food. As a teenager, your sense of smell and taste are much stronger than an adult's.

Figure 3.52 The average human tongue is about 8.5 cm long, whereas the average sun bear tongue is about 20 cm long. Sun bears use their long tongues to reach insects and extract honey.

saliva
a liquid secreted by the digestive system to lubricate a bolus of food; also contains enzymes to assist chemical digestion

Saliva lubricates the food to make its movement through your body smoother. It also contains special chemicals, called enzymes, that begin to break down the food at a molecular level.

The main enzyme found in your saliva is called *amylase* and it begins to break down carbohydrates, such as starch, into maltose in your mouth (Figure 3.53). Many more enzymes are found along the digestive tract, and each is designed to break down a particular food type.

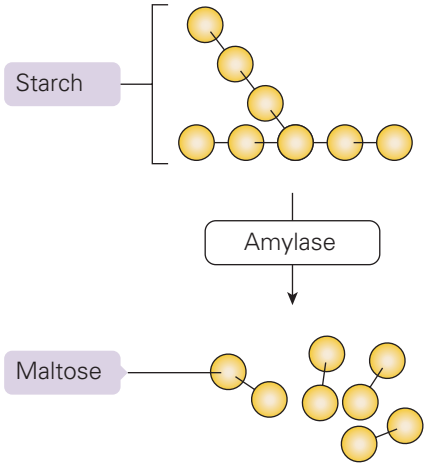

Figure 3.53 Amylase breaks the bonds in starch to form smaller maltose molecules.

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Try this 3.8

Thanks, enzymes!

Check with your parent or guardian if it's okay to try this at home. Place a small piece of bread or a dry savoury cracker on your tongue and leave it to sit there for a while. As the amylase in your saliva begins to break down the carbohydrates, you should be able to taste the sweeter maltose subunits.

Oesophagus

When you swallow food, a wave-like contraction of your oesophagus pushes the food down towards your stomach. This movement is known as **peristalsis**, and it continues all the way along your digestive tract to constantly keep the food moving along. Peristalsis is so effective that you could actually eat upside down and the food would still be pushed against gravity, up your oesophagus!

peristalsis
a wave-like contraction of the muscles of the digestive tract that pushes the food along

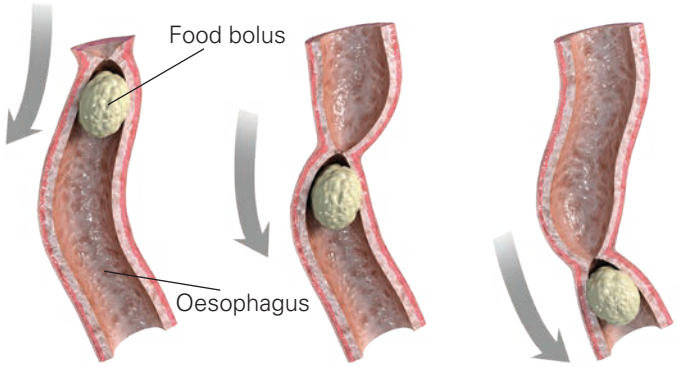

Figure 3.54 Peristalsis moves food down the oesophagus.

Try this 3.9

Modelling peristalsis

Find a nylon stocking and cut off the toe end of the leg. Place a tennis ball at the toe end and gently squeeze behind the tennis ball, to move it along the length of the stocking. This is how the muscles of the oesophagus push a bolus of food along.

VIDEO
Describe peristalsis

Quick check 3.11

1 Describe the function of saliva.
2 Name the enzyme found in saliva.
3 Recall the number of taste buds that an average person has.
4 State if chewing food is an example of mechanical or chemical digestion.
5 Define 'peristalsis'.

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sphincter
a muscle that surrounds an opening in the body and can tighten to close it, e.g. at the bottom of the oesophagus, leading into the stomach

Stomach

At the bottom of your oesophagus is a **sphincter** that opens to allow food to enter your stomach (Figure 3.55). The stomach contains many types of enzymes, along with very strong hydrochloric acid – these are known as the gastric juices. The sphincter at the opening of the stomach is very important, as it prevents these enzymes and acids from entering the oesophagus and burning the tube, causing a symptom called indigestion or 'heartburn'.

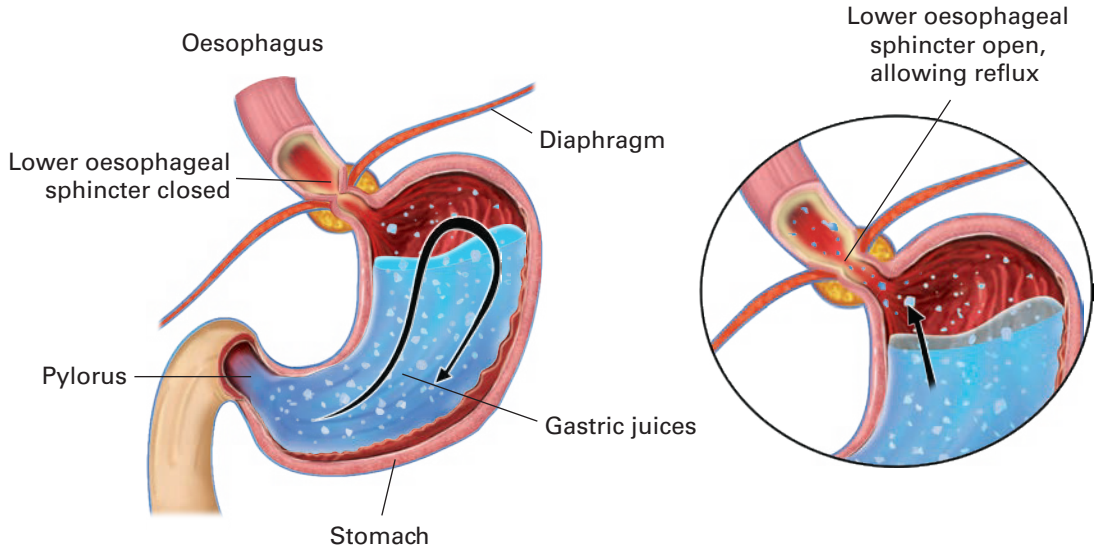

Figure 3.55 When the oesophageal sphincter fails to close, gastric juices can irritate the bottom of the oesophagus.

Try this 3.10

How do antacids work?

Antacid tablets are taken during episodes of indigestion, to try to neutralise some of the acid in the stomach. Let's observe how they work.

You will need the following: pH data logger and probe, 1 mol L^{-1} hydrochloric acid, antacid tablets (such as Rennie®), 200 mL beaker, 3 mL pipette, mortar and pestle, distilled water.

Step 1 Crush one antacid tablet using the mortar and pestle. Place the crushed tablet in the beaker with 50 mL of distilled water and mix well.

Step 2 Measure the pH using the probe.

Step 3 After a minute, add around 1 mL of 1 mol L^{-1} hydrochloric acid and monitor the change in pH. Stir the beaker regularly.

Food stays in your stomach for 2–6 hours, depending on the size, amount and type of food. During this time, the stomach contracts and churns the food (mechanical digestion), helping to further break up the large particles, while mixing the bolus with the gastric juices (chemical digestion). The acid in your stomach also performs some important functions: it kills many of the harmful bacteria that might be on food and provides an optimum pH for protein enzymes to work. The stomach wall is a mucosal membrane, which produces mucus to protect the stomach tissue from the strong acid.

Enzymes act to *catalyse* (speed up) chemical reactions. The main enzyme in your gastric juices is called *pepsin* and its role is to begin

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the digestion of protein. Each enzyme has a specific shape that fits only one type of molecule, and therefore each food type has a special enzyme dedicated to breaking it down in the body (Figure 3.56). For example, pepsin can only break down protein.

Some substances absorb from the stomach into the bloodstream, such as water, medicines and alcohol. The digested bolus is now called **chyme** and it leaves the stomach by passing through the pyloric sphincter into the small intestine (Figure 3.57).

chyme
a partially digested mass of food after it leaves the stomach

Figure 3.56 Each enzyme fits a specific type of molecule, like a key fitting a lock. An enzyme attaches itself to a food particle and speeds up the chemical reaction that breaks down the food particle, and then it releases the broken-down food particle.

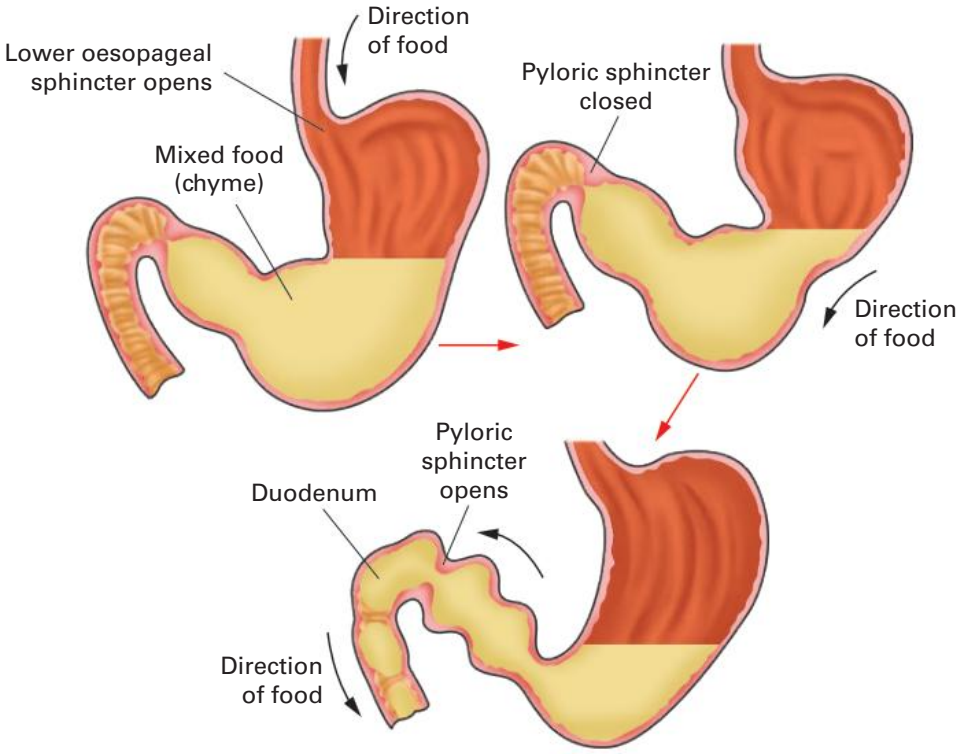

Figure 3.57 The pyloric sphincter controls the flow of chyme out of the stomach and into a region of the small intestine called the duodenum.

Quick check 3.12

1 State two sites of mechanical digestion.
2 Define 'chyme'.
3 Name the enzyme that catalyses the digestion of protein.
4 Explain why the stomach wall is lined with mucus.

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duodenum
the first section of the small intestine

jejunum
the second section of the small intestine, where food breakdown and nutrient absorption occur

ileum
the third section of the small intestine, where further food breakdown and nutrient absorption occur

liver
a large organ that has many metabolic and secretory functions, including the production of bile

bile
a substance produced in the liver and stored in the gall bladder, which helps emulsify fats

gall bladder
a small gland near the liver that stores bile and secretes it into the duodenum

pancreas
an organ that secretes pancreatic juices containing enzymes into the duodenum to assist with the digestion of food

villi
finger-like structures in the digestive system that have a high surface area and rich blood supply for absorption of nutrients

Small intestine, liver, gall bladder and pancreas

The small intestine is only called 'small' because it is narrower in diameter than the large intestine. It is actually very long, measuring an average of nearly 6 metres. The small intestine is divided into three main parts: **duodenum**, **jejunum** and **ileum**.

The duodenum is the first part of the small intestine. Many digestive enzymes are secreted into it, which help to continue digestion of the chyme. Peristalsis is still propelling the chyme forwards and continues all the way along the digestive tract.

The **liver** produces **bile**, which helps to break down fats or lipids mechanically. The bile is stored in the **gall bladder** and is excreted into the duodenum if you eat a fatty meal. Bile acts like a detergent – it emulsifies or breaks big globs of fats and oils into little globs that can be easily moved and broken down further. Bile has the second job of neutralising the harmful acids from the stomach and preventing damage to the intestines. The **pancreas** secretes pancreatic juices, which also help to neutralise the acids from the stomach and contain more enzymes to keep chemically digesting the different food types.

Most of the nutrient absorption takes place in the middle section of the small intestine, the jejunum. This section is lined with millions of finger-like structures, called **villi** (Figure 3.59). These structures have a large surface area and a high flow of blood, which increases the efficiency of nutrient absorption into the bloodstream.

The end section of the small intestine is the ileum. The main function of this portion of the intestines is to finish off any absorption of nutrients, and to compact the remaining digested food and pass it through into the large intestine.

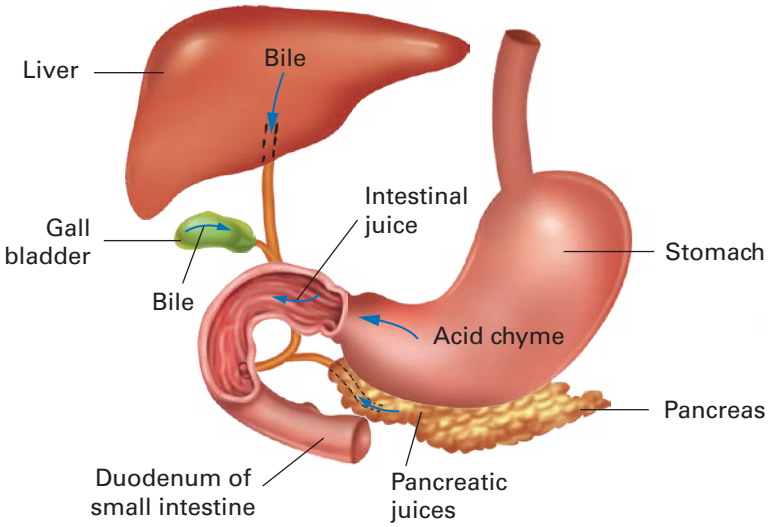

Figure 3.58 The liver, gall bladder and pancreas all contribute to the digestion of food and are connected to the duodenum.

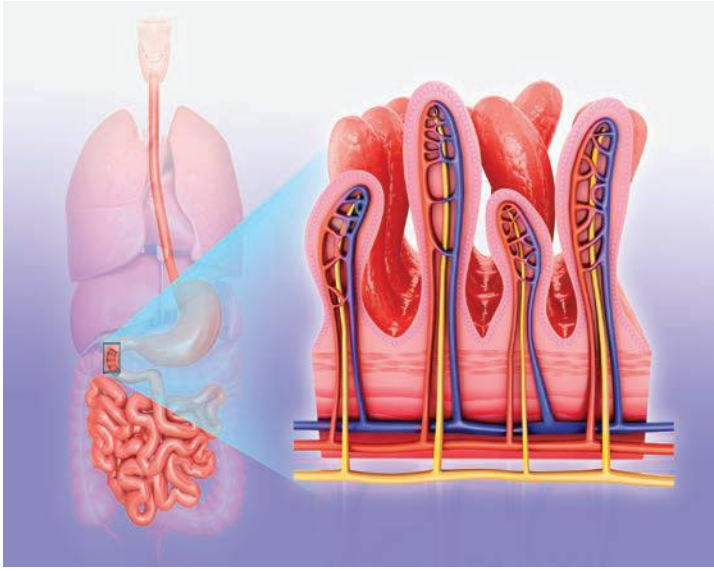

Figure 3.59 Finger-like villi in the intestines are specialised for absorption of nutrients.

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Large intestine

The **large intestine** is 1–2 metres long and has five parts: caecum, appendix, colon, rectum and anus (Figure 3.60). Its function is to absorb most of the water from the material left over from digestion. The large intestine also has large numbers of friendly bacteria that can produce vitamin K and vitamin B for your body to use. In humans, the **caecum** is a pouch at the start of the large intestine, where it joins the small intestine. The appendix has long been considered a useless organ that is a remnant of evolution, but there is ongoing debate about what its actual role is (see Did you know? 3.10). As waste enters the large intestine and passes through the colon, water leaves the waste, resulting in a solid mass called faeces. Faeces are stored in the **rectum** and when the rectum is full, it sends a signal to your brain to tell you to go to the toilet. The faeces then pass out through a sphincter called the **anus**.

large intestine
the organ that is connected to the small intestine at one end and the anus at the other

caecum
a pouch that forms the first part of the large intestine

rectum
the second-last section of the large intestine; stores faeces

anus
the opening at the end of the digestive tract, through which solid waste leaves the body

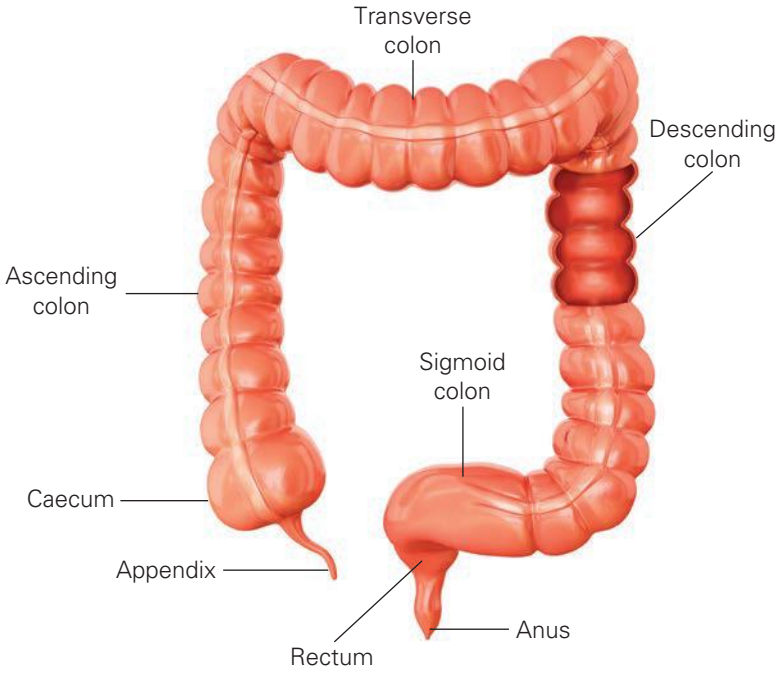

Figure 3.60 The five sections of the large intestine

Did you know? 3.10

A lot of you is not you!

The average person's body has around the same number of human cells as bacterial cells.

Until recently, it was thought that the number of bacteria in our bodies outnumbered our own cells 10:1. However, recent research in Canada suggests that the average person is more likely to have a 1:1 ratio of bacteria and human cells. Most of these bacterial cells are 'friendly bacteria' found in our digestive system that help our body break down and digest nutrients from the food we eat. It is thought that the appendix could be a safe haven for good bacteria that can repopulate the gut after sickness and diarrhoea. So next time you eat a meal, think about all the bacteria hard at work in your digestive system, helping you break it down.

Figure 3.61 Most bacteria in your body are in the intestine.

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Quick check 3.13

1 State the three sections of the small intestine.
2 The liver produces bile, which is stored in the gall bladder. Recall the type of food that bile helps to mechanically digest.
3 Explain how villi improve absorption of nutrients.
4 Organise the following sections of the large intestine in the correct order that faeces pass through: rectum, colon, anus, caecum, appendix. (Hint: do faeces pass through all of the sections?)

Did you know? 3.11

Is your stomach rumbling?

Ever heard those gurgling stomach noises when you are hungry? Well, they are actually the sounds of hyperactive peristalsis in the intestines, and are named *borborygmi*. When the muscles in your stomach and small intestines are pushing everything along, all the food packed inside muffles the sound. But if it's been a while since you've eaten, most of that food is gone (hence why you equate it with being hungry!) and all those gurgling gases are easier to hear.

Digestion gone wrong

Food poisoning

Your body can detect hazardous substances in the food you eat. Sometimes food can be contaminated with toxins or microorganisms that could harm your body. If your body senses the presence of these harmful substances, it signals your digestive system to empty fast. This causes the stomach to contract violently, resulting in vomiting, and it also causes the intestines to contract, resulting in diarrhoea. Even though getting sick is never fun, it is your body's way of protecting you from intruders.

Digestive disorders

Many people cannot eat certain foods, because of an intolerance or allergy. An **intolerance** is when a food cannot be properly broken down by the body and results in an adverse reaction.

intolerance
an inability to eat a food without undergoing adverse effects

One of the most common intolerances in humans is lactose intolerance. Lactose-intolerant people are unable to digest the sugar in milk and dairy products, called lactose. Normally when somebody eats food containing lactose, the enzyme lactase is released in the small intestine to break down the carbohydrate into simple sugars. People who are lactose intolerant do not have lactase, and this means that the sugars do not get digested and absorbed. Instead, the bacteria in the intestines break down these sugars, leading to bloating, lots of gas and diarrhoea.

Because humans are mammals, we can all drink milk as babies. This means that the enzyme called lactase, which breaks down lactose, is found in everybody when we are young. Anyone can become lactose intolerant at any stage in their life, although there are certain groups of people who are more likely to become lactose intolerant. For example:

- People of Asian, African, Indigenous Australian and South American backgrounds are more likely to develop lactose intolerance at a young age.

Figure 3.62 All mammals produce milk, but not all adult humans can digest it.

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- People who already have problems with their digestive system caused by disorders such as coeliac disease or Crohn's disease are more likely to develop lactose intolerance.
- Certain antibiotics can trigger temporary lactose intolerance, by interfering with the intestine's ability to produce the lactase enzyme.
- As people get older, their bodies can stop producing lactase.
- If you go for a long period of time without eating dairy, your body may stop producing lactase.

Explore! 3.6

Coeliac disease

People are becoming more aware of foods that contain gluten, and many people have started to follow gluten-free diets. Gluten is a protein in wheat, rye and barley-based products such as bread, pasta, pastry, cakes and biscuits. Bread has been a stable part of the human diet for thousands of years, and so many people view gluten intolerance and coeliac disease as new phenomena, but humans have been affected by these conditions throughout history. However, it was not until about 100 years ago that doctors began to diagnose and treat coeliac disease.

1 Find out how many people suffer from coeliac disease and how many people have gluten intolerance. You may like to find out the statistics for the world or investigate different countries.
2 Outline the symptoms of coeliac disease.
3 Research and then summarise what it is about gluten that makes people sick. Include an explanation of how a coeliac sufferer's body responds to gluten.

Science as a human endeavour 3.7

Seeing you from the inside

Imagine swallowing a pill-sized camera that captures images over the next 24 hours as it makes its way through your digestive system. This technology gives doctors a unique view of what is going on inside your oesophagus, stomach and intestines. But there is a lot that a camera can't do: it can't deliver drugs, it can't grab a foreign object and remove it, and it can't perform a biopsy (slice off a tiny piece of tissue for analysis). This is why medical researchers are working with engineers to design tiny robots that can be put to work in your digestive tract. These robots need motors, sensors and smooth outer surfaces so that they can pass through your digestive organs without damaging them, before finally being excreted just like any other waste product.

Figure 3.63 An artist's impression of a tiny robotic device crawling through an intestine

Figure 3.64 An illustration showing the scale of a robot frozen inside some ice, which the patient swallows. Once warmed up in the digestive tract, the robot unfolds into the shape shown in Figure 3.63.

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Section 3.5 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **State** the food group that glucose belongs to.
2 **Recall** the route that food takes after it leaves the stomach. List the three sections of the small intestine and the four sections of the large intestine it passes through.
3 **State** the function of the tongue in digestion.
4 **Name** the type of acid that is found in the human stomach.

Understanding

5 **Describe** the role of the stomach in food digestion.
6 **Explain** how the structure of villi assists in the absorption of nutrients.
7 **Explain** how food is transported along the digestive tract.

Applying

8 A friend who is coming to your house for dinner suffers from coeliac disease and lactose intolerance. **Describe** a meal you could cook that would be suitable for this friend.

Analysing

9 **Contrast** the duodenum and the jejunum.
10 **Classify** the following processes as mechanical or chemical digestion.

Process	Mechanical or chemical?
Stomach churning and contracting	
Chewing food	
Bile released from gall bladder into duodenum to emulsify fats	

Evaluating

11 Certain nutritional deficiencies in the body can be linked to damaged digestive organs. **Predict** what deficiencies could be linked to a damaged large intestine.
12 **Propose** what might happen if the large intestine was removed from the digestive tract.
13 Crohn's disease is a bowel condition that causes flare-ups of inflammation in the ileum, which leads to impaired nutrient absorption. It also causes inflammation of the large intestine. **Propose** what effect this might have on the faeces.

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3.6 Other digestive systems

Learning goal

1 To be able to compare the digestive systems of carnivores and herbivores.

WORKSHEET

Have you ever had food poisoning? If so, it was probably from eating undercooked chicken or slightly questionable leftovers that were several days old. You might have spent the following day on the toilet. That was because the food that you ingested had too many bacteria on it for your body to deal with. But why does that happen to you, when some scavenger animals can eat half-rotten corpses and not get sick?

How is it that some animals eat only leaves and still manage to get all the protein, fats and iron they need to be healthy?

The answers to both these questions can be found in their specialised digestive systems.

Carnivores

The human digestive system is adapted to process and break down both animal and plant products. However, unlike other animals, we have learned to cook our food, which vastly reduces the amount of harmful bacteria our digestive system has to contend with. **Carnivore** and scavenger species such as vultures have several traits that have evolved that allow them to eat food containing large amounts of bacteria that could kill a human.

carnivore
a consumer (heterotroph) that feeds on animal matter

omnivore
an organism that eats a variety of plant and animal matter

Digestive system length

The digestive system is shorter in a carnivore than in a herbivore or an **omnivore** (Figure 3.66). Because animal cells do not have a cell wall (cell walls contain cellulose, which is hard to digest), they are easier to digest and so it takes less time for them to pass through the consumer's digestive system. Because the food spends less time in the body of the carnivore, any harmful bacteria on the food have less chance to grow and cause illness.

Figure 3.65 A dingo eating a carcass

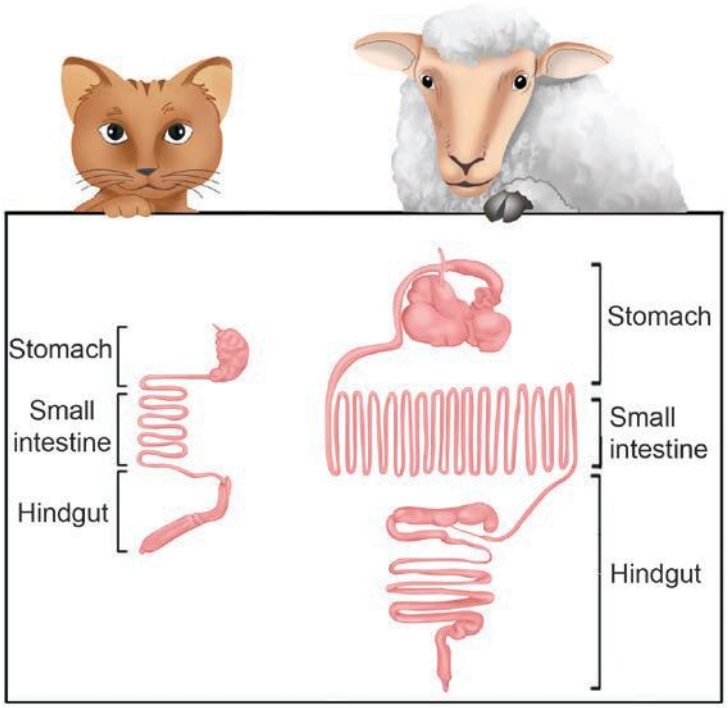

Figure 3.66 Cat (carnivore) and sheep (herbivore) digestive systems

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Stomach acid

The pH of stomach acid in humans is 1.5–3.5. This is quite acidic and allows our bodies to kill many harmful microorganisms, but not all of them. In comparison, the pH of a vulture's stomach acid is 0–1, which is acidic enough to dissolve certain metals and will kill most bacteria.

Figure 3.67 Make sure you check the use-by date of meat.

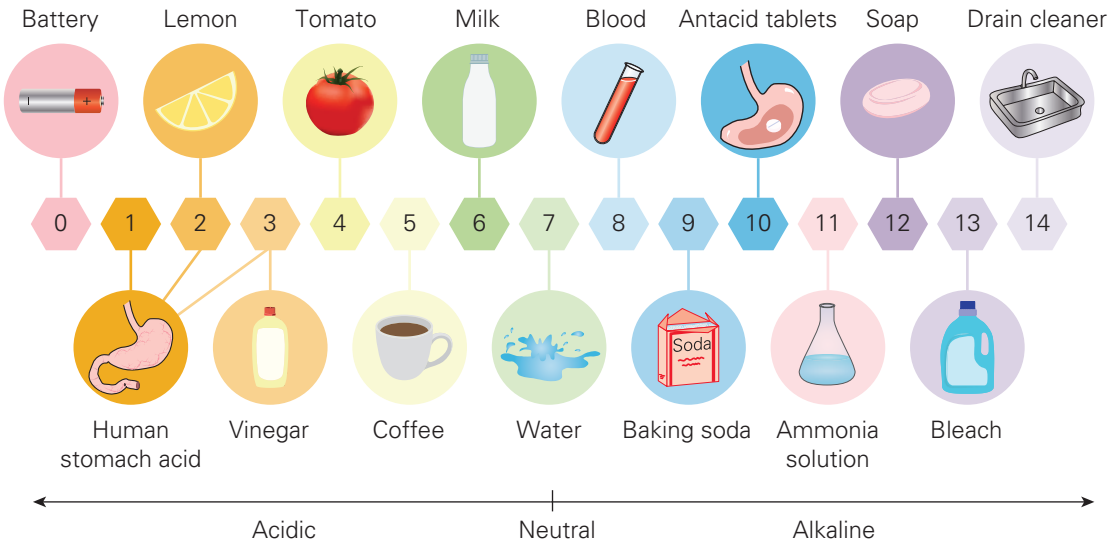

Figure 3.68 The pH scale

Did you know? 3.12

Bird vomit

As a defence mechanism when threatened, vultures and other birds, such as some seagulls, can projectile vomit onto predators. As you know, vomit smells bad at the best of times but just imagine how it would smell if you had been eating rotting flesh! If you add to that the corrosive levels of acid in the stomach, vomit makes a very effective warning system.

Figure 3.69 Vultures and many gulls use vomiting as a defence technique.

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Quick check 3.14

1 Explain how vultures defend themselves from predators.
2 Contrast a vulture's stomach acid with a human's.
3 State who has a shorter digestive tract: carnivores or herbivores.

Explore! 3.7

Carnivorous plants

Not all plants rely solely on sunlight and water for their food. Some gain additional nutrients from meat. Most carnivorous plants live in swamps and marshes, where the soil doesn't have many nutrients, especially nitrogen, and so they rely on breaking down insects for nutrients.

Research each of the following carnivorous plants and summarise how they catch their prey, the structures they have that allow them to catch their prey, and how they digest their prey.

1 Venus flytrap

Figure 3.70 A Venus fly trap and an unsuspecting fly

2 Sundew

Figure 3.71 A sundew wrapping around an insect

3 Pitcher plant

Figure 3.72 A pitcher plant, and its possible prey

Herbivores

Eucalyptus leaves are toxic for humans. If you ever tried to eat some you could find yourself struggling to breathe, losing your balance and feeling very dizzy. Leaves are also made of cellulose, which is not easy for humans (or carnivores) to digest and obtain any nutrients from. So it is surprising that eucalyptus leaves are the koala's primary source of nutrition.

VIDEO Carnivorous plants

herbivore a consumer (heterotroph) that feeds on plant matter

Koalas are **herbivores**, and so they have many adaptations that allow them to obtain the nutrients that they need from eucalyptus leaves. They have a long digestive tract and a very large caecum, around 200 cm long and 10 cm wide, where cell walls can be digested. In herbivores, the caecum contains millions of friendly bacteria that are specialised to break down certain plant materials (such as eucalyptus leaves).

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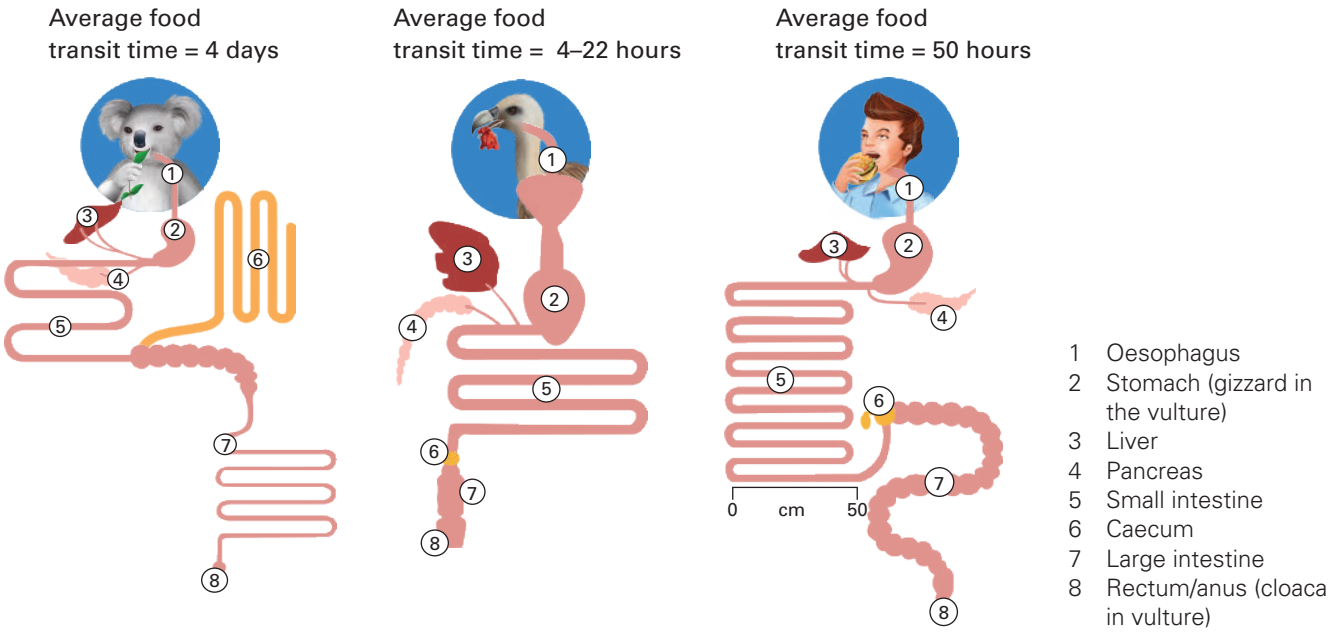

Figure 3.73 Digestive systems and food transit times for koalas, vultures and humans

Koalas get most of their water from the leaves they eat, and so they do not often need to climb down from the tree they are living in.

Eucalyptus leaves are very low in nutrients and so, even with a caecum, koalas need to eat for 5 hours a day to get enough food to sustain them. They spend most of the rest of their day sleeping, to conserve energy and to allow their bodies to digest their food.

In total, it can take about 4 days for a leaf to pass through a koala's digestive system. This maximises the amount of nutrients and water that are absorbed from the food.

Did you know? 3.13

Eating Mum's faeces

Baby koalas are not born with the special friendly bacteria they need to digest eucalyptus leaves. They need to eat their mothers' faeces (called pap) in order to start their own colony of bacteria in their caecum.

Figure 3.74 To eat eucalyptus leaves, koala joeys must first obtain bacteria from their mothers' faeces.

Science as a human endeavour 3.8

Cows and the climate

Cows burp a lot of methane gas, which is a product of fermentation in their rumen. The microorganisms that colonise their digestive tract assist in breaking down the plant matter, producing methane as a waste product. Unfortunately, methane is also a potent greenhouse gas – Australian cows account for almost 10% of the methane produced in the world.

A recent study by Australia's CSIRO has experimented with the *Asparagopsis* species of seaweed as an additive to the diets of cows. The seaweed produces a chemical compound that inhibits microorganisms from producing methane. The trial showed a reduction of methane of up to 80%. The feed additive is in the early stages of development, but could be a helpful tool in the fight against climate change.

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Ruminants

If you've ever seen a cow, it was probably chewing. Cows are herbivores, just like koalas, so they need to eat for most of the day to gain as much nutrition from their food as possible. Cows belong to a special category of herbivores, called *ruminants*. Ruminants, including antelope, sheep, buffalo and goats, deal with being a herbivore in a unique way. Figure 3.75 shows the path of food through a ruminant.

WIDGET
The mammalian digestive system

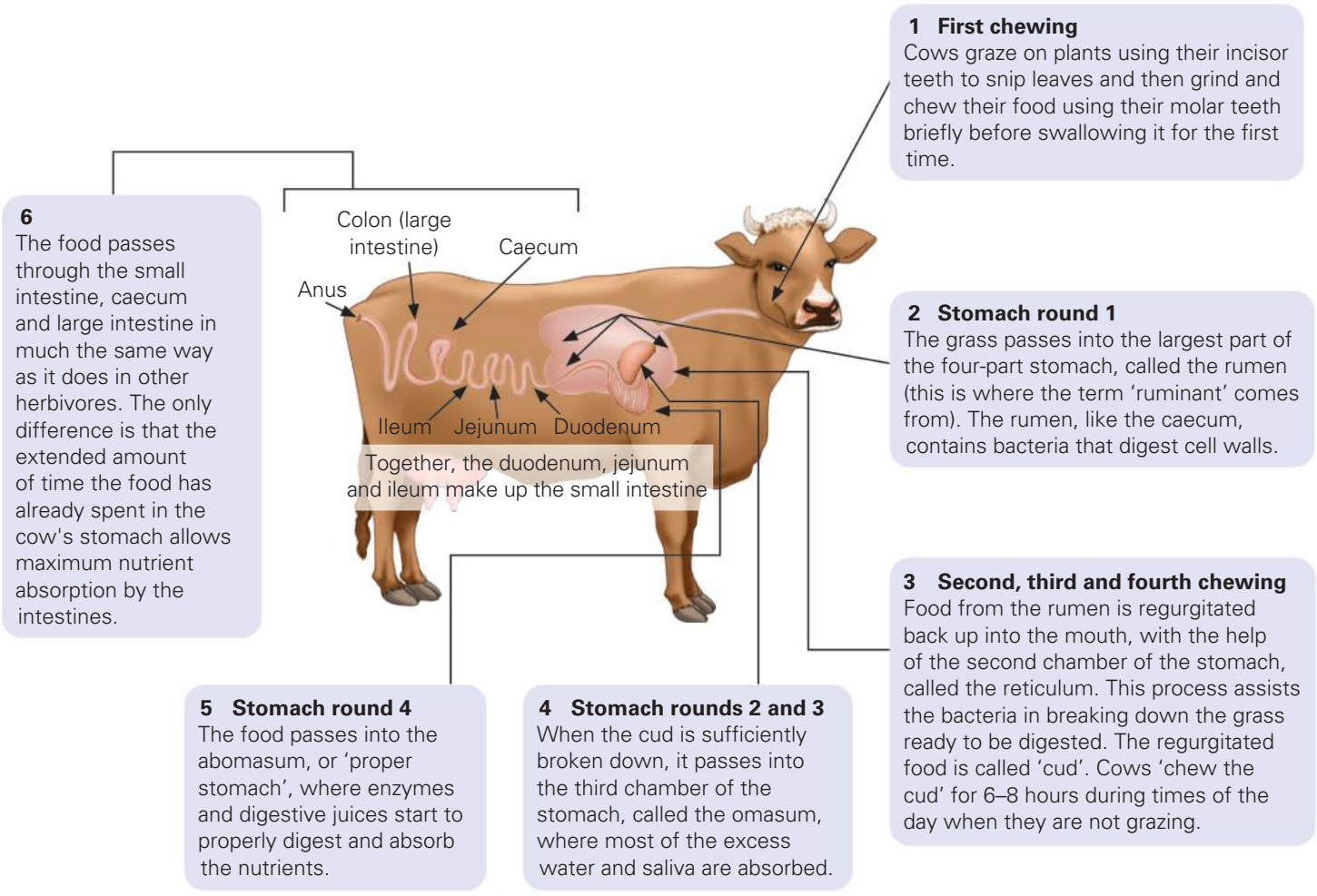

Figure 3.75 The passage of food through a cow's stomach

Quick check 3.15

1. Summarise the role of the caecum.
2. Define 'friendly bacteria'.
3. Distinguish between the length of a carnivore and a herbivore digestive tract.
4. Describe the way a ruminant digests plant matter.

Try this 3.11

Digestive flow charts

Construct three flow charts on a poster showing the digestive tracts of a carnivore (not a human), a herbivore and a ruminant. Annotate the structures of the digestive tract, showing their specialised functions so that the key differences between these organisms are obvious.

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Section 3.6 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **Recall** the four parts of a herbivore's digestive system.
2 **State** the number of chambers there are in the stomach of a cow.
3 **Name** the substance that leaves are composed of, which is difficult for humans to digest and gain nutrients from.
4 **Identify** the words to correctly fill in the gaps: Acids have a _____ pH and bases have a _____ pH.

Understanding

5 **Recall** one way that a vulture uses its stomach acid other than for digestion.
6 **Identify** the product in the stomach that kills bacteria.
7 **Identify** two ways in which a vulture's digestive system is different from a human's digestive system.

Applying

8 **Explain** how a carnivore can eat meat containing harmful bacteria without becoming sick, while humans cannot.
9 **Describe** how baby koalas gain their friendly bacteria.

Analysing

10 **Contrast** the digestive system of a koala with that of a human. You may choose to display the information in a table as shown.

Human	Koala

11 Use the images in Figure 3.76 to answer the following questions.

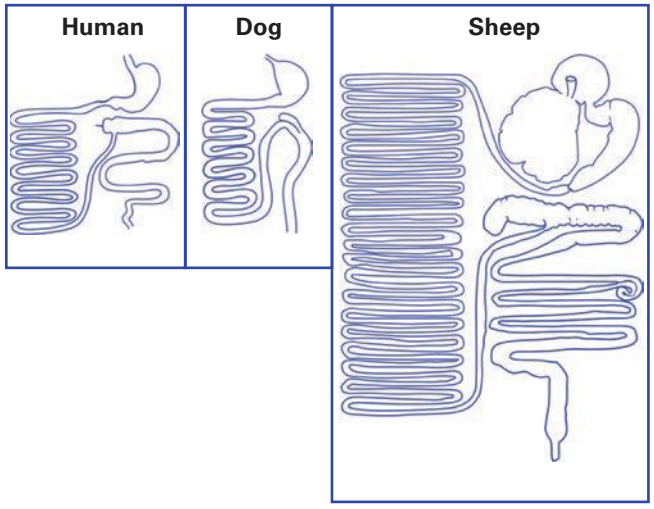

Figure 3.76 Digestive systems of a human, a dog and a sheep

a **Contrast** the digestive system of a dog and a sheep.
b **Identify** which two of the animals in Figure 3.76 probably have a similar diet.

Evaluating

12 Carnivorous plants tend to prey on small insects or amphibians. **Propose** why attracting larger animals than insects might be a problem for carnivorous plants.

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3.7 Organ repair and replacement

Learning goal

1 To be able to describe methods of organ repair and replacement.

WORKSHEET

Each of the organ systems in your body relies on the specialised function of many different organs working together to keep you healthy. But what happens when one of these organs is damaged, infected or cannot do its job properly? If one organ in a system cannot function at full capacity, it results in a chain reaction that can cause people to become very ill.

Organ transplants

Damaged organs can sometimes be given the chance to repair through certain medications, diet and lifestyle changes. However, if an organ becomes so damaged that it can no longer work at all, the only option may be to completely replace it. This is done through a medical procedure known as **organ transplantation**, in which a healthy organ from one body is used to replace the damaged organ in another.

One organ that is commonly transplanted is the kidney. Your kidneys are located near your lower back (Figure 3.77). A kidney filters waste products out of the blood and produces urine. Diseases and environmental factors that can damage your kidneys include medications, alcohol and diabetes. We have two kidneys in our body, but we can manage with only one. Therefore, some people volunteer to donate one of their healthy kidneys to a friend or family member who needs a replacement.

In order for an organ transplant to be successful, the donor (person giving the organ) and the recipient (person receiving the organ) must have similar markers on their cells. If these markers do not match, the body will recognise the new organ as a foreign invader and attack the organ using the immune system.

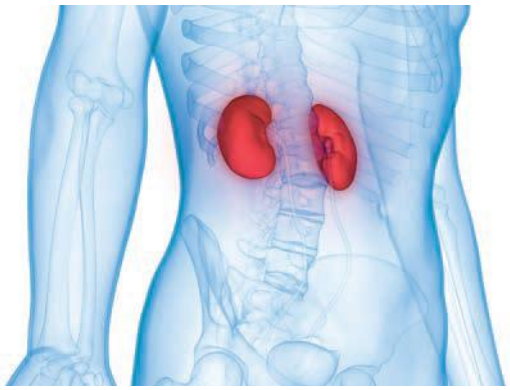

Figure 3.77 Most of us have two healthy kidneys. If they are damaged through disease, one option is a kidney transplant.

This is known as **organ rejection**. Unfortunately, the chances of two people being a match is extremely low, even within families. This means that there is a high demand for organs but a very low supply available.

organ transplantation the process of removing a donor organ and then surgically implanting it into a recipient, to improve their organ function or replace a diseased organ

organ rejection when an organ transplant recipient's immune system recognises the organ as foreign and attacks it

Organ donation is sometimes possible when a person dies, and has previously indicated that they would like to donate their organs. This amazing gift can save many lives, as organs such as the heart, lungs, kidneys, liver, large intestine, pancreas and some tissues,

Figure 3.78 A surgeon performing a kidney transplant

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such as skin and corneas from the eye, can all be donated. In 2019, 1683 Australian lives were transformed through organ transplantation.

Not many deaths occur in a way that allows organ donation. For example, the person must die in a hospital, and very strict procedures must be followed to ensure the health of the organs being donated. Sometimes the families of registered organ donors refuse to give consent. This is why it is very important that people discuss their wishes with their families and consider registering their intentions on the Organ Donor Register.

Quick check 3.16

1 If an organ is damaged, recall the first treatment options before a transplant is considered.
2 Name some of the organs and tissues that can be donated in Australia.
3 Describe what would happen if a transplanted organ came from a donor who was not a good match for the recipient.

Explore! 3.8

Kidney transplants

A kidney transplant is a life-prolonging surgery but it does not provide a cure for end-stage kidney disease. The recipient must be medically suitable, and an available matching organ needs to be found. Research kidney transplants in Australia and answer the questions below. The 'Kidney Health Australia' website is a great resource.

1 What are the steps involved in transplanting a kidney?
2 Where is the donor kidney positioned in the recipient's body?
3 What influences the success of the organ transplant? Provide some statistics in your answer and discuss the anti-rejection drugs the person will need to take.

Organ replacement

Because of the high demand but low supply of organs for transplantation, scientists are developing new ways to overcome this problem. One new technique is **xenotransplantation**. This is the process of transplanting organs from a different species than the recipient.

xenotransplantation transplanting organs from one species into another

Doctors have been transplanting porcine (pig) heart valves into humans since 1965. Now scientists are trying to find a way to transplant entire pig organs. Pig organs are a similar size and shape to human organs. There are two main biological challenges that scientists face with this procedure.

- The biological markers on pigs' cells and organs do not match those in humans, and so the human recipient's body would reject the organ.
- There are viruses in pigs' genetic material that could infect and harm humans who receive a pig organ.

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The first challenge that scientists are focusing on is to remove the viruses from the genetic material of pigs. This can be done using technology known as CRISPR (cluster regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats), where an enzyme is used to cut out the parts of the genetic material of pigs that contain the viruses. CRISPR acts like a cut-and-paste tool, where the harmful parts of the genetic material are cut out and then a non-harmful section of genetic material is pasted in its place (Figure 3.79).

Scientists have used the CRISPR process to produce several healthy genetically modified pigs that do not contain the harmful viruses. This CRISPR technology has revolutionised the field of medicine, and scientists Emanuelle Charpentier and Jennifer A. Doudna won the Nobel Prize for Chemistry in 2020 for their discovery of the technology. Scientists now have to overcome the problem of the markers on pig organs that cause human bodies to identify the organs as foreign and therefore reject the organ.

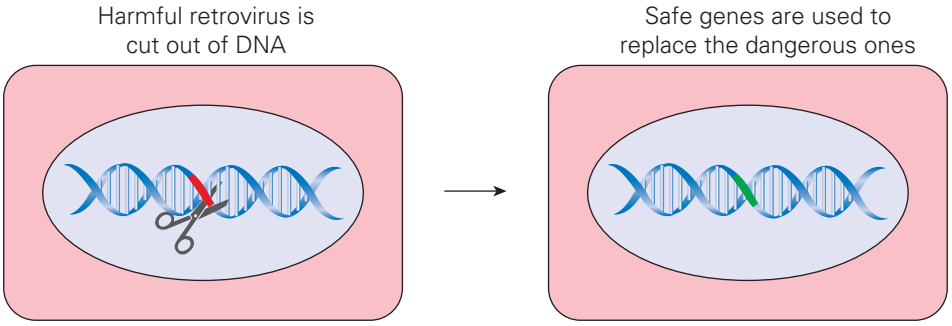

Figure 3.79 In the CRISPR process, the virus is cut out, and harmless genetic material is pasted in.

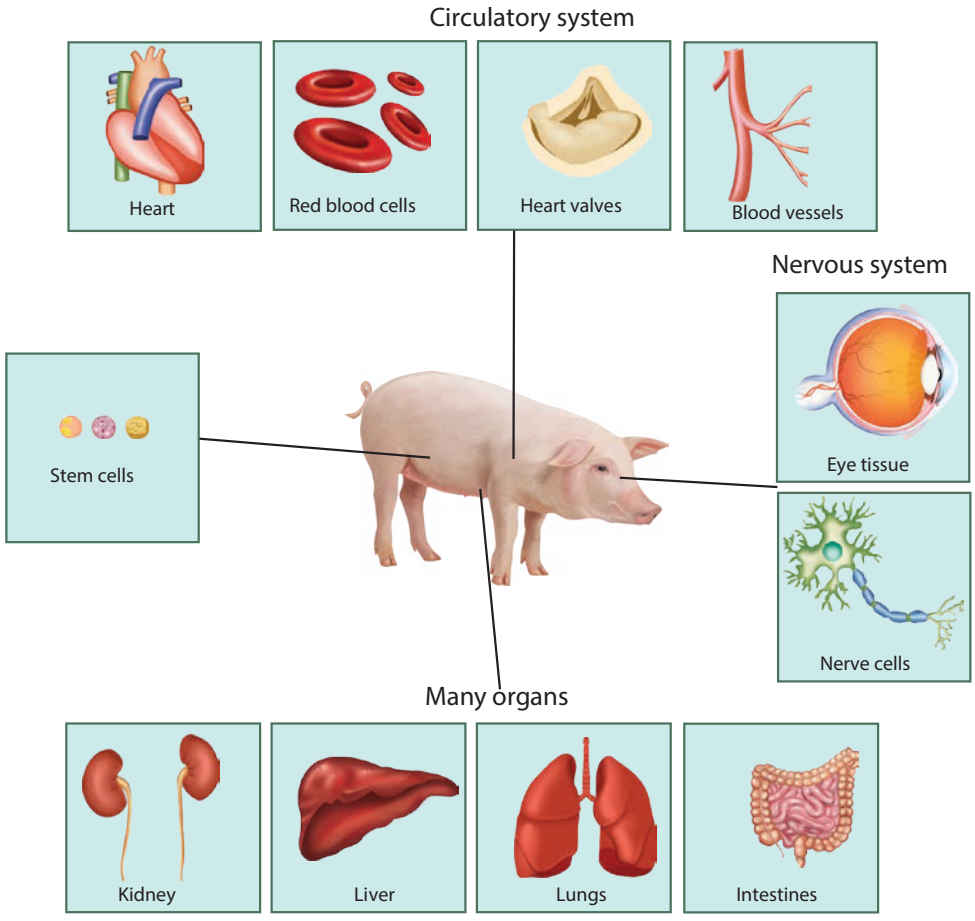

Figure 3.80 All the possible transplanted tissues and organs we could get from pigs

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Science as a human endeavour 3.9

Robots making organs?

Organoids are tiny clusters of cells that organise themselves into miniature and rudimentary versions of our organs. They present biomedical researchers with an opportunity to study organ development and experiment with drug technologies. Organoids develop from stem cells that have been grown in tiny 'wells' and induced to differentiate into specialised cells, such as neurons. These neurons then make connections and begin to behave in a similar way to how they do in a patient's actual brain.

In 2018, researchers at the University of Washington successfully put robots to work in making trays of kidney organoids in the lab. The automated system completes a researcher's daily work in around 20 minutes and makes fewer mistakes. The robotic system has also been programmed to analyse the genetic material in the organoids, and has led to new discoveries about the kidneys' blood supply and kidney disease.

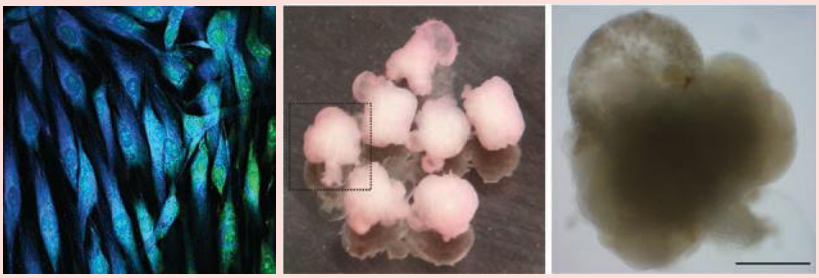

Figure 3.81 Mini brain organoids grown from stem cells. Left: Fibroblast cells are used to produce stem cells. Middle and right: The stem cells are grown in culture and induced to form brain tissue, or 'mini brains'.

Organ regeneration

The liver is the largest internal organ in your body. It is located just below your ribs, on the right side of your body. The liver is involved in many important processes, such as producing enzymes for digestion, storing vitamins and removing toxins from your blood. If the liver is exposed to too many toxins over a long period of time, it can become damaged and not perform its job properly.

Alcohol is a toxin that the liver filters out of the blood. People who regularly drink too much alcohol can permanently damage their liver. Another toxin that your body naturally produces is hydrogen peroxide – the same chemical that people use to bleach their hair. Obviously, having too much of this substance dissolved in the blood could cause major damage throughout the body.

The liver usually does a great job of turning hydrogen peroxide into the harmless substances water and oxygen. However, too much salt in the blood can reduce the liver's ability to break down hydrogen peroxide. Salt comes directly from our diet, and people who eat fast food or processed foods regularly consume high levels of salt and so are at risk of reducing their liver's ability to function. If caught early enough, a change in lifestyle habits can reverse or limit the damage done to the liver. In severe cases, however, liver transplantation surgery may be necessary.

Figure 3.82 Hot chips are delicious, but you need to be careful how much salt you eat.

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As you learned earlier in this chapter, organ transplants come with many risks, and matching donors are hard to find. That is why scientists are working on regenerating or growing organs from living healthy tissue found in the patient. This process is called **tissue engineering** and it is a fast-growing area of research. The liver is the only human organ that can not only repair itself but can regrow dead or damaged areas. This means that healthy living organ donors can donate part of their liver and their liver can grow back to nearly the same size over time. Because of the regenerative properties of the liver, scientists can grow whole new organs from as little as a quarter of an original liver.

If scientists could grow and regenerate organs using the patient's own tissue, then the body would not reject the transplanted organ.

tissue engineering the combined use of cells and engineering to improve or replace biological tissues

Quick check 3.17

1 Contrast organ replacement and organ regeneration.
2 Define 'xenotransplantation'.
3 Summarise two potential problems with xenotransplantation.
4 Name two toxins filtered out by the liver.
5 Recall the size of liver that the organ can regrow from.

Practical 3.7: Investigation

Salt and liver function

Be careful
Wear safety glasses and gloves.

Background information
During this experiment you will add hydrogen peroxide to blended cow's liver. If the hydrogen peroxide is broken down, then oxygen bubbles will be produced. You will add different amounts of salt solution to test the effect of salt on liver function.

Aim
To investigate the effect of salt on liver function.

Planning
1 Summarise the background information about the role of the liver and factors that can affect liver function.
2 Write a specific and relevant research question for your investigation.
3 Identify the following variables in your experiment: independent, dependent and three controlled variables.
4 Construct a hypothesis for your experiment: predict what effect the different concentrations of salt solution will have on the number of oxygen bubbles being produced.
5 Write a risk assessment for your investigation.

Materials
- 5 large test tubes
- liver solution (100 g of cow liver blended with 100 mL water)
- 10 mL measuring cylinder
- 0%, 10%, 20%, 30%, 40% salt solutions
- 3% hydrogen peroxide
- test-tube rack
- disposable gloves
- marker pen
- stopwatch

continued...

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...continued

Method

1 Place the test tubes in a rack and label them 0%, 10%, 20%, 30%, 40%.
2 Add 3 mL of liver solution and 3 mL of the 0% salt solution to the test tube labelled '0%' and allow them to combine for 3 minutes.
3 Mark the level of the solution with a marker pen.
4 Add 2 mL of hydrogen peroxide to the test tube and time the bubbles until they stop being produced.
5 When the bubbles stop being produced, record the time in the results table.
6 Repeat steps **2–5** with the remaining salt solutions.

Result

1 Draw a results table for your experiment.
2 Produce a suitable graph for your experiment.

Discussion

1 Describe any patterns, trends or relationships in your results.
2 Explain any trends you have identified.
3 Identify any limitations in your investigation.
4 Using your results, suggest a range in the salt percentage that you would test in a follow-up investigation.
5 Explain the reason that a test tube containing no salt was included in the experiment.

Conclusion

Draw a conclusion from this experiment regarding the effect of salt on liver function, using data to support your statement.

Ethics

When we discuss organ transplants, we often have to think about the **ethical** implications of taking an organ from one person and using it in another. 'Ethics' is the term we use to discuss what is right and wrong in society. As there are many different beliefs, cultures and people around the world, ethics can vary from country to country or from person to person. When something is considered right, we say it is ethical, and if it is considered wrong, we say it is unethical.

ethical
relating to ethics, the field of considering what is right and wrong

Our laws are linked to the ethical beliefs of a nation and can change over time as people's perception of ethics evolves. However, just because something is considered unethical does not necessarily mean that it is illegal.

Figure 3.83 Judges make decisions based on law, but ethics may also be a considered in the decision-making process.

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Ethics of organ transplants

Some donated organs, such as kidneys and partial livers, come from living donors. This creates an ethical dilemma for the doctor who is performing the surgery. Should they risk the life of a healthy person to save or improve the life of a patient? Some questions they have to consider are:

- Does the living donor know and understand all the risks?
- What if something goes wrong during surgery and puts the donor's life at risk?
- What if the transplant is rejected by the patient and the organ goes to waste?
- What happens if the donor is left with long-term pain, infection or impaired health after the surgery?

The donor may be under a lot of pressure from friends or family, which can make them feel forced into donating.

At any one time, there are around 1600 people on the Australian organ transplant waiting list. There are many rules in place to ensure that organs are allocated to patients in a fair process that is not affected by race, religion, gender, disability, social status or age, unless an adult organ is too large for a child (or a child's organ is too small for an adult).

There are a very limited number of organs available at any one time, and so the wait for an organ could be anywhere from six months to more than four years. As a result, several factors are used to decide who gets an organ, such as:

- how long the person has been waiting for a transplant
- how well the organ matches the patient
- how urgent the transplant is for the patient's health
- whether the organ can be brought to the person in time.

Try this 3.12

Pros and cons of organ donation

Create a two-way table showing the possible advantages and disadvantages (risks) for both an organ donor and a recipient.

Explore! 3.9

Opt in or opt out?

In some countries, such as Wales and Spain, all adults are automatically registered as organ donors. These adults can 'opt out' of the registration if they do not wish to be an organ donor. Many do not opt out. Spain consequently has one of the shortest waiting times for organ transplants in the world.

Research the current percentage of Australians who are registered organ donors and our average waiting list times, and compare these with Spain's.

Answer the following questions and justify your opinion with evidence.

1 Do you think Australia would benefit from an 'opt out' organ donation system?
2 What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of an 'opt out' system?

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Section 3.7 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **State** the function of the kidneys.
2 **Name** two factors that can damage the kidneys.
3 **Recall** two main challenges that scientists face with xenotransplantation.
4 **Name** the largest internal organ inside a human.
5 **Define** 'organ donor'.
6 **Define** 'organ transplant'.

Understanding

7 **Identify** one organ that can regenerate.
8 **Identify** how Australian rules keep organ donation fair.

Applying

9 **Explain** why transplanted organs may be rejected.
10 **Summarise** how too much salt can be harmful to a person.

Analysing

11 **Distinguish** between ethics and laws.
12 Patients who are waiting for a kidney transplant might undergo daily or weekly dialysis treatment. Dialysis involves attending a hospital and being connected to a machine that filters your blood, and then returns it to your circulation. The graph in Figure 3.84 shows percentage survival rates for patients on dialysis versus patients who have received a kidney transplant. Use the graph to answer the following questions.

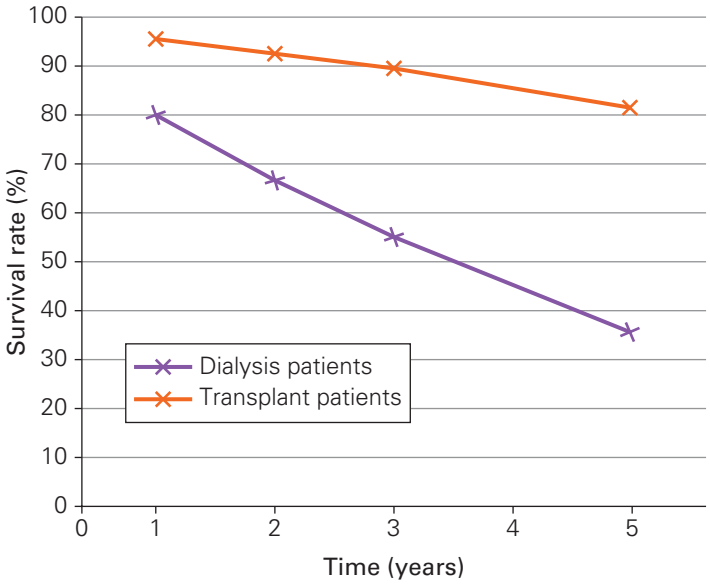

Figure 3.84 The survival rate of patients on dialysis vs patients who have received a kidney transplant

a **Identify** the difference in survival rates at the 1-year mark for dialysis patients versus transplant recipients.
b **Identify** the difference in survival rates at the 5-year mark for dialysis patients versus transplant recipients.
c Using your knowledge of organ transplantation, **reflect on** the difference in survival rates for these two patient populations. (What advantages does transplantation offer?)

Evaluating

13 **Justify** why liver regeneration would be more beneficial than a liver transplant.

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Chapter review

Chapter checklist

In the Interactive Textbook, the success criteria are linked to the review questions and will be automatically ticked when answers are correct. Alternatively, you can download this checklist from the Interactive Textbook to complete it.

Success criteria		Linked question	Check
3.1	I can describe how a specialised cell's structure is related to its function.	4	
3.1	I can recall the levels of organisation in an organism.	12	
3.2	I can describe the process of cellular respiration.	21	
3.2	I can identify the different parts of the respiratory system.	5	
3.3	I can describe how gas exchange occurs in plants.	1	
3.3	I can describe how gas exchange occurs in fish.	10	
3.4	I can identify the different parts of the heart.	2	
3.4	I can describe the structure and function of arteries, veins and capillaries.	17	
3.4	I can recall the different components of blood.	6	
3.5	I can recall the main nutrients that the human body requires.	3	
3.5	I can identify the different parts of the digestive system.	5	
3.5	I can recall the role of enzymes in the digestive system.	7	
3.6	I can compare the digestive systems of carnivores and herbivores.	11, 13	
3.7	I can describe different methods of organ repair and replacement.	9	

Review questions

Remembering

SCORCHER

1 **Define** 'lenticels' and state where they might be found.
2 **Name** the blood vessel that:
   a carries blood away from the heart to the lungs to become oxygenated
   b carries oxygen-rich blood out of the heart
   c returns blood to the heart from the body.
3 **State** four key nutrients that humans need.
4 **State** how the shape of red blood cells relates to their function.

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5 **Identify** the correct word for each of the numbers in Figure 3.85: mouth, liver, larynx, alveoli, diaphragm, tongue, anus, stomach, nasal cavity, trachea, rectum, lung, pancreas, gall bladder, epiglottis, duodenum, large intestine, oesophagus, pharynx, small intestine, bronchus, bronchiole.

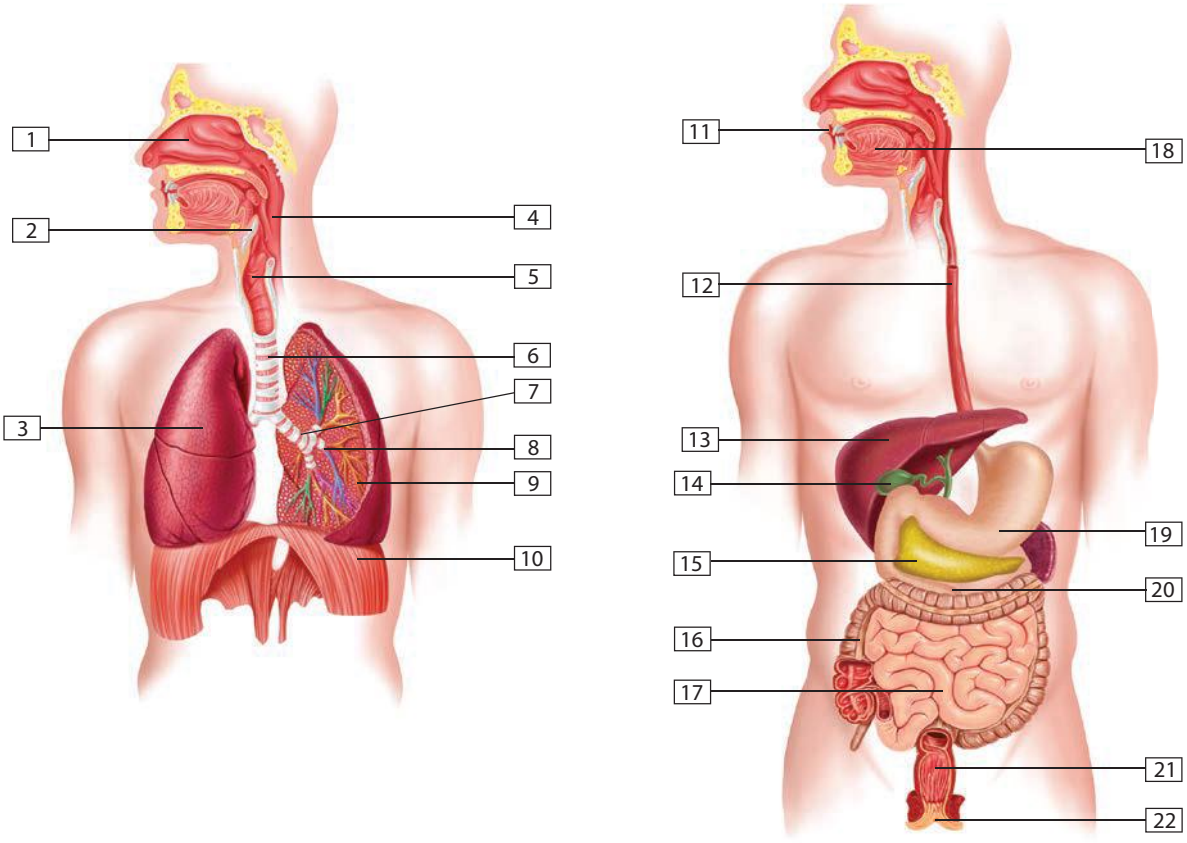

Figure 3.85 Human respiratory (left) and digestive systems (right)

Understanding

6 **Describe** the contents of blood.
7 **Explain** the role of enzymes in the digestive system, using examples.
8 **Explain** the function of the liver.
9 **Explain** what is meant by a 'living donor'.
10 **Summarise** three essential features of gills if they are to efficiently exchange gases and act as lungs for fish.
11 **Explain** why it could be harmful to treat a koala with antibiotics for an infection.

Applying

12 **Sequence** these terms in order of increasing size/complexity: organ, organism, tissue, cell, organ system.
13 **Contrast** the digestive systems of a carnivore and a herbivore.
14 Examine this statement: 'Lactose intolerance should be referred to as lactase deficiency'. **Consider** why this is the case.
15 **Distinguish** between mechanical digestion and chemical digestion.
16 **Contrast** the contents of blood as it leaves your heart to when it returns to the heart.

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Analysing

17 **Distinguish** between an artery, a capillary and a vein in terms of both their structure and function. You may choose to do so in a table as shown.

	Structure	Function
Artery		
Capillary		
Vein		

18 **Compare** the structure and function of villi and alveoli. You may choose to do so in a table as shown.

	Villi	Both	Alveoli
Structure			
Function			

19 Forced vital capacity (FVC) is a measure of how much air a person can blow out in one exhalation. The graph in Figure 3.86 shows the normal values for men (in red) and women (in purple) according to their age. Use the graph to answer the following questions.

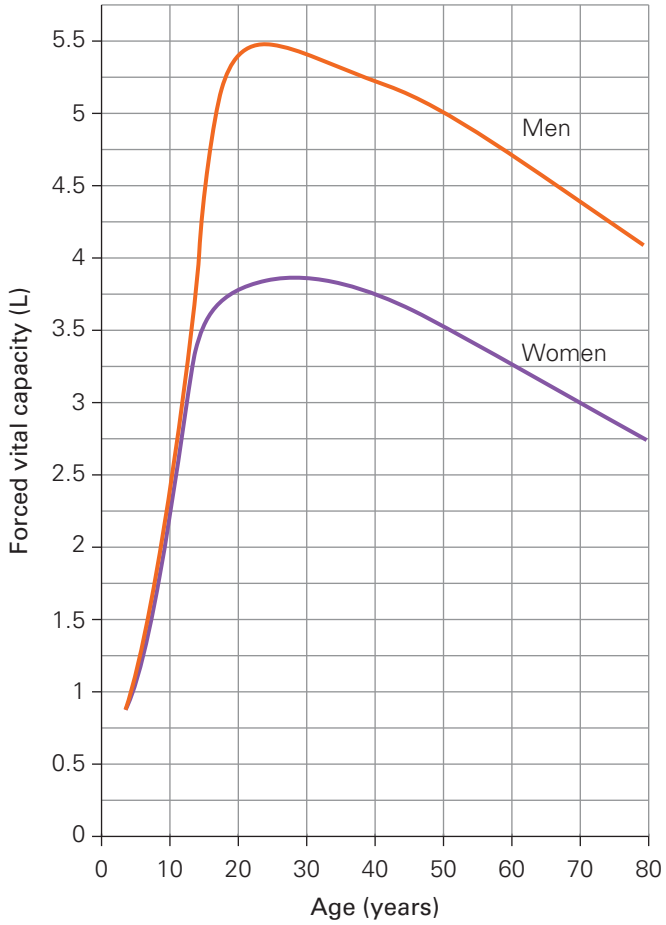

Figure 3.86 Forced vital capacity vs age, for men and women

a **Identify** the average FVC for a male and a female at age 30.
b **Identify** the age range when a person's lung capacity increases the most.
c **Propose** a reason why males tend to have larger FVC than females.

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Evaluating

20 Other than breaking down food, **propose** another function of stomach acid.

21 **Construct** a flow chart or a story that depicts the path taken by a single molecule of oxygen, from when it enters the mouth or nose, to when it enters a cell and diffuses to the mitochondria to be consumed in cellular respiration. Then show how a molecule of carbon dioxide is produced and follow its story until it is exhaled. Make sure you include all relevant parts of the respiratory and circulatory systems.

22 **Propose** two reasons why most frogs need to remain near water.

23 **Construct** a Venn diagram to compare the gas exchange structures of fish, frogs and humans.

24 A child is diagnosed with a rare and potentially fatal condition, but a bone marrow transplant from a matching donor will likely save their life. Neither of the parents is a match, but they are told by doctors that a sibling is likely to be a suitable match. The parents decide to have another child, with the intention that when the baby is born, he or she can provide a bone marrow donation to their sibling. Research what is involved in bone marrow transplantation, and discuss the ethical dilemma these parents face. **Discuss** the pros and cons of the parents' decision, and defend your personal opinion on whether they should or should not have the second child.

Data questions

Biathlon is a winter sport whereby an athlete competes by completing three legs of cross-country skiing and two legs of shooting at a target. In each phase of the race, the biathlon athlete's heart rate will change as the athlete uses energy to ski and then calms themselves for a shooting phase. The heart rate of a biathlon competitor is plotted over the various phases of the race in Figure 3.87. The relationship between maximum heart rate (HR_{max}) and age of the athlete is shown in Figure 3.88 on the following page.

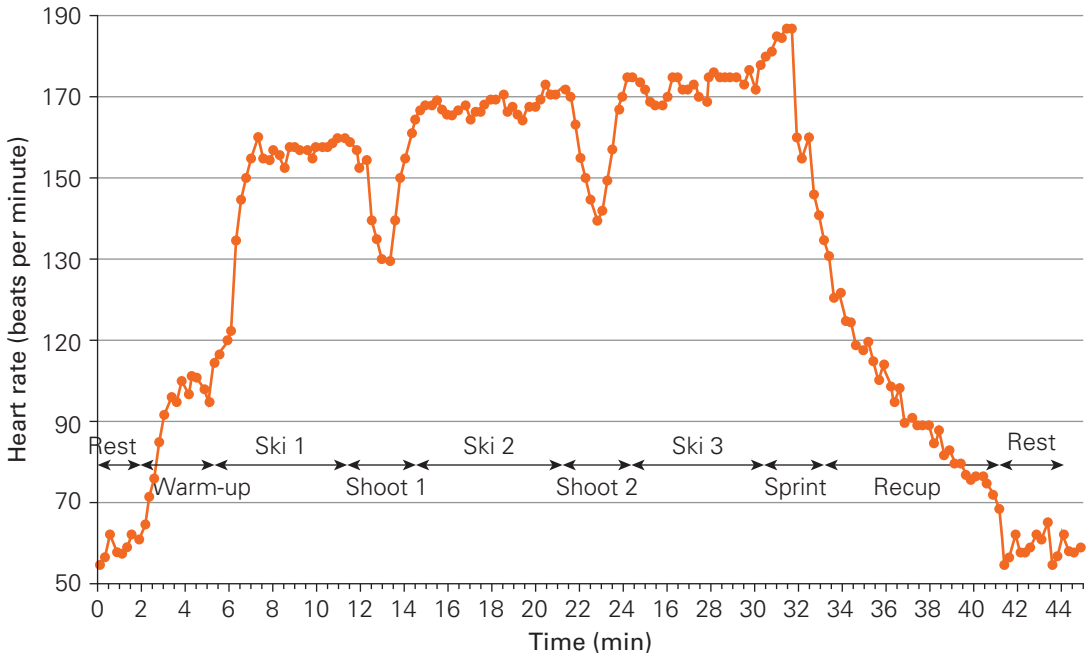

Figure 3.87 The heart rate of an athlete during a biathlon race including warm-up, three ski phases, two shootings, a final sprint and a recuperation phase.

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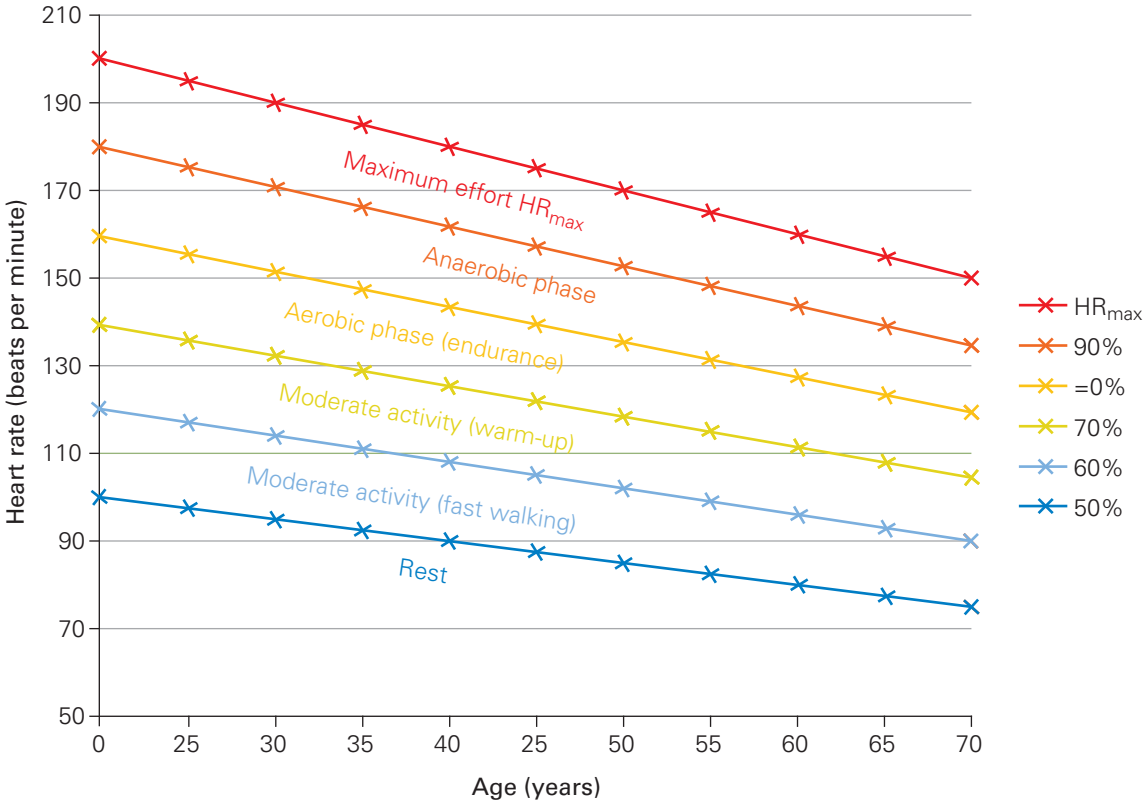

Figure 3.88 Activity intensity linked to the average human heart rate as a function of age. (Following the commonly accepted relation HR_{max} = 220 – age)

1. With knowledge that the heart rate is higher during the ski periods and lower for the shooting periods, **identify** the time range for each of the three ski periods and the two shooting periods.
2. **Identify** when the athlete's heart is beating at its lowest rate.
3. **Calculate** the duration of the athlete's recuperation phase, when the heart rate goes from its highest back to the resting pace.
4. Using the graph in Figure 3.87, **identify** the potential age of the athlete, knowing his HR_{max} is 190, and that HR_{max} = 220 – age.
5. **Identify** the relationship between the heart rate during the successive ski periods and the fatigue of the athlete across the race.
6. **Contrast** the heart rate between 24 and 30 minutes (third ski phase), and between 30 and 32 minutes (final sprint).
7. Another athlete in the race was 40 years old and had a heart rate of 150 beats per minute during the second shooting phase. **Deduce** the activity intensity for this athlete during this phase.
8. **Infer** whether or not the heart rate of the athlete during the ski phase would be identical on a longer race with five ski periods and four shootings.
9. **Predict** the maximum heart rate of a 70-year-old athlete running a marathon if the athlete was using the maximum effort.

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STEM activity: Clearing a blocked artery

Background information

Many people experience heart conditions that are life threatening. An example is coronary artery disease (CAD), a major cause of death in Australia. Many heart conditions can be treated with medication, and some require surgery. Other conditions, such as dilated cardiomyopathy, CAD and heart-related birth defects, can only be treated with a heart transplant. However, sadly, the number of people on waiting lists for heart transplants is far greater than the number of donor hearts available.

When a person has CAD, substances including cholesterol, calcium and fat deposit on the walls of their coronary arteries. These deposits make the coronary arteries narrower, reducing the blood supply to the heart, and therefore reducing the supply of oxygen to the heart muscle.

Two ways of using surgery to overcome this problem of blocked coronary arteries are shown in Figures 3.89 and 3.90.

It is important to note that neither of these methods actually cleans the plaque away. This is because blood vessels are fragile, and cleaning the plaque would cause it to dislodge, which is dangerous because it might then completely block a narrower blood vessel, causing a heart attack.

Design brief: Design a device and a procedure to clear blocked arteries while trapping the dislodged plaque.

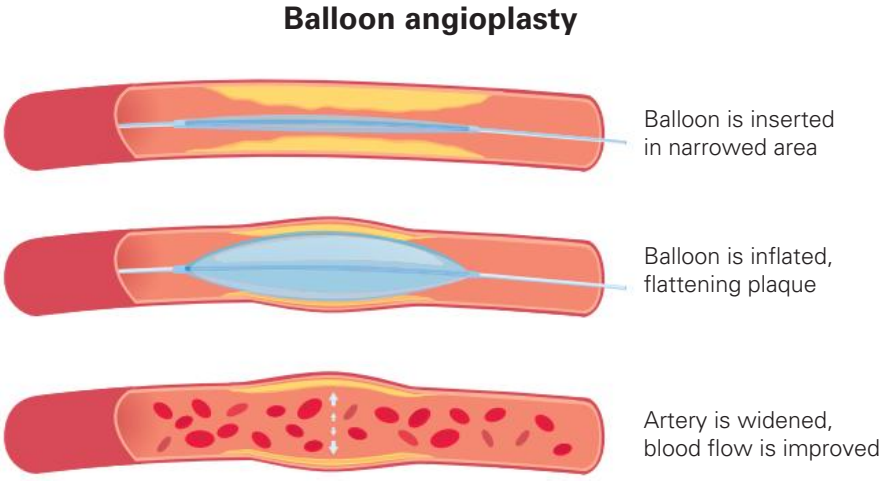

Figure 3.89 In angioplasty, a small 'balloon' is inflated inside the artery, which pushes the plaque aside and widens the vessel.

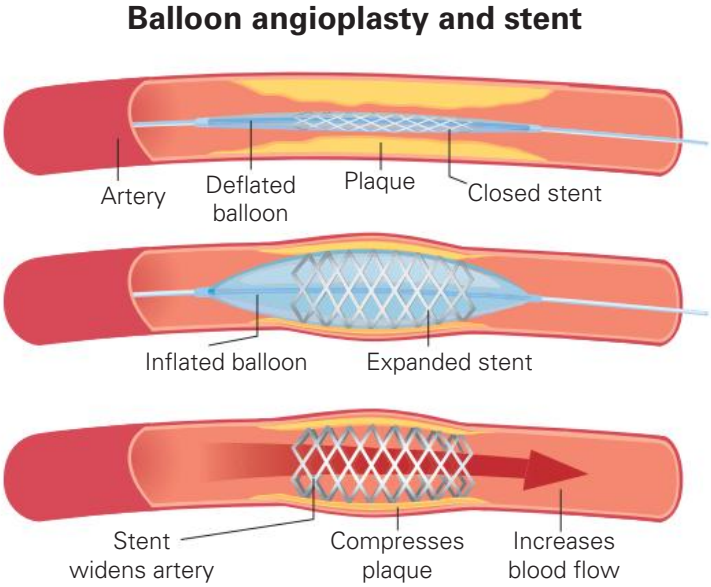

Figure 3.90 Many people have a stent inserted inside the artery after the artery has been widened by angioplasty. A stent is a small tube made of plastic or metal that is inserted into the artery to prevent it narrowing again.

Activity instructions

In groups of three or four, you will design a device along with the procedure to unblock an artery. As part of the design brief, your device and procedure will also need to trap any of the plaque that is cleared out.

You can only insert any devices from the top end of the 'artery' tube (see Figure 3.91).

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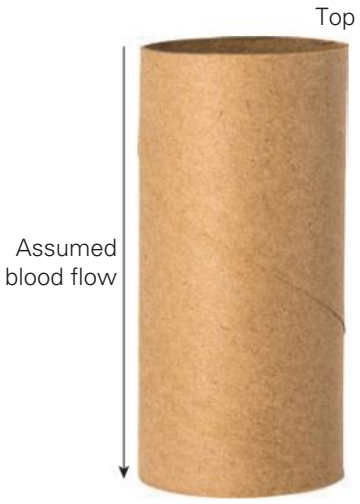

Figure 3.91 A model of an artery

Suggested materials

- model of a blocked artery, created using a tube or a toilet roll tube and modelling clay
- paperclips
- string
- popsicle sticks
- cloth
- glue
- tape
- cardboard
- paper

Research and feasibility

1 As a group, discuss your understanding of the problem. Discuss the materials you have available and any constraints you may have in your design.

2 As a group, research methods of filtration, and reflect on their suitability for trapping dislodged plaque.

Method of filtration	How it works	Usability of filtration method for trapping plaque
E.g. mesh/ sieve	The mesh stops objects that are larger than the hole size	Mesh would stop plaque of a certain size, the mesh size and material would need to be thought of.

Design and sustainability

3 Research materials used in surgery, and as a group, think about the sustainability of these materials. Use this information when considering your design.

4 As individuals, sketch your own solution(s) to the design brief and then share as a group. Annotate each group member's sketches and together sketch your preferred model, making note of annotations for your design.

Create

5 As a group, build the model you first agreed on and then test it for effectiveness. You may wish to create a table such as the one below.

	Prototype 1	Prototype 2
Time taken for cleaning plaque		
Difficulty of procedure		
Percentage estimate of dislodged plaque caught in trap		

6 Modify your model and test it again. Test as many prototypes as possible in the available time.

Evaluate and modify

7 For each model that you created, discuss how effectively the model performed. Consider how long the procedure was and how difficult it was to carry out. Evaluate how effective the 'trap' was at catching the dislodged pieces – how much of the plaque did it catch?

8 Imagine you had to do this procedure on a real patient. Discuss the limitations of your model of a blocked artery, and how your device and procedure might need to be modified to better reflect real life.

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Chapter 4
Reproduction

Chapter introduction

Reproduction is the means by which populations continue to survive on Earth. If a species fails to reproduce, it will become extinct. In this chapter, you will explore the different modes of reproduction, and the structures and mechanisms behind them.

Humans have become adept at extending our lifespan, thanks to scientific discoveries and modern medicine. Technology such as IVF (in vitro fertilisation) now allows us to assist people who are finding it difficult to become pregnant. We also manipulate how some other organisms reproduce – examples are agricultural techniques for food crops and animals, and breeding programs for endangered animals.

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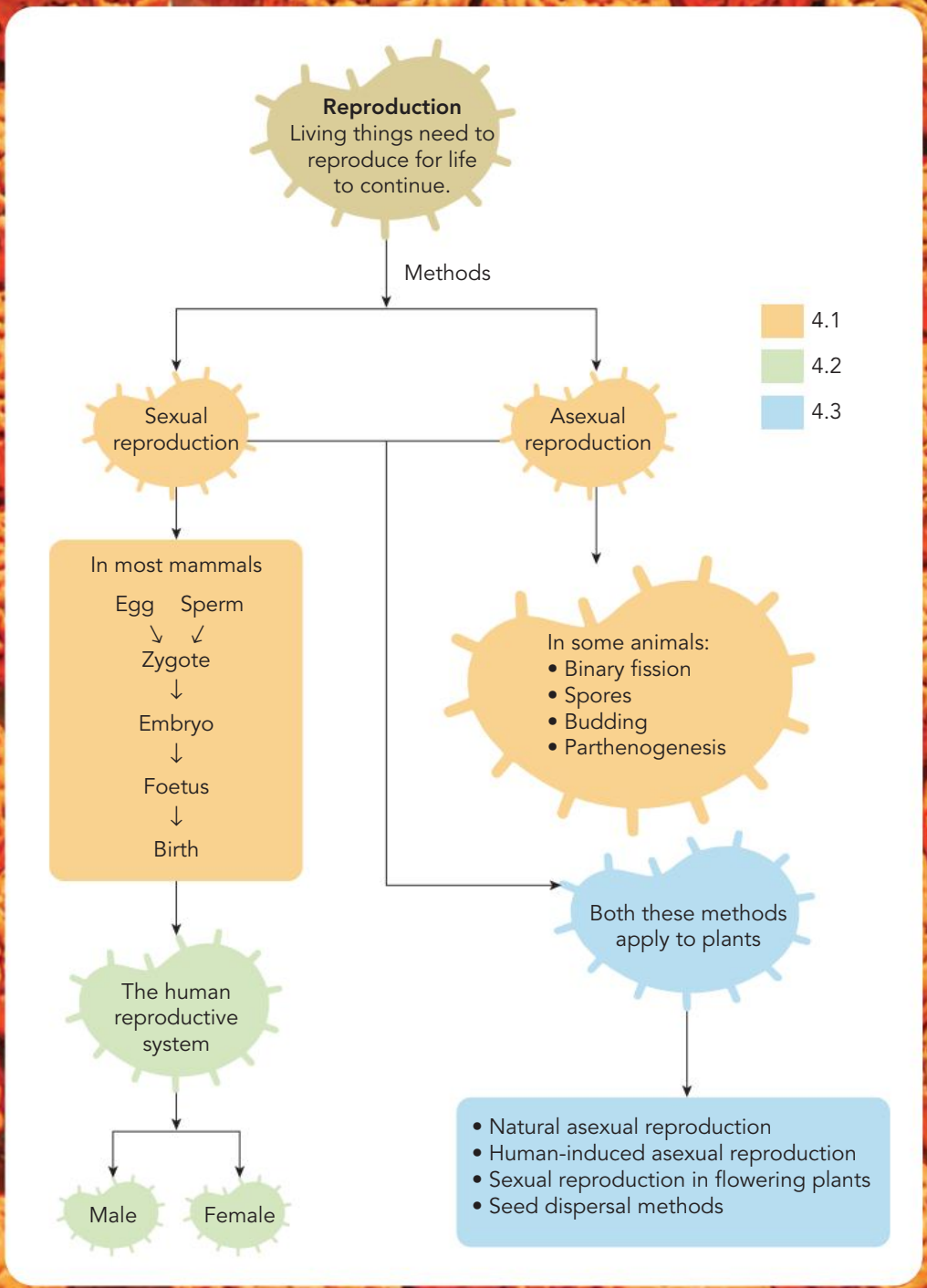
Chapter map



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4.1 Asexual and sexual reproduction in animals

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to define asexual and sexual reproduction as well as internal and external fertilisation.
2 To be able to outline the stages of embryonic development.
3 To be able to describe the methods of asexual reproduction.

asexual reproduction
a method of reproduction in which there is one parent organism and all offspring are genetically identical

sexual reproduction
a method of reproduction in which there are two parent organisms and genetic variation in the offspring

gametes
the sex cells (eggs and sperm), each of which contains half the genetic material required to make an organism

gonads
the reproductive organs, where gametes are produced; testes for males and ovaries for females

zygote
a fertilised egg cell

embryo
a fertilised egg in the early stages of growth and differentiation; in humans, this would be from between two and eight weeks after fertilisation

Every living thing will eventually die. Therefore, in order for life to continue, organisms need to produce more of their own kind through the process of reproduction.

There are two main types of reproduction: asexual and sexual.

Asexual reproduction occurs when organisms make an exact copy of themselves. There is no need for a second parent.

Sexual reproduction involves the genetic input of two parents, and tends to result in offspring with lots of variation. Humans reproduce by sexual reproduction. This means that, while siblings might look similar, they are rarely identical.

Sexual reproduction

Sexual reproduction requires two organisms of the same species to each contribute a special cell that combines with the other to produce a new, unique offspring.

VIDEO
Contrast asexual and sexual reproduction

Sexual reproduction requires a sperm cell from the male and an egg cell from the female to combine. These cells each contain half the genetic information needed to form a new organism of the same species. These cells are called **gametes** and they form in the **gonads** of males and females. The male gonads are the testes and the female gonads are the ovaries.

When an egg cell and a sperm cell meet, they combine to form a fertilised egg, called a **zygote**. This cell has the correct amount of genetic material and it can begin to replicate by mitosis, which you may remember from Chapter 2, in which eukaryotic cells make copies of themselves. As this new cell replicates and becomes many cells, it grows and the cells take on special functions. The zygote will eventually develop into the **embryo** of the organism.

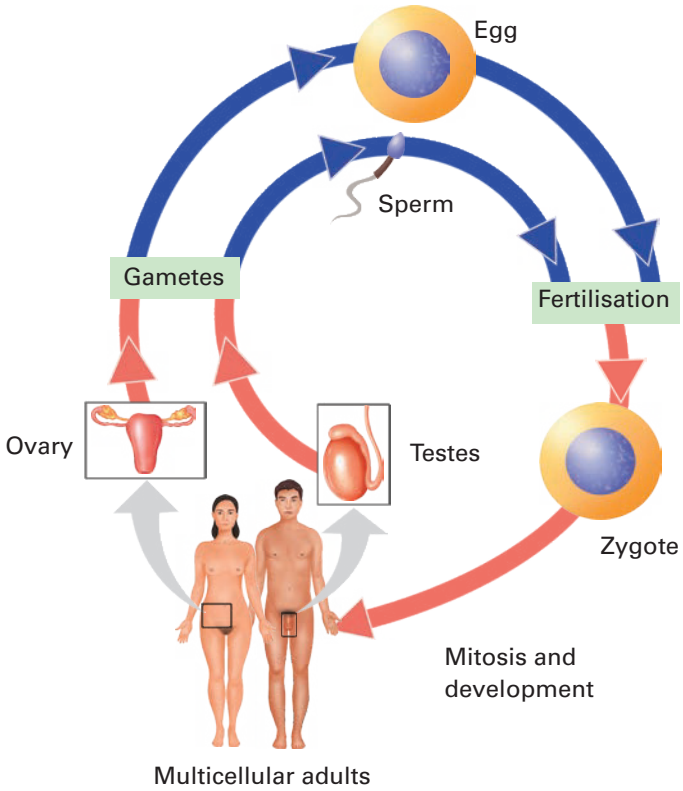

Figure 4.1 The human reproductive cycle

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Quick check 4.1

1 Define the following key terms: asexual reproduction, sexual reproduction, gametes, gonads, zygote, embryo.
2 Recall the number of parents involved in asexual and sexual reproduction.
3 Name the female and male gonads, and name the female and male gametes.

Did you know? 4.1

Courtship

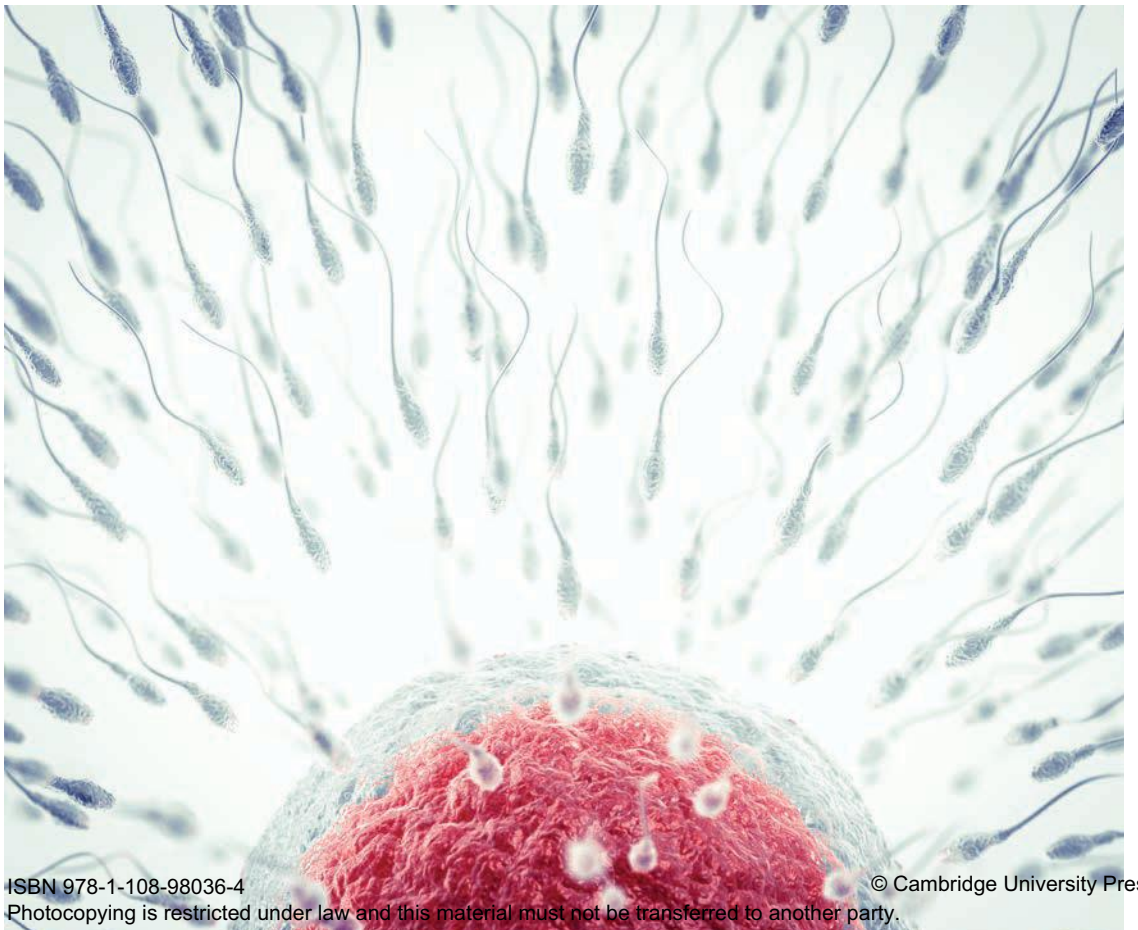
Attracting a mate is essential in sexual reproduction. Many animals, such as birds, use elaborate and impressive courtship rituals to signal to the opposite sex that they are ready to mate. Some adaptations stimulate the mating process and can include:

- behavioural adaptations, such as special mating calls (songs) or dances
- physical adaptations, such as special feathers or colour patches
- physiological adaptations, such as releasing hormones called pheromones to attract a mate.

Figure 4.2 A male peacock, starting his performance

The male peacock puts on an impressive display to attract prospective females. He has a vibrant train of feathers in iridescent colours. If the peahen is suitably impressed, she will crouch on the ground. The peacock then advances, emits a 'hoot' and makes a short dash towards the peahen.

Figure 4.3 Many sperm cells will try, but only one will manage to fertilise one egg cell.



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internal fertilisation
a mode of fertilisation in which male gametes are delivered into the female reproductive system and fertilisation takes place inside the female

external fertilisation
a mode of fertilisation in which gametes are released into the environment and fertilisation occurs outside the body

Fertilisation methods

In mammals, fertilisation takes place within the body of the female – this is known as **internal fertilisation**. This method of fertilisation is important for animals that live on land, as it protects the gametes and zygote from drying out. In most mammals, development of the embryo is also internal, which protects the embryo from any threats in the outside world.

Although other land animals such as reptiles and birds also have internal fertilisation, the development of their young happens externally, in waterproof eggs.

Figure 4.4 Internal fertilisation allows reproduction on land without gametes drying out.

Figure 4.5 Internal fertilisation in most reptiles is followed by external embryo development.

Figure 4.6 A school of fish and a cloud of gametes that have been released in external fertilisation

External fertilisation takes place outside the parent animals and usually requires the animals to be aquatic or semi-aquatic, such as amphibians. This is because the eggs and sperm are expelled from the organisms' bodies and unite in water.

Because the eggs and sperm are released outside the body, it is harder for them to meet, and the fertilised eggs have little protection. This means that organisms that reproduce in this manner have to produce lots of eggs and sperm cells, and release them all at the same time and reasonably close to each other.

Some potential problems with this method of fertilisation are that the:

- eggs and sperm may not meet
- eggs may be eaten by predators
- environmental conditions may not be favourable (e.g. a strong current in the wrong direction).

Quick check 4.2

1 Define the following key terms: internal fertilisation, external fertilisation.
2 State the type of fertilisation that occurs in mammals.
3 Describe some advantages of internal fertilisation and some disadvantages of external fertilisation.

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Gestation

Gestation is the term used to describe how long an embryo takes to develop inside the mother to the point where it can survive outside her body. In humans, the gestation period is called 'pregnancy' and usually takes about 280 days (9 months). This time varies between mammals.

Figure 4.7 A heavily pregnant dog. Dogs have a gestation period of approximately 63 days.

Stages of embryonic development in humans

In humans, the time from fertilisation to birth is around 40 weeks.

gestation
the pregnancy period, when the offspring are developing inside the mother

differentiation
the process by which stem cells become specialised

Egg to zygote

The unfertilised egg is released from the ovary and travels along the fallopian tube towards the uterus (see Figure 4.8). There is a 12–24 hour window in which the egg can unite with a sperm cell and become fertilised after it has been released. When fertilised, it is referred to as a zygote.

Zygote to embryo

The zygote undergoes cell division and splits into two cells, then these cells divide, and so on, forming a ball of cells. Over five days, the ball of cells moves along the fallopian tube and then implants into the wall of the uterus. The cells continue to divide and begin to specialise, and make up what is now referred to as an embryo.

Embryonic stage

The embryo continues to divide repeatedly, and the cells **differentiate** to become everything from neurons to liver cells to skin cells. The embryonic stage continues from week two to week eight. In humans, during this critical period, the developing embryo is susceptible to the effects of alcohol, diseases and drugs, which can lead to birth defects

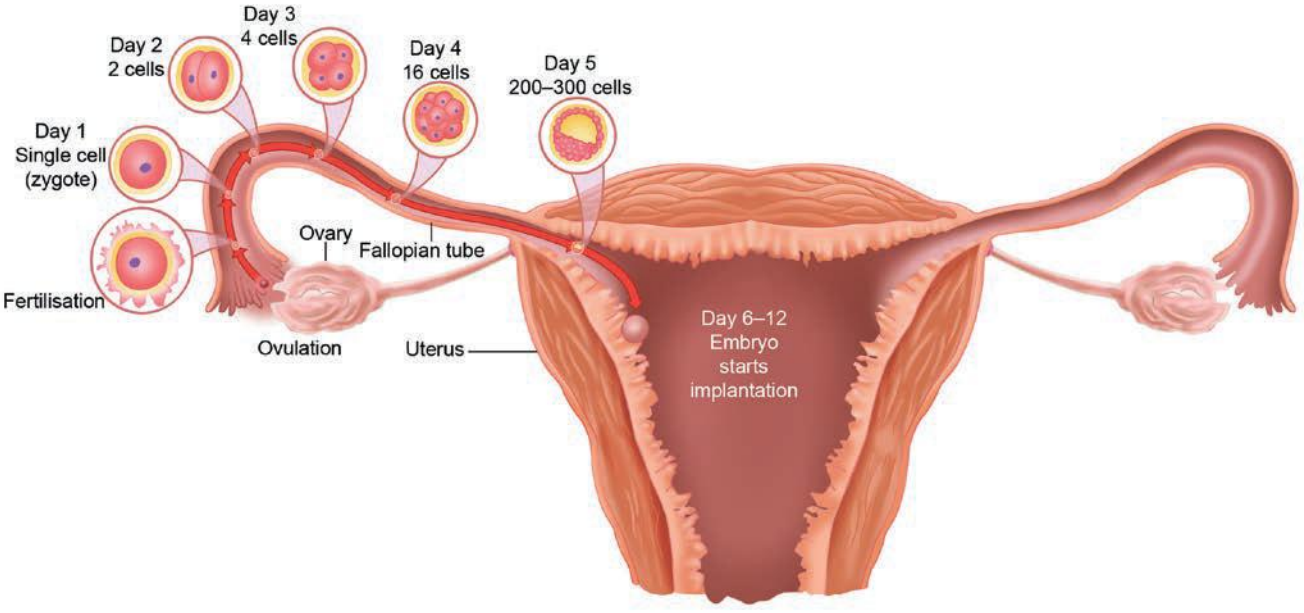

Figure 4.8 The development of the embryo in the female reproductive system

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such as limb abnormalities or problems with brain development. By the eighth week, all major organs are present but not fully developed.

Foetal stage

The foetal stage lasts from around week eight to birth. This is a time of rapid growth, and the organs become fully developed and functional. Alcohol, disease and drugs can still have an impact during the foetal stage of development.

VIDEO Microscopic view of an IVF procedure

Figure 4.9 A model of a foetus that is nearly full term and ready to be born

Explore! 4.1

Investigating gestation and development

How much time does it take different animals to develop from an embryo to infant form? Conduct research to answer the question and then copy and complete the table below.

Animal	Gestation period	Time until they can walk/move	Time relying on parent for food	Average life span
Human	280 days			
Pig				
Elephant				
Choose your own animal				

Science as a human endeavour 4.1

Reproductive technologies

Some people have difficulty conceiving (becoming pregnant) naturally, due to age or certain medical conditions. If a person or animal is unable to produce gametes, they are termed 'sterile'. Humans have developed sophisticated reproductive technologies such as IVF (in vitro fertilisation) to assist pregnancy. In 1944, a lab technician called Miriam Menkin managed to combine gametes in a Petri dish, but it wasn't until 1978 that the first successful human IVF birth occurred. Since then, the practice has become increasingly common, with more than eight million babies being born from IVF treatment.

Some features of the IVF method:

- The female might take extra hormones to encourage release of multiple eggs (egg release is called ovulation).
- Eggs are harvested surgically.
- An egg is fertilised by a sperm in a laboratory.
- The fertilised egg is incubated and allowed to begin cell replication. When it has reached a size of around four cells (after 36–48 hours), it is implanted back into the woman's uterus.

Figure 4.10 American bison living in Colorado are at risk of becoming an endangered species. IVF technology may be a way to rectify this.

Reproductive technology also has implications for conservation efforts. For example, bison numbers in Colorado, United States, are so low that these animals are at risk of becoming endangered. IVF has been used to produce healthy bison to introduce to wild herds. In 2018, four bison calves and their mothers were released into a northern Colorado herd, including a 10-month-old calf named IVF. IVF technology is now being used in the conservation efforts of approximately 10 endangered species, including the Puerto Rican crested toad and northern white rhino.

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Quick check 4.3

1 Define 'gestation'.
2 Recall the length of the gestation period in humans.
3 Copy and complete the following table to summarise the stages of embryonic development in humans.

Stage	Time	Description
Egg to zygote		
Zygote to embryo		
Embryonic stage		
Foetal stage		

Birth

When a human baby is ready to be born, the woman goes into labour – which, as the name suggests, can be hard work, lasting anywhere from a few hours to days. The cervix dilates and the uterus contracts, pushing the baby out of the vagina. The baby is usually born head first. However, situations such as a breech birth, where the baby's feet come out first, can result in a medical emergency and the baby may need to be removed surgically. This is done by making an incision across the woman's abdomen, called a caesarean section (C-section).

Development

Most mammals develop internally in the uterus of the mother and are born looking relatively similar to an adult organism. Internally developing organisms, including humans, receive nutrition directly from the mother, via the umbilical cord. Marsupials, such as kangaroos, are unique because the young are born in an extremely under-developed state, exiting the vagina when they are the same size as a jellybean! They must then climb up the mother's front and into her pouch where they continue to develop (Figure 4.11).

Figure 4.11 A kangaroo joey. After being born, the joey wriggles its way into its mother's pouch to feed.

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Baby birds, reptiles, amphibians and insects tend to develop externally – outside the mother. They develop inside an egg and hatch once they are sufficiently equipped to survive in the world.

Parenting

Since birth, you have been looked after by adults. However, not all organisms care for their young. Insects, fish and some other simple organisms do not look after their young at all after they have laid their eggs. For example, moths lay their eggs on the under-surface of leaves to hide them from predators and to provide them with a food source when they eventually emerge as a caterpillar. However, the female moths do not remain to protect them.

Figure 4.12 Caterpillars hatching under a leaf have to survive without the protection of their mother.

Figure 4.13 A western grey kangaroo mother provides a safe environment for her offspring.

Animals that do not look after their young often produce large numbers of eggs, increasing the chance that some of the offspring will survive predation, disease and competition and develop to adulthood.

More advanced animals such as birds, mammals and even some frogs look after their fertilised eggs and their newborn offspring, which increases their chance of survival.

Did you know? 4.2

The male midwife toad

The male midwife toad is a dedicated father. He carries around the fertilised eggs, which he wraps around his back legs after mating. After about three weeks, when the eggs are ready to hatch, he will find an appropriate body of water where he will allow the tadpoles to emerge from their eggs and begin their independent life.

Figure 4.14 A male midwife toad, carrying fertilised eggs

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Asexual reproduction

Some organisms reproduce asexually, without the input of a partner. This method of reproduction is useful for organisms that are isolated from other members of their species or cannot move easily. Asexual reproduction can also be useful because it is fast and does not require time and energy to find a mate. The offspring produced are clones, genetically identical to the parent. If the parent is well adapted to the environment, this is a good thing. However, if environmental conditions change or a disease is introduced that the organisms are susceptible to, it can lead to the extinction of a whole species.

In asexual reproduction, one cell becomes two, and there are many different ways this can occur. There are several types of asexual reproduction, including binary fission, fragmentation, spore formation, budding and parthenogenesis.

Binary fission

Bacteria and some simple unicellular organisms, such as amoeba, reproduce by splitting in half. This process is known as **binary fission**. The genetic material is copied, and then the cell constricts and splits down the centre, resulting in two identical daughter cells (Figure 4.15). This is similar to mitosis that occurs in eukaryotic organisms.

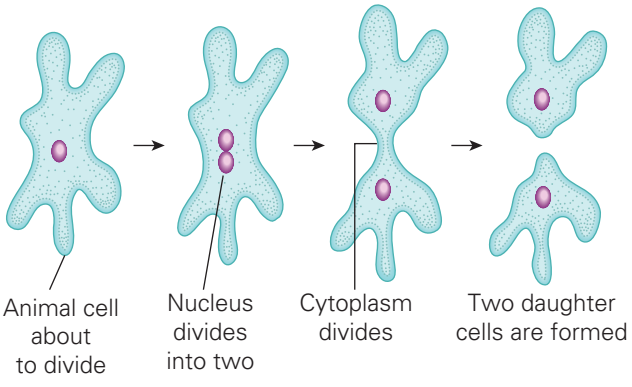

Figure 4.15 Binary fission in an amoeba (a unicellular organism)

Fragmentation

Some multicellular organisms, such as flatworms and sea stars, also reproduce asexually by **fragmentation**. If you cut a flatworm in half, both ends can regenerate and it will become two flatworms (Figure 4.16).

Figure 4.16 Fragmentation in a flatworm

Spore formation

Fungi and some plants, such as ferns, produce single-celled **spores** that are released into the environment (Figure 4.17). These spores are carried by the wind and land at a new location, where some develop into a genetically identical version of the parent organism. The spore is actually a clump of unspecialised cells surrounded by a protective coating. Note that spores can be formed by sexual or asexual reproduction.

binary fission
a mode of asexual reproduction by bacteria, where genetic information is copied and the cell splits in half

fragmentation
a mode of asexual reproduction where organisms can be cut in half and regrow into two genetically identical organisms

spore
an asexual reproductive cell produced by organisms such as fungi and ferns

Figure 4.17 Common puffball fungus releasing spores

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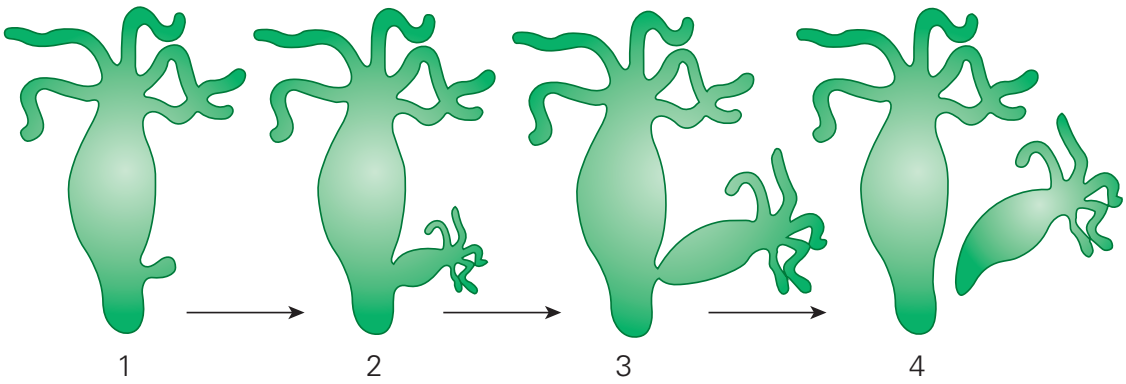

Figure 4.18 Budding in a hydra

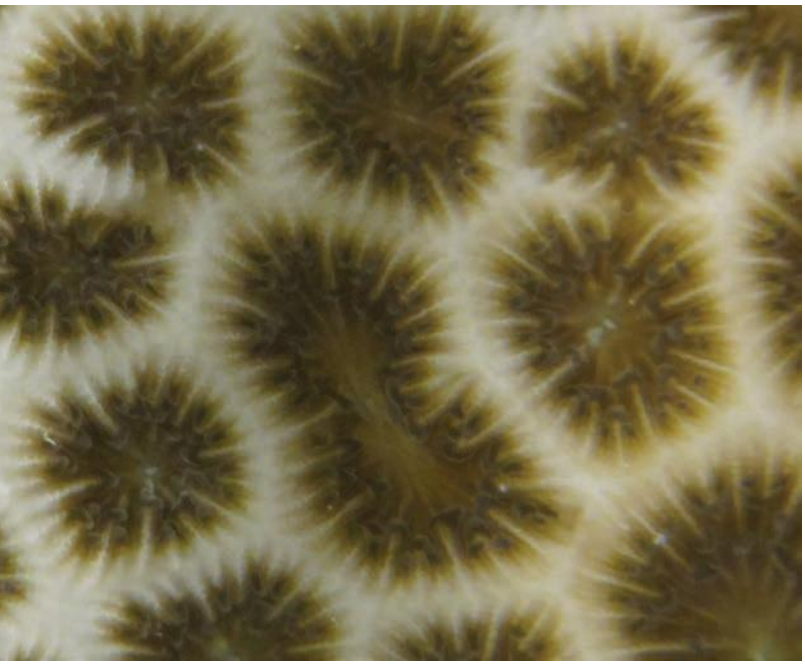

Figure 4.19 Corals reproduce asexually by fragmentation or budding. In the centre, a *Leptastrea purpurea* coral polyp has produced a large bud, which will split off.

Figure 4.20 In some species, such as stick insects, the females can reproduce by parthenogenesis.

budding
a mode of asexual reproduction by organisms such as yeast and hydra, where the daughter offspring grows off the side of the parent and drops off

parthenogenesis
a mode of asexual reproduction where females give birth to unfertilised eggs that hatch to produce offspring that are genetically identical to the mother

Budding

Yeasts and simple aquatic animals, such as coral or hydra, reproduce asexually by **budding** (Figures 4.18 and 4.19). A genetically identical daughter grows and develops on the side of the parent organism, before dropping off and continuing to live independently.

Parthenogenesis

Parthenogenesis comes from the Greek words for 'virgin birth' and is a form of asexual reproduction where an egg develops into an embryo without being fertilised. It is relatively common in a number of invertebrate species, but less so in vertebrates. Organisms such as bees and certain lizards lay unfertilised eggs which hatch to produced genetically identical copies of the mother. The resulting population is female because growth and development of embryos occurs with all genes inherited from the mother.

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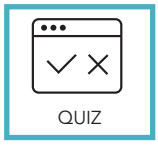
Quick check 4.4

1 State two advantages of asexual reproduction.
2 State one disadvantage of producing genetically identical offspring.
3 Name four types of asexual reproduction and give an example of an organism that uses each method.

Try this 4.1

Asexual vs sexual reproduction
Draw a Venn diagram comparing asexual and sexual reproduction. Remember, the overlapping section of the circles is for characteristics that both types of reproduction share.

Section 4.1 questions



Remembering

1 **Recall** the two types of reproduction.
2 **State** the two cells that sexual reproduction needs.
3 **Define** 'gamete'.
4 **Recall** where gametes are made.

Understanding

5 **Explain** why an aquatic animal can use external fertilisation more easily than a land-dwelling animal can.
6 **Explain** why it could be advantageous for an organism to reproduce asexually.
7 **Summarise** the benefits of internal fertilisation.

Applying

8 **Contrast** internal and external fertilisation.
9 **Distinguish** between sexual and asexual reproduction.
10 **Connect** methods of fertilisation with methods of embryo development, in relation to where they take place – internally or externally. Include examples. Consider why for an animal a particular method of embryo development might not go with a particular method of fertilisation.
11 **Construct** a short timeline of the human gestation period. Ensure you include the terms egg, zygote, embryo and foetus.

Analysing

12 Many courtship displays demonstrate a male individual's strength through physical feats, or their health through the vibrancy of their colourings. **Discuss** why this would be useful information for the female.

Evaluating

13 **Propose** why organisms produced by asexual reproduction are sometimes called clones.
14 A brand new species of lizard is discovered, and a zoologist captures a female of the species. One year later, the lizard lays eggs that hatch into many female lizards. **Determine** the method of reproduction she has used.

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4.2 The human reproductive system

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to label the main parts of the female and male reproductive systems.
2 To be able to outline the stages of the female menstrual cycle.

puberty
the time of transition from juvenile form to adult form

ovum
an egg, or a female gamete

ovulation
the release of an ovum (egg) from the ovary into the fallopian tube

menstruation
the cyclical shedding of the unfertilised egg and the uterine lining; also known as the menstrual period

Humans reproduce sexually via internal fertilisation, and have highly specialised body systems to support this process. Females and males have some structural similarities: both possess gonads, which are the site of gamete production, although many of the other structures are different.

Female reproductive system

When a female is born, she has between 1 million and 2 million eggs in her ovaries, in tiny sacs called follicles. Most of these eggs will be lost by the time she reaches **puberty**. Once she reaches puberty, one egg (**ovum**) is released into the fallopian tube each month, through a process called **ovulation**. If this egg is not fertilised, then the uterine lining is shed (along with the egg) and the woman experiences **menstruation** (a menstrual period).

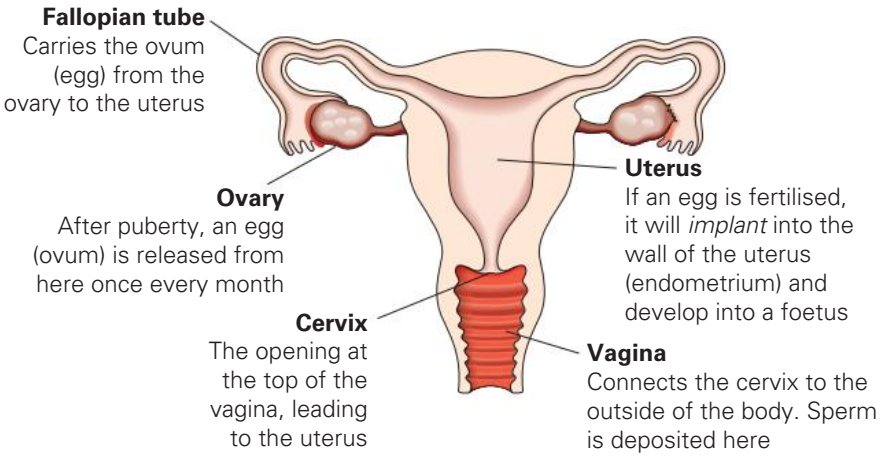

Figure 4.21 The female reproductive system

Did you know? 4.3

More than one uterus

Animals such as rabbits have a branched uterus, which allows many foetuses to develop at the same time, even as many as 14! However, this is not the only factor in the rabbit's rapid rate of reproduction. Rabbits also have a gestation period of 28–31 days, which means a single female could give birth to 168 live young every year! This is why it is illegal to possess a rabbit in Queensland without proper authorisation. Due to their quick rate of reproduction, rabbits are considered a risk to agriculture and native flora and fauna.

Figure 4.22 Rabbits breed quickly and in large numbers.

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Male reproductive system

Gamete production in males is a little different from that in females: once a male reaches puberty, he starts to produce **sperm** in his **testes**. The testes are suspended from the body in a sac called the **scrotum**, which is around 3°C cooler than core body temperature as sperm production is best at this temperature.

Sperm are around 0.05 mm long and are well adapted for swimming through the mucus of the vagina and the uterus to reach the egg. Each sperm has a long whiplike tail that beats in a corkscrew motion to propel the sperm forwards. They also have many mitochondria in their midpiece to provide energy for swimming, and a sac of enzymes in their head to digest through the egg membrane. Unlike eggs, sperm are produced in huge quantities throughout a male's life.

sperm
the male reproductive cell, or gamete

testes
the male reproductive gland that produces sperm

scrotum
a sac that encloses the testes

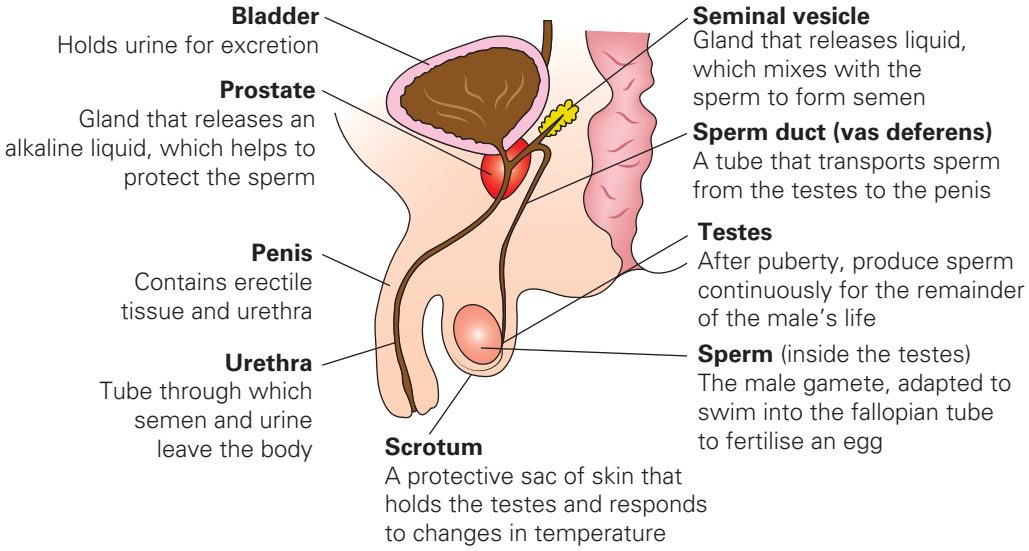

Figure 4.23 The male reproductive system

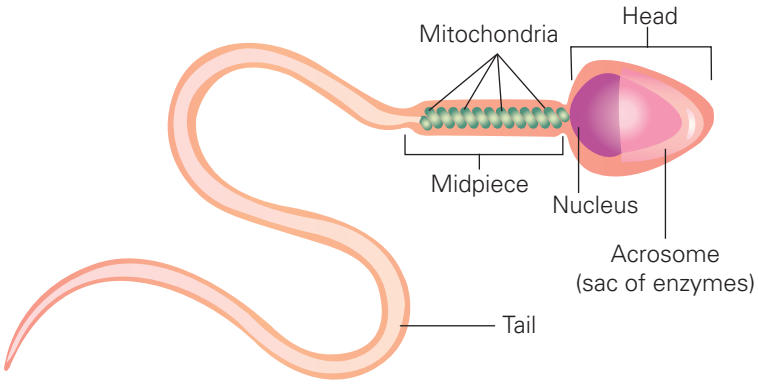

Figure 4.24 Sperm with its adaptations

Quick check 4.5

1. Recall where eggs are released from and what structure they pass into in the female reproductive system.
2. Describe what happens when an egg is released but not fertilised.
3. Recall what the vas deferens is.
4. Draw up a table to summarise the parts of the female and male reproductive systems and their function.

Try this 4.2

Model/diagram

Construct a model or a diagram showing the structures of the female reproductive system and the process of fertilisation (from ovulation until the zygote implants in the uterine wall).

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Puberty

All animals develop from a juvenile form into their adult form early in their lives. This process involves many **hormones** that stimulate growth and changes in their bodies. This process of change is called puberty.

hormone
a chemical produced by cells that controls and regulates different processes in the body

Goats, chickens, sheep and cows all go through puberty within their first year of life. In humans, puberty comes later. Girls go through puberty at 9–14 years, and boys go through puberty at 12–16 years. This is why girls are often taller than boys in Years 7 and 8. However, puberty happens at different times for everyone and this is perfectly normal.

When humans go through puberty, they grow rapidly, start getting hair around their genitalia and become sexually mature, meaning that they can produce offspring. The main hormones involved in puberty are testosterone, follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), luteinising hormone (LH), growth hormone, oestrogen and progesterone. Growth hormone and LH make you grow taller and stimulate hair follicles around the body to produce more hair, most noticeably on the face, legs, groin and armpits. FSH triggers eggs to develop in the ovaries of females and LH will then trigger ovulation.

Figure 4.25 The development of body hair is common during puberty.

Explore! 4.2

Puberty

Some of the changes you experience during puberty have already been mentioned, but what else happens?

1. Draw outlines of a female and a male on two separate pieces of paper.
2. Conduct some research and annotate your diagrams with the changes that occur during puberty and where they occur. If you can explain what causes the change, include that too.

In males, testosterone causes the testes to enlarge and produce sperm, the voice deepens and muscle size increases. Increased testosterone levels can also lead to more oil production on the skin and an increase in sweating. Both these attributes can lead to an increase in acne and body odour.

Figure 4.26 Some unpleasant side effects of puberty: body odour and acne

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In females, oestrogen and progesterone stimulate the eggs in the ovaries to develop and breast tissue to grow. Females might also notice that their hips widen and they begin to develop more fat around this area. These hormones prompt the **menstrual cycle** to begin.

menstrual cycle
a cycle controlled by hormones to prepare the body for fertilisation of an egg; if fertilisation does not occur, menstruation will follow

The menstrual cycle

Hormones control a woman's menstrual cycle, which usually lasts around 28 days (Figure 4.27).

1. The pituitary gland in the brain releases FSH.
2. FSH causes one of the eggs in the ovary to mature. It also stimulates the ovaries to make oestrogen.
3. Oestrogen stimulates the pituitary gland to release LH.
4. LH triggers the release of an egg (ovulation).
5. Oestrogen also inhibits any more production of FSH (stopping other eggs maturing). It also repairs the uterine lining (endometrium).
6. Once the egg has been released, progesterone is produced by the empty follicle (called the corpus luteum or a yellow body). This maintains the uterus lining and inhibits LH.
   - **a** If a woman becomes pregnant, the follicle continues to produce progesterone and a placenta is formed.
   - **b** If pregnancy does not occur, then the corpus luteum stops secreting progesterone and decays into the corpus albicans. This causes the progesterone and oestrogen levels to drop towards the end of the menstrual cycle, the uterine lining breaks down and menstruation occurs.

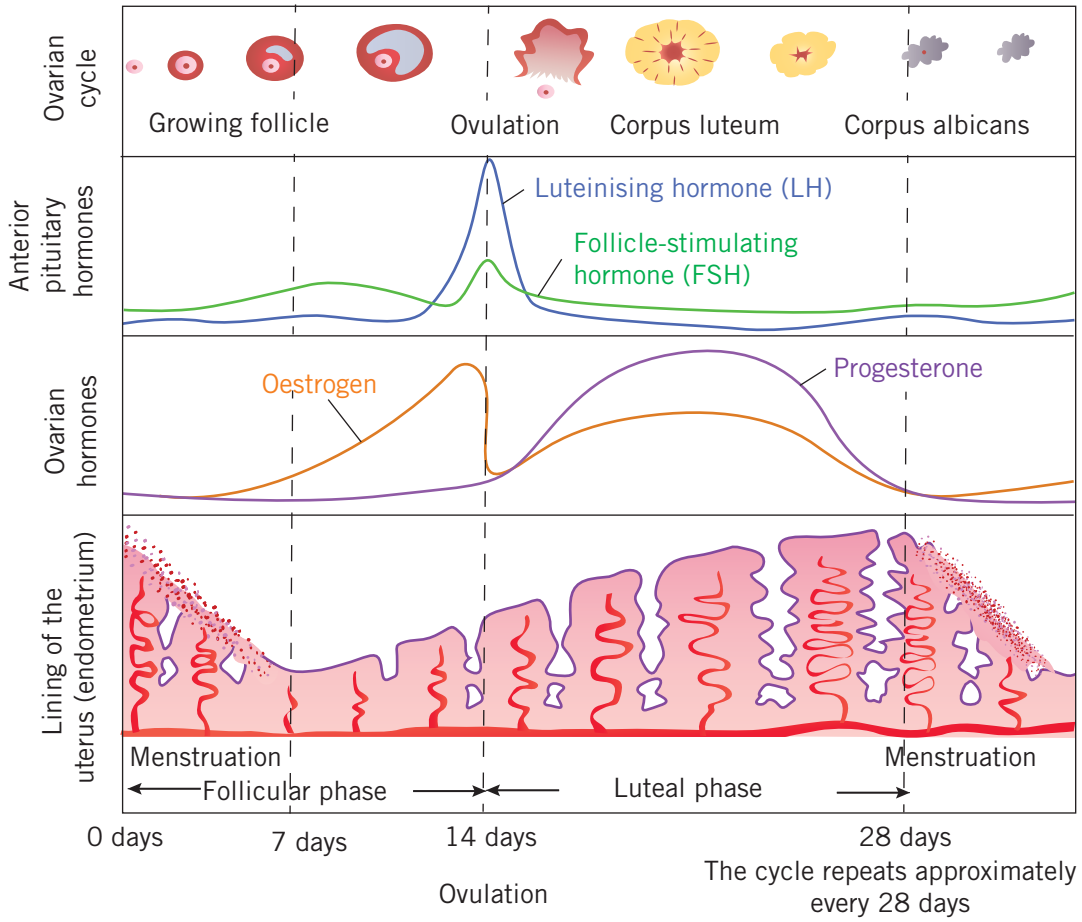

Figure 4.27 The relationship between the different hormones in the female reproductive system and the action of the follicles. After the follicle releases an egg, it is known as the corpus luteum.

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Did you know? 4.4

cloaca
a hole used for defecating, urinating and giving birth that is present in some amphibians, reptiles, birds, fish and monotremes

Cloaca – one hole does it all!

Figure 4.28 A tortoise lays an egg through its cloaca.

Humans have an anus for defecation, a urethra for urination and, if you are a female, a vagina for child birth. But not all animals have this anatomy. In fact, it is much more common to have one hole for all of these functions. This organ is called the **cloaca** and it is found in amphibians, reptiles, birds, some fish and even monotremes. This is why it can sometimes be difficult to distinguish between the sexes of certain animals. For example, birds mate by pressing their cloacas together in a process known as a 'cloacal kiss', where muscular undulations move the sperm from the male to the female.

Figure 4.29 Echidnas also have a cloaca.

Quick check 4.6

1 Define 'puberty'.
2 Name the hormones involved in puberty in males and explain what their roles are.
3 Name the hormones involved in puberty in females and explain what their roles are.
4 Draw a flow chart to summarise the female menstrual cycle. Use Figure 4.27 to help you.

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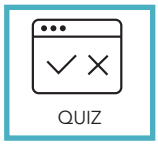
Science as a human endeavour 4.2

Early puberty caused by plastic

Bisphenol A (BPA) is a chemical that has been used since the 1960s in plastic containers, in water bottles, inside tin cans used for storing food, and in cash register receipts. BPA is an endocrine-disrupting chemical because it copies the action of the female sex hormone oestrogen. BPA can affect human reproduction and puberty, and has been linked to early puberty, low sperm counts and infertility in men, as well as breast and prostate cancer. Consequently, many BPA-containing products are banned in Australia. This is another good reason why you should minimise your use of plastics, especially those that are in contact with food.

Figure 4.30 Wherever possible, use BPA-free plastics. If you can't, ensure you wash all food products before use.

Section 4.2 questions



Remembering

1 **Recall** where the female and male gametes are produced.
2 **Name** three signs of puberty for males and three signs of puberty for females.
3 **Recall** what the onset of puberty indicates.

Understanding

4 **State** the location of the cervix.
5 **Describe** the function of the testicles.

Applying

6 **Describe** the cloaca.

Analysing

7 Referring to the graph of the menstrual cycle in Figure 4.27 on page 163, answer the following questions.
   a **Identify** the hormones that peak just before ovulation (when the egg is released).
   b **Identify** the hormone that is at its greatest concentration when the uterine wall is at its thickest.
8 **Classify** the following structures as belonging to the female reproductive system, the male reproductive system or both systems: fallopian tube, penis, gonads, prostate gland, bladder, scrotum, ovary, vas deferens, cervix.

Evaluating

9 **Evaluate** why a woman who has blocked fallopian tubes might find it difficult to become pregnant.
10 As a man ages, his prostate can increase in size. **Propose** a reason why this could affect urination.

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4.3 Plant reproduction

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

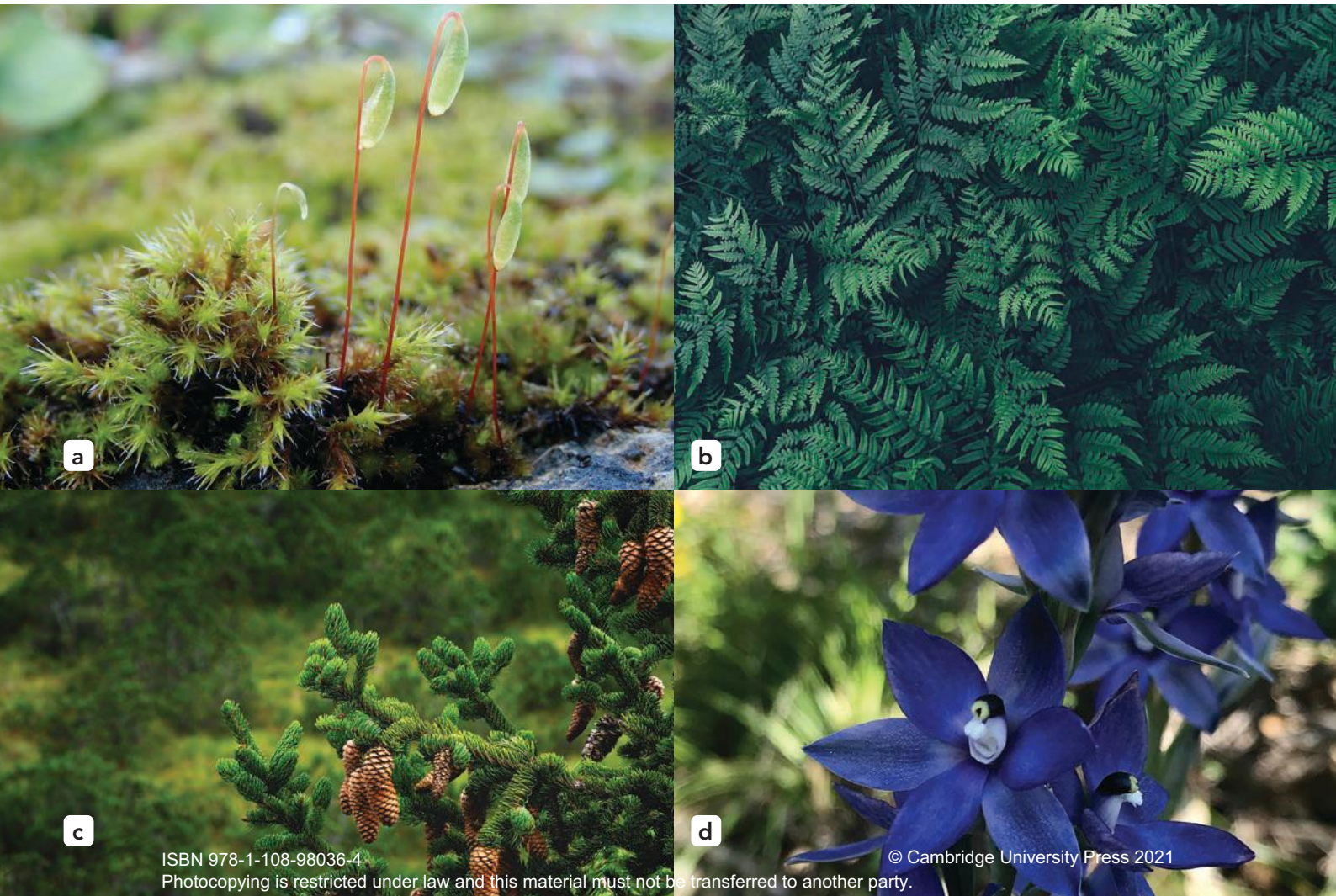
1 To be able to list some natural and human-induced methods of vegetative propagation.
2 To be able to describe the process of pollination in plant reproduction.
3 To be able to explore some methods of seed dispersal used by plants.

Plants can reproduce both asexually and sexually.

Sexual reproduction in plants, as in animals, involves gametes carrying out fertilisation, producing a zygote and embryo. The reproduction systems of plants are quite varied, and not all have flowers, fruits and seeds. But it means that plants have to divert many resources to the production of a new unique offspring. This method of reproduction increases the genetic diversity of a population; however, it can take quite a long time, as it is usually dependent on the cycle of the seasons.

In order to take advantage of favourable conditions that may arise at other times, such as heavy rainfall, high levels of sunlight, regeneration after fire or sudden access to new space, most plants can reproduce asexually, which is a relatively fast process that requires less energy. However, asexual reproduction produces offspring that lack genetic diversity.

Figure 4.31 Plants are a very diverse kingdom, including non-flowering plants such as **(a)** moss, **(b)** ferns, **(c)** conifers and **(d)** the flowering plants.



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Asexual reproduction in plants

vegetative propagation a form of asexual reproduction where only one plant is involved

All asexual reproduction in conifers and flowering plants is classed as **vegetative propagation**. It involves part of a plant growing into a new plant, and can occur naturally or humans can manipulate it.

Natural methods and human-induced methods of asexual reproduction are summarised in Tables 4.1 and 4.2.

Natural methods

Vegetative propagation method	Definition	Examples	Image
Bulb	• Underground stem for food storage • Food is stored in large leaves • Each bulb develops into a new plant	Onions, hyacinths, daffodils	An onion bulb with leaves and roots
Runner	• A stem that grows on top of and across the ground, from an existing stem • New plants grow from the runners	Strawberries, some grasses	Strawberry leaves and runner
Tuber	• Underground stem that contains stored food • The eyes of a potato can develop into new plants	Potatoes, sweet potatoes	A potato with eyes beginning to sprout
Rhizome	• Long modified stem that grows horizontally under the ground • New plants grow from the rhizome	Long grasses, ferns, irises, ginger, asparagus	A ginger rhizome with sprout

Table 4.1 Natural methods of asexual reproduction in plants

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Human-induced methods

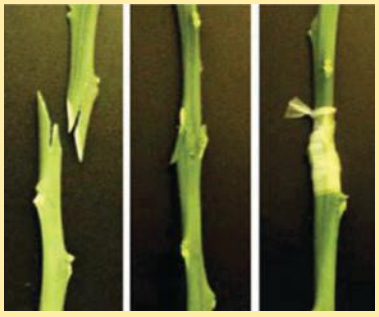
Vegetative propagation method	Definition	Examples	Image
Cutting	• Taking pieces of a root or stem • Each piece grows into a new plant	Bananas, roses, sugar cane	Some cuttings grow roots when placed in water.
Grafting	Taking part of a plant and connecting it to another plant, combining the two plants	Citrus, grapes, apples, roses	 The two pieces of stem (left) are tied in place and will eventually grow into one stem.

Table 4.2 Human-induced methods of asexual reproduction in plants

Figure 4.32 Some trees can have multiple fruits grafted onto the same tree. For example, plums, nectarines and peaches can be grafted together.

Figure 4.33 Growing new plants from cuttings is a way of making clones.

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Practical 4.1

Asexual reproduction in plants

Aim

To model the process of asexual reproduction, using potato tubers

Materials

- potatoes with eyes that are already starting to grow
- cotton wool
- Petri dish
- windowsill
- water
- knife
- chopping board

Method

1. Place the cotton wool in the Petri dish.
2. Add enough water to make the cotton wool damp but not wet.
3. Cut the potato into pieces about 3 cm across with one eye on each piece.
4. Press the piece of potato into the wet cotton wool with the eye on top.
5. Re-water the cotton wool every few days to prevent it from drying out completely.
6. Once the stem begins to grow, measure and record the growth each day over two weeks.

Results

Use your data and the data from three other groups from your class to calculate the average stem growth each day. Use the average data to produce a line graph.

Remember:

- Place the independent variable on the *x*-axis.
- Place the dependent variable on the *y*-axis.
- Label both axes.
- Write a title.
- Use over 75% of your graph paper.
- Use equal spaces between each number plotted.

Day	Stem length (mm)			
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Mean
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				

Discussion

1. Describe a trend you see in your graph.
2. Explain why you calculated an average using other groups' data as well as your own.
3. Suggest another plant that could be used for a similar activity.
4. Propose an independent variable that you could add to this activity to turn it into a different experiment.

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WIDGET
Sexual and asexual reproduction

Quick check 4.7

1 Define 'asexual reproduction' and 'sexual reproduction'.
2 State two advantages of asexual reproduction in plants.
3 Define 'rhizome'.
4 Name one plant that can be grown from a cutting.

Sexual reproduction in plants

pollen
the male gamete in flowering plants

ovule
a structure in a flowering plant where the female gamete is produced and where seeds develop

pollination
the process by which pollen sticks to the female structures of a plant and fertilises the ovule

nectar
a sweet liquid produced by flowers to attract pollinators

If you sit near a patch of flowers on a summer day, you may see a bee or a butterfly paying them a visit. Many flowers rely on these insects to help them reproduce by sexual reproduction. The flower is the sexual organ of the plant. The **pollen** it produces is the male gamete (similar to sperm) and the female gamete is inside the **ovule**. The parts of a flower are shown in Figure 4.39 on page 173.

Pollination is the fertilisation process in which the pollen from one flower reaches the ovule of another flower. Bees and other insects are attracted to brightly coloured and scented flowers, in addition to the sweet **nectar** they produce, and pick up pollen while they are feeding. When the bee moves to the next flower, some of the pollen on the bee sticks to the stigma of the new flower, and the pollen grain then grows down the style to the ovule. This is where fertilisation occurs and seeds develop.

VIDEO
Pollination methods

Figure 4.34 The large yellow sacs on this bee's legs contain pollen.

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Explore! 4.3

Pollination

Pollination is an important process. It allows plants to reproduce. After fertilisation, the ovary swells and grows into a fruit. There are different methods by which pollen can be transported from one flower to another and allow pollination to occur – examples are wind, insects, birds and animals.

When male gametes (pollen) fertilise female gametes (ovule) on the same plant, this is called **self-pollination**. When pollen from one plant fertilises the ovule of another plant, this is called **cross-pollination**. Cross-pollination results in genetically diverse offspring that increase variation in the species, making it more likely to be able to survive changes in the environment.

self-pollination pollination that occurs by pollen from the same flower or from another flower on the same plant

cross-pollination pollination that occurs by pollen from another flower or plant

1 Draw up a table with two columns. In the first column, list the four methods of moving pollen from one flower to another. Then research the types of flowers that use each method of pollination. In the second column, summarise what you have found out about the characteristics (e.g. shape, colour, size) of the flowers, their stamens and pistils.

2 What are the advantages and disadvantages of self-pollination? Research how plants prevent self-pollination occurring.

Figure 4.35 These flowers are pollinated by different methods. Can you identify what those methods are?

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Did you know? 4.5

Palynology

Pollen grains exist in many shapes and sizes, depending on the plant that produces them. This is why pollen from certain plants can trigger an allergic reaction in some people, while other pollen has no effect. Palynology is the study of pollen grains. Palynologists study pollen samples found in places such as archaeological digs or crime scenes. Palynology suggests that Australia's oldest flowering plants are approximately 126 million years old, and they resembled modern magnolias, buttercups and laurels.

Figure 4.36 There are many types of pollen in the air.

Humans are attracted to flowers because of their beautiful and varied colours and scents. However, many insects can see further into the electromagnetic spectrum than we can. If you view flowers under ultraviolet light, you will see that many have patterns that resemble a bullseye target or a landing strip. These patterns tell the insects exactly where they need to go to get the nectar.

Figure 4.37 Flowers with (left) a bullseye pattern and (right) a landing strip pattern

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Figure 4.38 Conifers, such as pine trees, have separate male (left) and female (right) cones on the same tree; they do not have flowers. They are wind-pollinated, male cones releasing pollen to the wind. When ready, the female cones open and the pollen is blown inside to fertilise the female gametes, which develop into seeds. To reduce self-pollination, female cones are on the higher branches and male cones are on the lower branches.

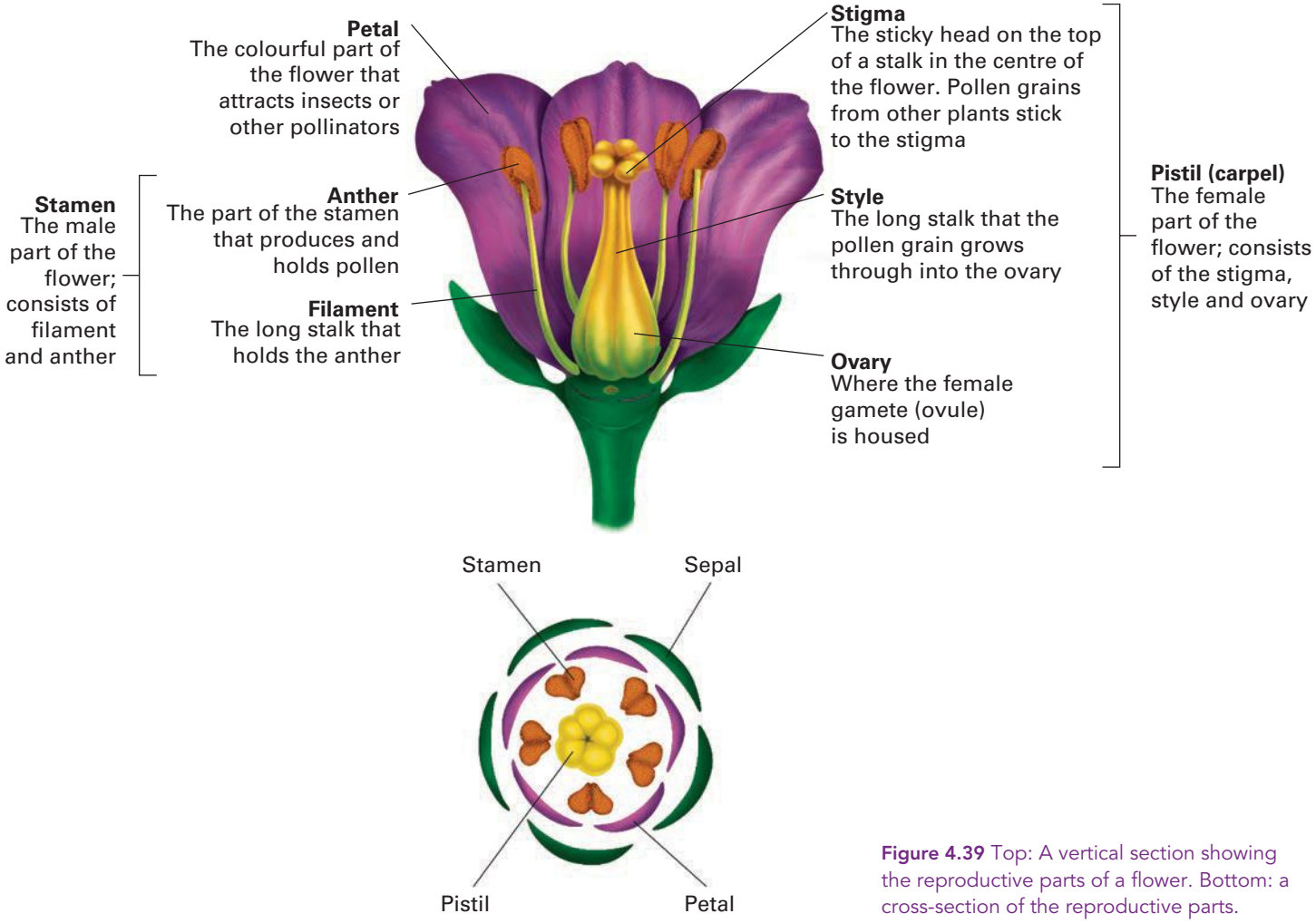

Figure 4.39 Top: A vertical section showing the reproductive parts of a flower. Bottom: a cross-section of the reproductive parts.

Quick check 4.8

1. Name the male gamete and the female gamete of plants.
2. Bees and insects can transfer pollen from one flower to another flower. Name some other ways that pollen can be transferred.
3. Draw up a table to summarise the parts of the flower and their role in sexual reproduction.

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Practical 4.2

Flower dissection

Be careful

Be very careful when handling the razor blade.

Aim

To identify the parts of a flower, and relate their structure to their role in reproduction

Materials

- a variety of flowers for dissection
- hand lens
- stereomicroscope
- tweezers
- single-sided razor blade
- chopping board

Method

1. Refer to Figure 4.39 on page 173 to help you to identify the parts of your flower. Draw a diagram of your first flower. Note the number of petals and sepals, and label these on your diagram.
2. Holding the flower carefully with tweezers on the chopping board, cut the flower in half vertically. This means you should now be looking at a vertical section of the flower, similar to the top picture in Figure 4.39.
3. Draw a diagram of the flower, and label all the parts of the flower you can recognise. Add 'M' next to the male parts of the flower and 'F' next to the female parts of the flower.
4. Gently remove the sepals and petals, by pulling them down towards the stem. Use a microscope to look at the tip of the petal at low magnification. Record your observations of the petal's texture in your results.
5. Remove the flower's stamens, by breaking or gently cutting them off the stem. Examine the pollen with your microscope. Record your observations of the pollen's shape and texture in your results.
6. Gently remove all parts except the pistil, so that it remains alone on the stem. Carefully cut the pistil in half lengthwise, and use your hand lens to look at the inside of it. Record your observations of the style, ovary and ovules in your results.
7. Repeat steps **1–6** with the other flowers.

Results

Your results should consist of:

- labelled diagrams of the whole flower and vertical section of the flower
- observations made during the dissection.

Discussion

1. Consider the different flowers you looked at. List the similarities and differences between them.
2. Explain why these differences between flowers might exist.
3. Use a flow chart to summarise the process of sexual reproduction in plants. Use the names of the parts of flowers that are involved and their role in reproduction.

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Science as a human endeavour 4.3

Healthy bees need diversity

Bees pollinate most of our crops, but bee numbers are decreasing rapidly. Bees can fly between flowers at about 25 km h^{-1} and visit up to 5000 flowers in one day. In fact, bees are so important that artificial hives are moved all around Australia to help pollinate new crops.

Imagine that you were only allowed to eat one type of food. That would become boring and you probably would not be very healthy. Australian and German researchers have discovered that a diversified plant environment helps bees maintain stable populations. The bees' quality of life is highest in gardens and biodiverse forests, and lowest in mono-crop areas. As plant biodiversity declines, bees produce less offspring, and eventually bee colonies decrease in size. This means we need to protect our biodiverse environments in order to help prevent the extinction of bees.

Did you know? 4.6

The blue-banded bee

Blue-banded bees are found all over Australia, except in Tasmania and the Northern Territory. Males have five blue bands and the females have four. Blue-banded bees cannot travel very far and their home needs to offer all their requirements for a healthy existence. Blue-banded bees can perform a special type of pollination, called 'buzz pollination'. In some flowers, the pollen is hidden inside tiny capsules, but a blue-banded bee can grasp a flower and shake it so much that the pollen shoots out of the capsules. The bee can then collect the pollen and carry it from flower to flower, pollinating the flowers.

Figure 4.40 The blue-banded bee

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seed
a plant embryo enclosed in a protective coating

seed dispersal
the spread of seeds away from the parent plant

VIDEO
Australian plants and seed dispersal

Seed dispersal

In conifers and flowering plants, after fertilisation the embryo develops inside a seed or nut. **Seeds** may be in a fleshy structure that developed from the ovary after flowering. You know this as fruit. When you use the word 'fruit', you probably think of something edible that is sweet or sour, such as apples, lemons, grapes or nectarines. However, in plant science, 'fruit' means the seed-containing structure that in flowering plants develops from the ovary, and this includes bean pods, wheat grains and corn kernels.

In pine trees and other conifers, the woody female cones protect their seeds. When the seeds are fully developed, the cones open and release the seeds.

Plants produce many seeds to increase the chances of survival. Many seeds will be eaten by animals, or land on areas where they cannot grow, or will be destroyed. Adult plants often take up a lot of space and resources, and so, in order for their offspring to thrive, the seeds need to spread to new places. This is known as **seed dispersal**, and plants have many ways of doing this.

Figure 4.41 Avocados produce a large seed surrounded by soft flesh.

Figure 4.42 A pine cone ready to drop its seeds

Exploding!

The seed pods of a group of plants known as *Impatiens* are ticking time bombs. When the fruit is ripe, the slightest touch can trigger the pod to explode suddenly, flinging the seeds it contains in many directions, although the seeds often do not travel far (Figure 4.43).

Figure 4.43 An exploding seed pod

Hitching a ride on the outside

Certain plants, including grasses, have spiky pods (burrs) that latch onto an animal's fur or a human's clothing to disperse. The spiky pod stays on the animal's fur until the animal gets itchy and scratches it off, and then the pod falls to the ground in a new location (Figure 4.44).

Figure 4.44 Burrs caught on a dog's fur

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Hitching a ride on the inside

As you know, fruit not only protects the seeds, but also can be very tasty. Some plants have extra sweet fruit to encourage animals to eat the seeds. The seeds have a tough coat so that they won't be digested. When they eventually pass intact through the animal, they are in a new location, where they may begin to grow.

Figure 4.45 Animals ingest seeds in fruit and then defecate the seeds in a new location.

Shooting the breeze

Dandelion seeds are so light that they are blown extremely long distances by just a gust of wind. A fluffy tuft called a pappus acts as a parachute to carry each seed away (Figure 4.46). A dandelion head is not just one flower but is made up of many florets that each produce an individual seed. One dandelion head can make around 500 seeds. This is why dandelions are such an effective weed.

Figure 4.46 Dandelion seeds leaving a dandelion clock after getting caught in the breeze

Floating away

A coconut is one giant seed. It is hollow and so it can float. This is how coconuts are able to move between islands and across oceans (Figure 4.47).

Quick check 4.9

Draw up a table to summarise the different ways in which seeds can disperse. Include examples where appropriate.

Figure 4.47 Coconuts can float large distances between islands.

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Practical 4.3: Investigation

Seed germination

Aim

To design a valid, reliable and accurate experiment to test the conditions necessary for a seed to germinate, using the materials provided. You may investigate other factors that contribute to the plant's germination (light levels, water, nutrients, heat etc.)

Planning

1. Conduct some background research and summarise the factors that affect seed germination.
2. Write a specific and relevant research question for your investigation.
3. Choose a suitable independent variable to test.
4. Identify the dependent and controlled variables.
5. Write a hypothesis for your investigation.
6. Write a risk assessment for your investigation.
7. Construct a detailed method to explain the procedure you will follow in your experiment. Include all the instruments and exact measurements you will use. Set it out in step-by-step form. Include the number of repeats you expect to conduct. Do not forget to mention how the data is recorded. Remember, another scientist should be able to read this procedure and replicate your experiment exactly, so be detailed in your instructions.
8. After confirming with your teacher that your method is satisfactory, carry out your investigation.

Materials

- Petri dish or glass jar
- paper towel
- water
- seeds
- sugar
- salt
- water
- black paper
- heat lamp
- cotton wool
- fertiliser

Results

1. Draw a results table for your experiment.
2. Produce a suitable graph for your experiment.

Discussion

1. Describe any patterns, trends or relationships in your results.
2. Explain any trends you have identified.
3. Identify any limitations in your investigation.
4. Propose another independent variable that could have been tested, to expand on your results.
5. Suggest some improvements for this experiment.

Conclusion

Draw a conclusion from this experiment, using data to support your statement.

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Science as a human endeavour 4.4

Technology and farming

Farming techniques are being continually developed to improve crop yields and sustainability. Two such technologies are hybrid seeds and cloning.

Hybrid seeds are produced through selective breeding. Two plants with favourable characteristics are bred together. For example, a strawberry plant that is drought tolerant may be cross-pollinated with a strawberry plant that produces a large amount of fruit. Hybrid seeds are common in commercial farming, especially to increase crop yields.

Figure 4.48 In 2014, several prefectures in Japan developed a new hybrid of strawberry capable of year-round production; they named the hybrid 'Yotsuboshi'.

Cloning technology is also used in farming. All over the world, wine growers are reporting that their grapes are ripening earlier because of higher temperatures. Growers are having to respond by:

- irrigating their vines
- more effectively managing the grape canopies for shading
- moving their vines to cooler parts of their properties.

However, as temperatures continue to rise, growers may have to consider growing grape varieties that are more drought and heat tolerant. One way of doing this is by cloning grape varieties that are heat tolerant and planting them in areas that are predicted to get hotter.

Figure 4.49 Grapes are cloned by taking a cutting from an existing grape vine and then grafting it onto another vine or encouraging the cutting to grow roots.

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Section 4.3 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **State** four ways in which plants can reproduce asexually in nature.
2 **State** the purpose of the petals of a flower.
3 **Define** 'pistil'.

Understanding

4 **Explain** why some flowering plants' ovaries develop into fleshy fruit.
5 **Explain** how seed dispersal by the wind is effective.

Applying

6 **Describe** some ways a plant can be pollinated.

Analysing

7 **Compare** a peach with a pine cone.
8 **Distinguish** between self-pollination and cross-pollination.

Evaluating

9 Hay fever is caused by pollen irritating the nasal passageways. Evan lived in England for 15 years and never experienced hay fever. Since moving to Australia, Evan has had hay fever every summer. **Propose** a reason for this.
10 A new volcanic island has formed in the middle of the Pacific Ocean. **Predict** the first type of plants that will grow on the island, and justify your answer, based on its method of seed dispersal.

Figure 4.50 An isolated island, which was formed by a volcanic eruption

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Chapter review

Chapter checklist

In the Interactive Textbook, the success criteria are linked to the review questions and will be automatically ticked when answers are correct. Alternatively, you can download this checklist from the Interactive Textbook to complete it.

Success criteria		Linked question	Check
4.1	I can distinguish between asexual and sexual reproduction.	7	
4.1	I can define the following key terms: asexual reproduction, sexual reproduction, gametes, gonads, zygote, embryo.	4	
4.1	I can distinguish between internal and external fertilisation.	5	
4.1	I can recall the main stages of gestation.	12	
4.1	I can describe the main types of asexual reproduction in animals.	1	
4.2	I can identify different parts of the male and female reproductive systems.	2	
4.2	I can describe how hormones affect the menstrual cycle.	9	
4.3	I can recall some methods of vegetative propagation in plants.	8	
4.3	I can describe sexual reproduction in plants.	11	
4.3	I can describe some methods of seed dispersal.	6	

Review questions

Remembering

SCORCHER

1 **Recall** the mode of asexual reproduction used by:
   a an amoeba
   b a flatworm
   c a strawberry plant
   d ginger.
2 **State** the function of the following structures in the human reproductive system:
   a ovary
   b scrotum
   c fallopian tube
   d prostate
   e uterus.

Understanding

3 **Name** the part of a flower that:
   a attracts pollinators
   b is the site of seed development
   c produces the male gametes
   d produces the female gametes
   e is where the male gamete sticks to the female part of the plant.
4 **State** the two methods of fertilisation in animals, and for each method give an example of one animal that uses it.

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Applying

5 **Explain** why internal fertilisation exists in some animals rather than external fertilisation.

6 **Explain** four different ways that seeds might be dispersed.

Analysing

7 **Contrast** sexual and asexual reproduction to show the advantages and disadvantages of each method.

8 Aloe vera is a flowering plant that reproduces by producing seeds or by human-induced vegetative propagation. **Contrast** the genetic diversity of reproduction by these two methods.

9 **Compare** the changes in male and female bodies during puberty by using a Venn diagram.

Evaluating

10 If a female reptile reproduces by parthenogenesis because of a lack of male mates in the area, what can you **predict** about her offspring?

11 **Construct** a comic strip or diagram to model how sexual reproduction occurs in a flowering plant. Ensure the reproductive organs are labelled appropriately.

12 **Construct** a timeline of the human gestation period, indicating the names of the structure at each stage and approximate timeframes.

13 A biologist is investigating a species of frog that lives in an environment that is changing rapidly. **Propose** a reason why sexual reproduction would be better for this species of frog.

14 Certain orchids have flowers that closely resemble the shape of a female wasp. **Justify** a reason for this adaptation.

Figure 4.51 *Drakaea glyptodon*, one of the hammer orchid species, is native the south west of Australia and is pollinated by specific species of thynnid wasp, so their flowers have adapted to look like the females of those wasp species.

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Data questions

Meera wanted to find out the effect of substance A and substance B on hydra budding. She conducted an experiment for 6 days with three identical samples of hydra. She gave the same amount of food to each sample every day. Every day, she also added 1 drop of substance A to sample A, and 1 drop of substance B to sample B. The control was given no added substances.

The graph in Figure 4.52 shows her results.

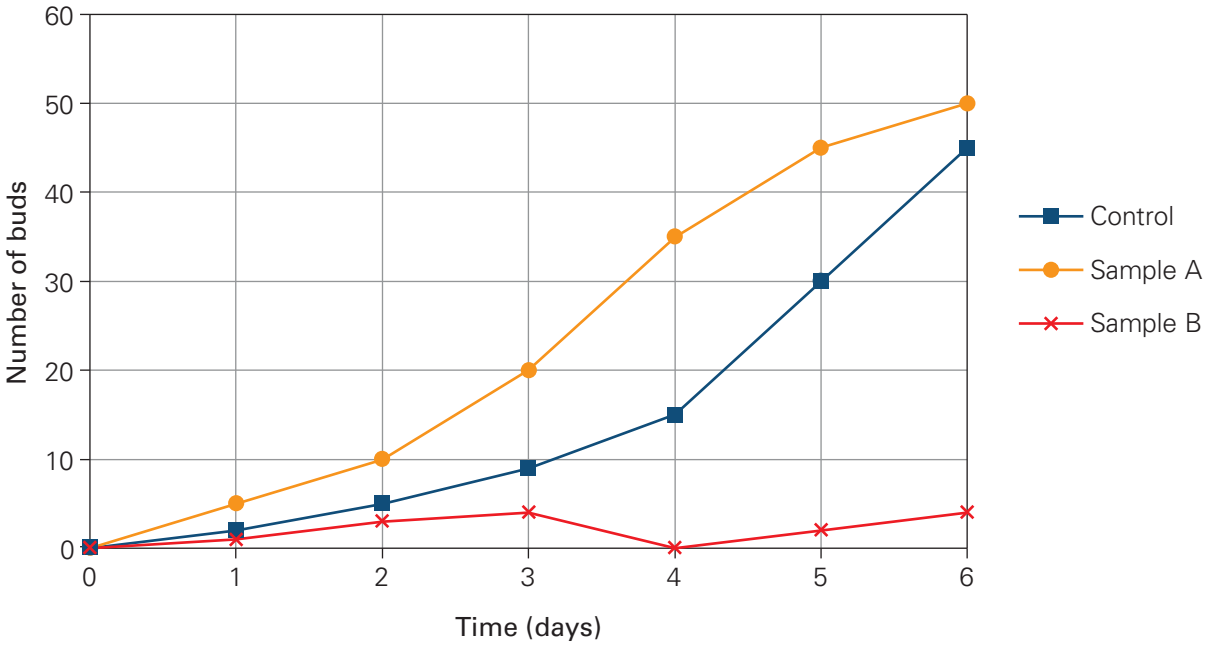

Figure 4.52 The number of hydra buds in the samples each day

1 **Identify** the sample that had the highest number of buds at the end of the 6 days.
2 **Identify** the sample that had at least one day with no buds.
3 **Determine** how many days it took for each sample to reach more than 10 buds.
4 **Contrast** the patterns of the three samples.
5 **Deduce** which substance, A or B, is a growth activator (i.e. helps growth) and which is a growth inhibitor (i.e. prevents growth).
6 **Compare** the control sample with sample A from day 3 to day 4. What evidence is there to suggest that the sample culture was getting crowded?
7 **Predict** how many buds there would be for each sample if she extended the experiment to the seventh day.

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STEM activity: Artificial bees to save the planet

Background information

Australia has many native bee species (more than 1700 different types). Northern Western Australia is host to *Tetragonula carbonaria*, a stingless bee also known as the sugarbag bee.

Figure 4.53 *Tetragonula carbonaria*, also known as the sugarbag bee, is considered a 'safe' bee.

All bees play an important role in pollinating plants, and Australia's native bees might have just the right skills to help keep our local food chain safe.

A bee's skills in moving pollen are highly evolved. Different species have evolved differently to suit the surrounding plants. Some bees can buzz at certain frequencies, which for some plants is essential. Others have specialised bristles on their forelegs to rake the pollen out.

Design brief: Design a pollen distribution prototype robot or machine that can be used in areas with declining bee populations.

Activity instructions

In groups you will research bees and pollination. Then you will design and create a scale drawing of a pollen distribution prototype. You won't need to build this, so be as creative and incorporate as many types of technology as possible.

Research and feasibility

1 Research how bees support the reproduction of plants. You may want to print out an image of a bee and annotate its features.
2 Discuss how a pollen distribution prototype could be built to mimic the behaviours of bees.
3 Research different types of technology that are used in robotics and flight.

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Design and sustainability

4 As individuals, sketch your own ideas, and then present to the group and discuss your key connections between how bees distribute pollen and your prototype. Discuss the best of each person's sketch.

5 As a group, sketch a design and annotate its key features, incorporating sustainable ideas. This means making sure that your prototype can be reused easily. Discuss in your group the size of your prototype, and the materials or manufacturing that would be required.

Create

6 As a group create a scale drawing of your group's prototype to present to the class. You will need to agree on a scale and a size. Your scale drawing should include colours and annotations.

Evaluate and modify

7 Present your prototype design to the class in a one-minute presentation of your scale diagram.

8 Discuss with the class your ideas of design and sustainability for the prototype.

9 Evaluate the issues arising from a man-made solution to an environmental problem.

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Chapter 5
States of matter

Chapter introduction

This chapter will introduce you to the amazingly minute world of particles and the idea that everything in our universe is made up of them. You will focus on the three states of matter (solids, liquids and gases) and investigate how the particle model can explain changes in state and the properties the different states exhibit.

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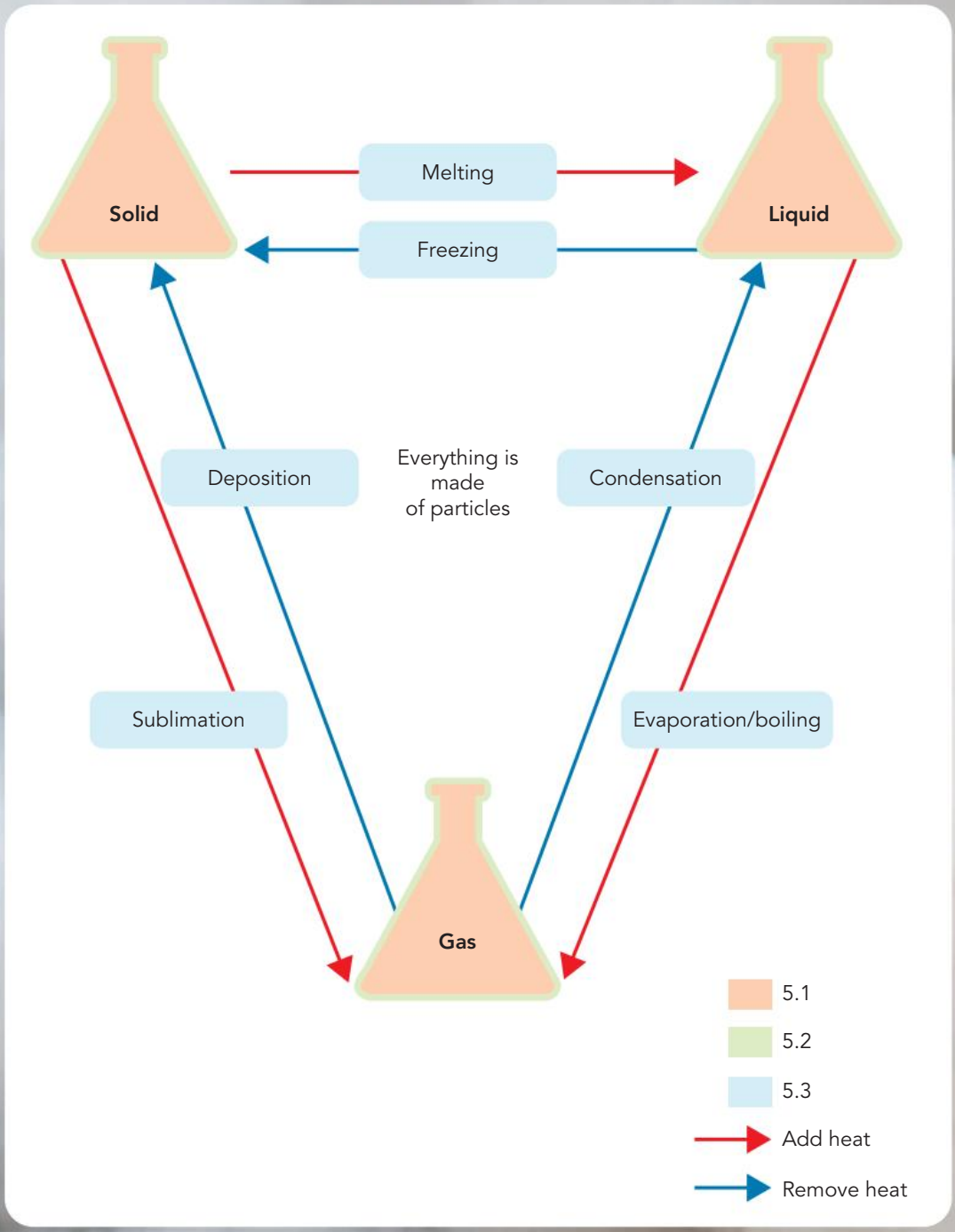
Chapter map



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5.1 Particle model and states of matter

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to describe the particle model of matter.
2 To be able to distinguish between solids, liquids and gases.
3 To be able to define the contraction and expansion of substances in response to heat.

matter
anything that has mass and volume

mass
the amount of substance in an object that never changes, even in space

volume
the space an object occupies

state
one of the distinct forms matter can exist in

solid
a substance that has a fixed shape and constant volume

liquid
a substance that flows freely and takes the shape of its container but has constant volume

gas
a substance that expands freely to fill space

What do cars, milk and oxygen have in common? They are all made up of matter. **Matter** is essentially anything that takes up space and has **mass** and **volume**. Mass is the amount of matter in a substance or object, and volume is the amount of space the substance or object takes up. The three common **states** of matter are **solids**, **liquids** and **gases**. (See Explore! 5.1 for details about another state of matter.) Look at the images in Figure 5.1, and identify the solids, liquids and gases. What do the solids all have in common? What do the liquids all have in common? What do the gases all have in common? What makes them different?

Figure 5.1 States of matter: solids, liquids and gases. What are the similarities and differences between the three states of matter shown here?

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Explore! 5.1

Other states of matter

You have heard of solids, liquids and gases, but there is one other naturally occurring state of matter that is common in the universe: plasma. Plasmas are highly energised gases. They are not common on Earth, but stars, including the Sun, are covered in plasma. Plasma can be produced by lightning strikes and is even used in plasma TVs in the form of ionised gas. There are other 'extreme' states of matter that can be produced under experimental conditions and are very rare in the universe. Research the identity of some of these other states of matter.

The particle model

The ancient Greeks wondered what would happen if you could keep dividing matter into smaller and smaller pieces. Would you eventually come to a particle that you could not split? Although they had no way of observing them, the ancient Greeks assumed that these particles existed and must explain some of the properties of matter. The **particle model** was born.

In science, models are used to represent different aspects of real-world objects (such as models of trains and cars) and phenomena (such as Earth circling the Sun). Scientists also make models to test ideas, like making model bike helmets and testing how well they prevent an uncooked egg from breaking when dropped. At other times, scientists use models to represent what they cannot see to try to explain how it might work. This is the case with the particle model.

So, to better understand what makes a solid a solid or a gas a gas, you will need to begin by looking at the particle model. This model suggests that all matter is made up of extremely small particles that are invisible to the naked eye. These particles are not only

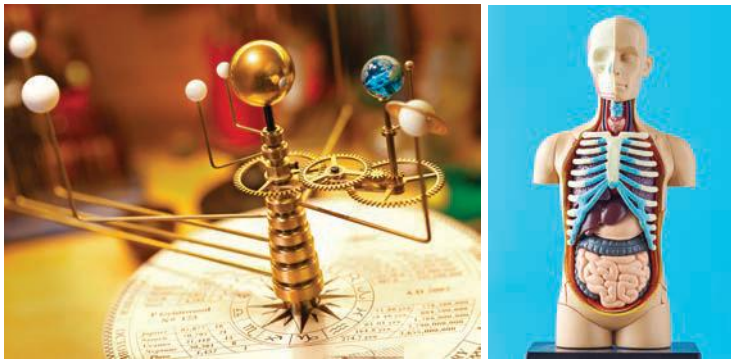

Figure 5.2 Left: A model of the solar system from the 18th century. Right: A modern model of the human body used in schools

different sizes in different substances, but are also arranged differently in solids, liquids and gases. The closer together the particles are, the stronger the attraction between them. This helps us to understand why each state of matter has different properties.

According to the particle model, the particles that make up matter are always moving because of the energy they have; that is, the more energy they have, the faster they move. Heat can also increase the energy of particles and therefore make them move faster. Particles always have some energy and so they always move, even if it is just a little bit. In solids, the particles vibrate in fixed positions, but in liquids and gases, the particles move randomly. This is called **Brownian motion**.

particle model
all matter is made of particles that behave differently depending on whether they are solid, liquid or gas

Brownian motion
the random movement of particles in fluids

Explore! 5.2

Brownian motion is named after the botanist Robert Brown, who first observed this phenomenon in 1827. Do some research on the internet to answer the following questions.

1. Explain how Robert Brown first discovered that substances are made up of invisible particles.
2. Who also studied Brownian motion? What did they determine about this random movement of particles?

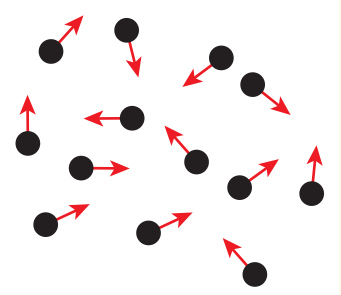

Figure 5.3 A representation of particles moving randomly

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Quick check 5.1

1 Define 'matter'.
2 State the three common states of matter.
3 Summarise the key points of the particle model by completing the following sentences.
   a All matter is made up of _____.
   b The particles are always _____.
   c Particles move faster if the substance is _____.

Practical 5.1

States of chocolate

vibrate move periodically

Figure 5.4 One of the states of chocolate

Be careful
Do not consume chocolate in a laboratory classroom.

Aim
To demonstrate the three states of chocolate

Materials
- chocolate buttons
- small beaker
- large beaker
- boiling water

Method
Heat the chocolate in a small beaker surrounded by boiling water in a large beaker.

Discussion
1 After a few minutes, some of the chocolate will be partially melted. How many states of matter can you see?
2 What do you think is happening to the particles as they are heated?

Solids

In a solid, the particles are packed tightly together. Their close proximity means that the forces of attraction between particles is very strong. Because of this, the particles in solids cannot move freely; instead, they **vibrate** in their places.

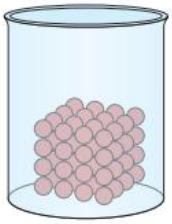

Figure 5.5 The arrangement of particles in a solid. Particles in a solid are very closely packed together and just vibrate in their places.

Liquids

In liquids, particles are held together by forces of attraction. As the particles are not as close together as in solids, the attractions in liquids are not as strong as in solids. This means that the particles do not vibrate in a fixed position but they can move freely.

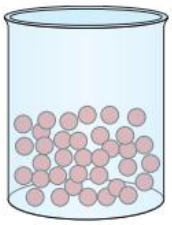

Figure 5.6 The arrangement of particles in a liquid. Particles in a liquid are packed closely together but can still move about and slide over one another. Gravity pulls the liquid into the shape of the container.

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Gases

The particles in a gas are in constant motion because they have much more energy than those in solids or liquids. The attraction between the particles in a gas is weak because the particles are so far apart, so the particles spread out to take up any space that is available. The movement of particles from an area of high **concentration** to an area of low concentration is a process called **diffusion**.

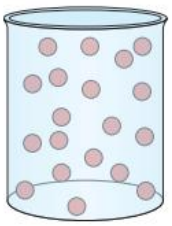

Figure 5.7 The arrangement of particles in a gas. Gas particles are always moving and spread out to fill any space they are in.

concentration
the number of particles in a given volume

diffusion
the movement of particles from an area of high concentration to an area of low concentration

Try this 5.1

What state are you in?
Working with your classmates, role-play what a solid, liquid and gas look like. Make sure you can explain what the particles are doing in each state of matter.

Try this 5.2

Modelling the three states
Use polystyrene balls and pipe cleaners to make a model of each state of matter. Draw diagrams of what the three models look like.

Quick check 5.2

Copy and complete the following table.

State of matter	Describe and explain the strength of attraction between particles	Describe and explain the movement of particles	Diagram of particle arrangement
Solid			
Liquid			
Gas			

Practical 5.2: Self-design

Diffusion

Aim
To investigate diffusion (the movement of liquid and gas particles as they spread out in another liquid or gas) and then design an investigation into how quickly particles can diffuse through water at different temperatures

Be careful
Make sure that no one suffers from any respiratory issues before using the aerosol deodorant/perfume.

Materials
- aerosol deodorant/perfume
- food colouring
- eye dropper
- 4 × 250 mL beakers
- iced water, cold tap water and hot tap water
- thermometer
- stopwatch

continued...

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...continued

Method

1 Spray some aerosol deodorant/perfume in one corner of the room. Move to the opposite corner of the room and record the time it takes for the scent to reach you.
2 Put one drop of food colouring into a beaker of tap water. Observe how the colour spreads and record the time it takes for the colour to spread evenly in the water.
3 Design an experiment to determine if the diffusion of food colouring is faster in warm or in cold water. In science experiments, every variable is kept the same except for the one being investigated. What are the dependent, independent and controlled variables in this experiment? Consider what you will need to record and how you can do it.
4 Write a hypothesis about what you think might happen.
5 After checking your design with your teacher, carry out your experiment and record your results.

Results

1 Draw a diagram showing how the deodorant/perfume particles moved through the air.
2 Draw a diagram showing how the food colouring particles moved through the water.
3 Draw up a table that summarises your results from your self-designed experiment.

Discussion

1 How do you think the particles of the food colouring were able to spread out through the water? Use the terms you have learned in class about the particle model and diffusion.
2 Explain why changing the temperature affected how fast diffusion occurred.
3 Many industries use diffusion to dispose of their waste products either as gases into the air or as liquids into rivers and the sea. Explain whether you think this is a suitable method in the long term.
4 Identify any sources of error and how you might prevent these from occurring again.

Conclusion

Draw a conclusion from this experiment on diffusion, supporting your statement with data.

VIDEO
Animation of water particles in three states

Try this 5.3

Balloon pressure

Blow up a balloon slowly. The particles of air inside the balloon are gas particles, so they move in all directions. They collide with one another and with the inside wall of the balloon. The collisions with the balloon wall exert an outward pressure on the wall. As more particles are added, the wall of the balloon stretches until it cannot stretch anymore. What happens when you let go of the fully inflated balloon? Try to use the words 'gas particles' and **pressure** in your explanation.

pressure the amount of force exerted on a given area

radiation the emission of energy in the form of light or heat

Did you know? 5.1

Microwave ovens

Microwave ovens heat your food by using **radiation**. The radiation (in this case, microwaves) is absorbed by water particles in the food, which causes them to vibrate. This means they get hotter. The hotter the water particles, the hotter the particles in the food next to them, and it is this heat that cooks the food.

Figure 5.8 Microwave ovens work by causing the water particles in food to vibrate and heat up.

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Heating and cooling

The particle model suggests that if you heat a substance, the particles will gain more energy and begin to move more rapidly. As the particles start to move more rapidly, the distances between the particles increases and they begin to take up more space. As the particles are further apart, the attraction between the particles decreases. This process of getting larger is called **expansion**. When heat is applied, gases can usually expand more than solids and liquids because the particles are not held together by strong attractive forces and so are free to spread out.

expansion
the process of substances getting larger: the particles of a substance move further apart as they heat up

contraction
the process of substances getting smaller: the particles of a substance move closer together as they cool

When a substance is cooled, the particles lose energy, their movements slow down, and the distances between the particles gets smaller. As the particles are closer, they become more strongly attracted to one another, except in a gas, in which they are still relatively far apart. This process of the material (and not the particles) getting smaller is called **contraction**.

Try this 5.4

Are temperature and pressure related?
Take an empty plastic drink bottle, remove the lid, squeeze in the sides and put the lid back on. Now use some tongs to hold the bottle under the hot-water tap and then under the cold-water tap. Observe what happens to the dents you made in the bottle before starting. What is happening? Where is the pressure coming from? Can you explain what is happening in terms of the particle model?

Figure 5.9 In a hot air balloon, the heated air expands, becomes lighter than the air outside the balloon, and so the balloon rises.

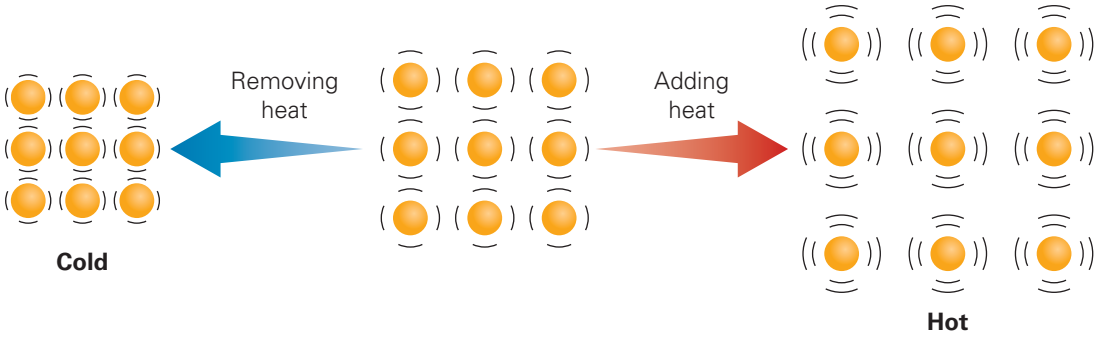

Figure 5.10 The changes experienced by particles with heating and cooling. Note that the size of the particle stays the same, while the space between the particles decreases.

Explore! 5.3

Building bridges
Architects must work with engineers when designing and constructing bridges and railway lines. They must allow for the expansion and contraction of the materials they use.

1 Explain what is done to allow for the expansion and contraction of bridges and railway lines.
2 Discuss why it is important for engineers to carefully select the materials they choose for building bridges and railway lines.

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Quick check 5.3

1 Compare the distances between particles in a gas, a liquid and a solid.
2 Use the particle model to explain what happens when a substance gains heat.
3 The particles of a substance in a sealed container are investigated at two different temperatures.
   - At temperature A, the particles are very close together but move about freely at moderate speed in the bottom of the container.
   - At temperature B, the particles are distant from one another and move about freely and very fast in all parts of the container.

   What is the state of the substance at temperature A and at temperature B?

Practical 5.3

Expansion and contraction

Aim

To observe and explain the expansion and contraction of solids and gases

Materials

- ball and ring apparatus
- tongs
- Bunsen burner
- bimetallic strip
- 2 metal bars of same size but different materials
- wax candle
- stopwatch
- 1 balloon
- felt-tip pen
- ruler or tape measure
- coin
- bucket of ice water
- bucket of hot water

Figure 5.11 A ball and ring apparatus

Method

1 Examine the ball and ring apparatus. Does the ball fit through the ring when it is cold? What do you predict will happen when you heat the ball? Heat the ball over the Bunsen burner and see if it still fits through the ring. What happens if you heat the ring and not the ball?
2 Look at the bimetallic strip – predict or hypothesise what will happen when you heat it. Now, heat the bimetallic strip. Describe and explain what happens.
3 Attach a coin to one end of the metal bar with the wax from a candle. Hold the metal bar using tongs and heat the other end of the metal bar with a blue Bunsen flame. Time how long it takes before the coin falls off.
4 Hypothesise what might happen if you used another metal bar of the same length and size but made of a different material. Test this hypothesis by repeating step **3** with the new metal bar.
5 Inflate a balloon. Draw two felt-tip pen lines exactly 10 cm apart on the balloon. Place the balloon in the bucket of ice water. What happens to the lines? Place the balloon in the bucket of warm water. What happens to the lines?

Results

Record all observations and descriptions from *each* step of the method.

Discussion

1 Write a sentence explaining your observations from *each* step of the method, referring to the particles, their energy, their movement, strength of their attraction etc.
2 Do you think a balloon can be used as a thermometer to measure temperature? Find out about how gas thermometers are made and used.

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Section 5.1 questions

Remembering

1 **Recall** the four key points of the particle model.

2 **Recall** the state where the particles are only able to vibrate in a fixed position.

Understanding

3 **Identify** which state of matter is shown in Figure 5.12.

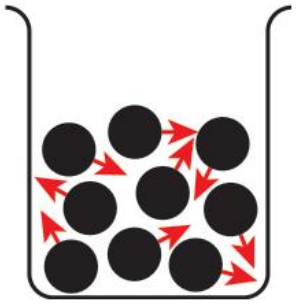

Figure 5.12 What state of matter is shown here?

4 **Name** the state that cannot flow from place to place.

5 **Name** the state where particles have the strongest forces of attraction between them.

6 **Define** 'diffusion'.

7 **Recall** the state in which particles have the most energy at room temperature. Provide evidence for your answer.

Applying

8 **Describe** what happens when you heat particles.

9 Use the particle model to **explain** why food colouring and water mix together but food colouring and ice do not.

Analysing

10 Construct a table that distinguishes solids, liquids and gases. Include a diagram to model the different states. **Compare** the closeness of the particles and the speed at which they move, and list some examples for each.

Evaluating

11 **Discuss** how a mercury thermometer can provide a reading of temperature.

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5.2 Properties of solids, liquids and gases

WORKSHEET

Learning goal

1 To be able to list the different properties of solids, liquids and gases.

When scientists talk about the different states of matter, they refer to two types of properties: **physical properties** and **chemical properties** (Table 5.1).

physical property
the way a substance looks and acts; a characteristic of a substance that can be observed and/or measured without changing it chemically

chemical property
the behaviour of a substance when it reacts with another substance

density
how much matter (mass) is contained in a certain volume of a substance

	Property	
	Physical	**Chemical**
Definition	The way substances look and act. A characteristic of a substance that can be observed and/or measured without changing it chemically	The behaviour of a substance when it reacts with another substance
Examples	Colour, size, solubility, melting point, hardness, boiling point, conductivity, shape and **density**	Burns or explodes in oxygen, rusts or corrodes, acidity, biodegradability
Picture		

Table 5.1 The two types of properties investigated when looking at matter

Science as a human endeavour 5.1

Superhydrophobic substances

Superhydrophobic substances have a remarkable ability to repel water. Developed by Australian researchers, they have many uses, such as coating fabrics or car windscreens in order to improve driving visibility. They could also potentially be used to waterproof mobile phones, prevent ice from forming on aircrafts and protect boat hulls from corroding. Superhydrophobic substances are highly antimicrobial, so they could be used to protect surgical instruments and medical equipment. Unfortunately, these coatings are very delicate and easily damaged by cleaning or any minor wear, leading to the loss of superhydrophobic properties. However, in the early 2020s, scientists have developed a new armour-plated coating that can withstand wear and still repel water effectively.

Figure 5.13 The properties of substances are used by scientists to design new materials with specific purposes.

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If you completed Practical 5.3, you will have identified a number of the key properties of solids, liquids and gases. Here we will discuss these properties, using the particle model.

Solids

Earlier in this chapter, you learned that the particles in a solid are packed so tightly together and the forces of attraction between particles are so strong that the particles cannot move freely; they are fixed. This is why solids usually have a shape and volume that cannot be changed and why they are hard to break apart. This also explains why solids cannot easily be **compressed** (squashed) and cannot be poured.

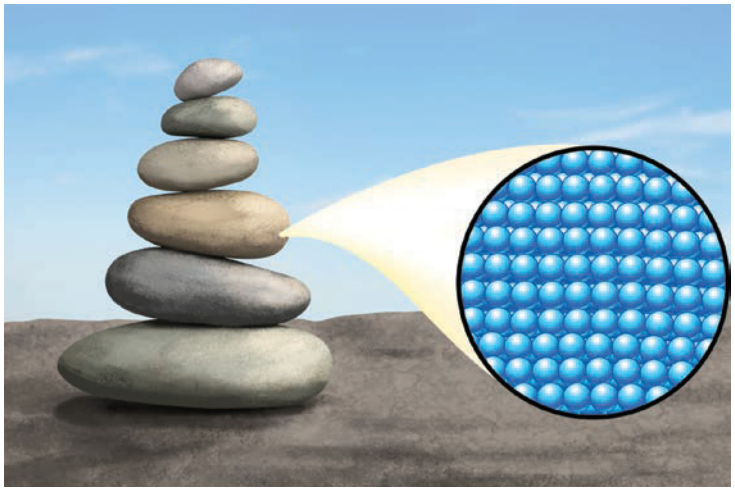

Figure 5.14 Consider these rocks and the arrangement of their particles shown in the diagram. Are their shapes fixed? Can they be compressed? Is their volume fixed? Can they flow?

compress
squeeze to make smaller

Density

Table 5.1 mentioned the property of density. Density describes how heavy or light something is for its size, but it is not the same as its weight or mass. For example, 1 kg of steel always weighs the same as 1 kg of feathers (they are both 1 kg), but the space they take up is very different. Density can therefore be defined as the measurement of how much matter (or mass) fits in a certain amount of space (or volume). So, a denser substance (e.g. steel) has more mass in a particular volume than a less dense substance (e.g. feathers). The relationship between density, mass and volume is written as:

$$\text{density} = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}}$$

Practical 5.4: Self-design

Calculating density

Aim

To design and conduct an investigation to measure the mass and volume of different objects and then calculate the density of the objects and determine whether they would float or sink in water

Materials

- ruler
- large measuring cylinder
- 8 small random objects

Method

When you design your experiment, consider the following questions.

- What measurements do you need to be able to work out the density of an object?
- How will you measure the mass of the different objects you have access to?
- How will you measure the volume of the different objects, including objects of regular and irregular shape?

continued...

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...continued

- How will you record your data? Perhaps a table would help.
- How will you calculate density?
- What is your prediction for the results? Which items do you expect will float and which will sink?

Before beginning, your teacher will show you how to determine volume by the water displacement method. Then write up your intended method step by step, as though it was going to be published in a textbook. Check with your teacher that you can begin your investigation.

Results

1 Record your prediction.
2 Write your method step by step.
3 Record your measurements in a table using the following column headings.

Object	Mass (g)	Volume (cm^3)	Float or sink?	Density ($g\ mL^{-1}$)

4 Using the equation for density, calculate the density of the objects you had access to.

Discussion

1 The density of water is 1.00 $g\ mL^{-1}$. If an object has a density of less than 1.00 $g\ mL^{-1}$, it should float in water. If an object has a density of greater than 1.00 $g\ mL^{-1}$, then the object should sink when placed in water. Did your results show these statements to be true?
2 Were your predictions correct?
3 Identify the advantages and disadvantages of using the water displacement method for determining volume.
4 Would your results be different if you used a different liquid from water? Explain your reasoning.
5 Were there any steps of the practical that you would do differently if you were to repeat the task? How could you improve them?

Science as a human endeavour 5.2

Graphene

Graphene is a two-dimensional arrangement of the particle carbon. Graphene was discovered in 2004. It has the physical properties of being extremely strong and an excellent conductor of electricity. Scientists have found a way to turn this amazing material into three-dimensional structures that are 10 times stronger than steel yet only 5% as dense! Therefore, graphene can help reduce the amount of steel used for infrastructure, and has exciting applications in space programs.

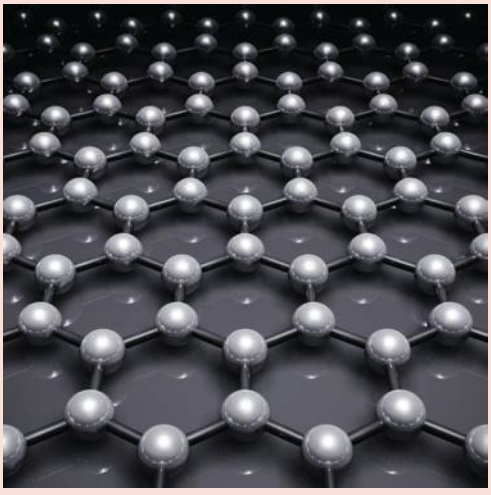

Figure 5.15 A model of the hexagonal lattice of a graphene layer

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Quick check 5.4

1 List some properties of a solid.
2 Copy and complete the table below.

Particle model of a solid	Property of a solid
Packed tightly together	
	Hard to break apart
Particles in solids cannot move freely; they vibrate in one spot, which is called a fixed position.	

3 A substance such as sand can be poured and does not have a fixed shape. Is it a solid? Explain.
4 a Explain the relationship between mass and density.
b Explain the relationship between volume and density.

Did you know? 5.2

Artificial spider silk

In 2017, researchers at the University of Cambridge in the UK designed an extremely stretchy, artificial spider silk that is tougher than DuPont™ **Kevlar**®. It is also environmentally sustainable because it is made from a material that is 98% water! This material offers the possibility of improving products such as bike helmets, parachutes, bulletproof jackets and aeroplane wings.

Figure 5.16 The properties of substances are used by scientists to design new materials with specific purposes.

Kevlar
a synthetic fibre that has five times the strength of steel for the same weight and is used in a variety of clothing, accessories and equipment (Dupont™ Kevlar®)

Liquids

Liquids are held together by the forces of attraction between particles, but these forces are not as strong as in solids. The particles of a liquid can move more freely and flow (be poured) and therefore take on the shape of the container they are inside. Because of gravity, a liquid always sits at the bottom of the container. Although their shape can change, liquids have a fixed volume and mass. Like solids, they cannot be compressed into 'much' smaller spaces. The particles can actually be pushed a tiny bit closer together, but it takes a massive effort, and so we generally say that the particles in a liquid are so closely packed that they cannot be compressed.

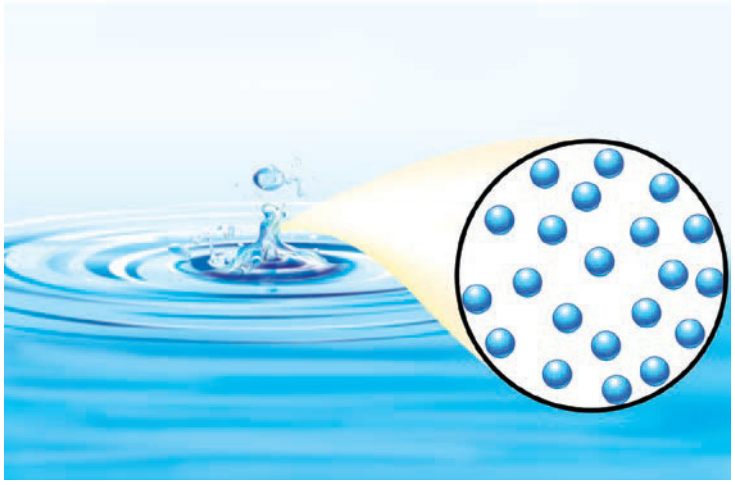

Figure 5.17 Consider the pond water and the arrangement of its particles shown here. Is its shape fixed? Can it be compressed? Is its volume fixed? Can it flow?

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You learned about density being a physical property of solids earlier in this section. Density is also a physical property of liquids (and gases). What is interesting to note, is that the density of a liquid is affected by temperature – the hotter a liquid is, the less dense it is. Think about what you know about the particle model; how could you explain this?

Try this 5.5

Make your own lava lamp

Search the internet for instructions on how to make a lava lamp at home. It is safe and easy to do. Begin by measuring the mass of a cup of oil and a cup of water. These are equal volumes, but which one is heavier? So, which one is more dense? How can you explain this using the particle model and your understanding of density? You used an effervescent tablet to power your lamp. What is used in real life? Explain how temperature affects the density of substances.

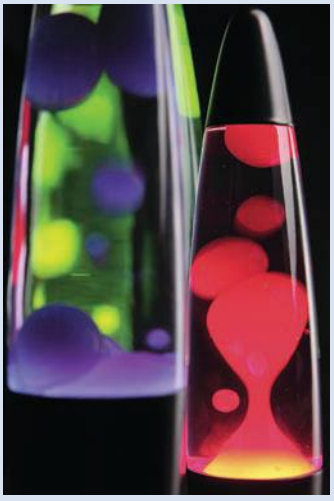

Figure 5.18 A lava lamp demonstrates density, one of the physical properties of liquids.

Gases

Scientists know the force of attraction between the particles in a gas is weak because the particles are far apart. This means that gases have no fixed shape or volume – they spread out to take up any space that is available. Keep in mind though, that if the container you put a gas in does not have a lid, the gas particles will bounce off the walls and spread out by diffusion. Due to the large spaces between gas particles, there is plenty of space for the particles of a gas to be squashed together or compressed.

VIDEO
Why does an aerosol can get colder when sprayed?

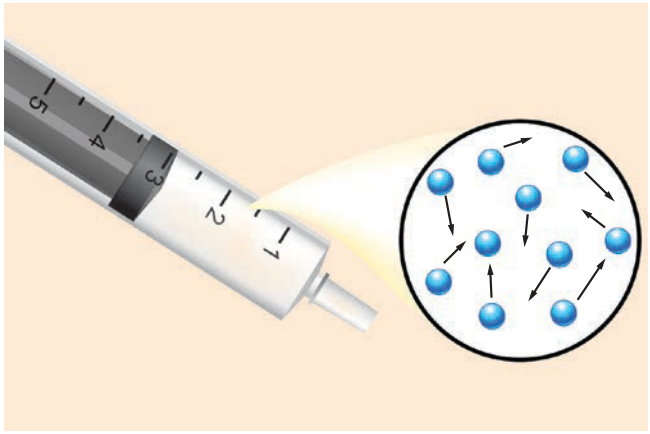

Figure 5.19 Consider the air in the first 3 cm of this syringe and the arrangement of the air particles shown in the diagram. Is its shape fixed? Can it be compressed? Is its volume fixed? Can it flow?

Explore! 5.4

Gases can be compressed because there is a lot of space between the particles. There are many different places where you can see the result of such compression; for example, oxygen tanks for diving, air freshener sprays, deodorants and fire extinguishers that are filled with carbon dioxide.

1. Why is carbon dioxide a good choice for extinguishing fires?
2. Use the particle model to explain why gases can be compressed.
3. Explain why carbon dioxide in a fire extinguisher is under a lot of pressure.

Figure 5.20 A common fire extinguisher found in homes and schools

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Quick check 5.5

1 Define 'volume' and 'mass'.
2 Contrast the shape and volume of solids, liquids and gases.
3 Copy and complete the following table to describe the particle structure and properties of solids, liquids and gases.

State	Examples	Particle diagram	Properties
Solid			
Liquid			
Gas			

Try this 5.6

Making oobleck

Find a recipe on the internet for making oobleck (cornflour and water) and make some to play with.

- Can it be rolled into a ball? Can it be stretched? Does it flow and take the shape of its container? What happens when a ball of oobleck is dropped?
- What are the physical properties of oobleck?
- Is oobleck a solid or liquid?

Did you know? 5.3

Oobleck

Figure 5.21 Oobleck is a non-Newtonian fluid.

Isaac Newton described how 'normal' liquids behave, and he observed that they have a constant resistance to flow (called viscosity). He noted that the flow of liquids does not change unless you change the temperature or pressure. For example, it doesn't matter whether water is sitting in a cup or is being stirred in a beaker, the flow, or ease of stirring, doesn't change. Therefore, most liquids are called Newtonian liquids or fluids because of his work. However, what about oobleck? What did you determine were its properties in the Try this 5.6 activity? Oobleck is a non-Newtonian fluid because the flow of the liquid changes depending on the amount of stress you put onto it. You may have noticed, when you try to stir oobleck, its flow changes and it becomes thicker and difficult to stir. As you remove the force and stop stirring, it becomes like a liquid again. This is because of the way the particles move and lock together when a force is applied.

Section 5.2 questions

Remembering

1 **Recall** how a liquid behaves in a container and what happens if it is put in a different container.
2 **Recall** how a gas behaves in a container and what happens if it is put in a different container.
3 **Recall** how particles in a solid behave. Use these terms in your answer: fixed, vibrate, shape, compressed, attraction.

QUIZ

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Understanding

4 **Summarise** the properties of a gas.

5 **Explain** why steam can be compressed but ice cannot.

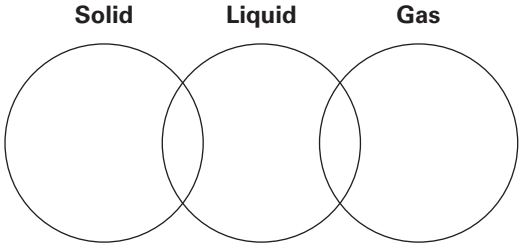
6 **Explain** two ways you could find out if a material is a solid.

Applying

7 The metal lid of a glass jar is stuck and cannot be undone. Kim runs the lid under hot water, and now the lid can be unscrewed. Using your understanding of the particle model and the properties of matter, **explain** why Kim used the hot tap.

8 Copy the Venn diagram and **organise** the following statements into the correct place to describe solids, liquids and gases.

Strong attraction between particles that are not as close	Particles that are free to move, no strong attraction	Strong attraction between close particles
Easy to compress	Definite shape	Can be poured
Expand to fill a container	Particles in a fixed position	Difficult to compress
Fixed volume	Not a fixed shape	



Analysing

9 A plastic toy unicorn floats in liquid X but sinks in liquid Y. **Infer** what this tells us about the densities of the unicorn, liquid X and liquid Y.

10 The table below lists the densities of several materials. **Deduce** which material will float in water. Explain your answer referring to the materials in the table as evidence.

Material	Density (g mL^{-1})
Plastic	0.90
Water	1.00
Sulfur	2.07
Steel	7.80
Rubber	1.20

Evaluating

11 **Discuss** how and why the properties of a liquid are different from the properties of a gas.

12 Office chairs, like the one shown in Figure 5.22, usually have a lever on the side for adjusting their height. The stand contains a cylinder and a piston that can move up and down inside it and consequently, the chairs often feel quite springy when you sit on them. **Decide** if the cylinder contains a solid, a liquid or a gas. Give reasons for your answer.

Figure 5.22 An office chair

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5.3 Changing states

Learning goals

1 To be able to define the changes in physical state on heating, including melting, boiling, evaporation and sublimation.
2 To be able to define the changes in physical state on cooling, including freezing, condensation and deposition.

WORKSHEET

WIDGET
Metals and melting points

Under the right conditions, all matter can change from one state to another; for example, from a solid to liquid, liquid to gas, or liquid to solid (Figure 5.23). States are sometimes referred to as 'phases'. A change of state may occur because of a change in temperature or pressure, which may be naturally occurring or caused by humans.

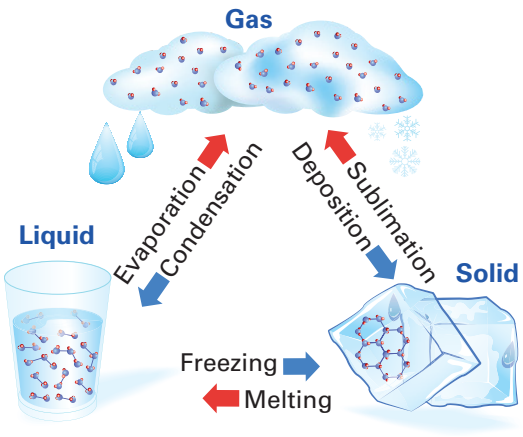

Figure 5.23 Changes in the state of water

Adding heat

Heating a substance causes an increase in temperature, and if enough heat is added, the substance can change its state.

Melting occurs when heat causes a solid to become a liquid. Remember that heating a substance gives the particles of that substance more energy and this makes the particles move or vibrate faster. If enough heat is added to the particles, the edge of the solid will eventually vibrate so much that the forces of attraction between the particles will be reduced slightly and some of them will break free. The temperature at which this occurs is called the **melting point** of the substance. Different substances respond to heat differently and therefore have different melting points.

melting
the change of state from solid to liquid caused by heat

melting point
the temperature at which a specific solid melts

When a substance changes from a solid to a liquid (by melting), its physical properties also change; however, the actual substance remains the same. For example, melting ice involves solid water becoming a liquid form of water. The properties of ice and liquid water are very different (hardness, ability to be poured, shape), but they are both water.

Figure 5.24 Melting butter on a hot corn cob involves a solid forming a liquid. The properties may change but it is still butter.

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evaporation
the change of state from liquid to gas

boiling
the rapid vaporisation of a liquid that occurs when it is heated to its boiling point

Evaporation (or vaporisation) occurs when heat causes a liquid to become a gas. Adding heat, and therefore energy, to a liquid causes the particles of the liquid to move faster and spread out, and this increased distance decreases the attraction between particles. If enough heat is added to the liquid, the particles at the liquid's surface can vibrate or move fast enough to break away from the rest of the particles and form a gas (Figure 5.25). For example, at a natural hot spring, water changes state from liquid to vapour, and some of it changes back to liquid droplets to form clouds. However, evaporation can occur at different temperatures. Wet clothes on a clothes line will dry by the water evaporating from the surface of the clothes. The clothes dry faster when it is sunny and hot, but they still dry on cooler cloudy days.

Boiling is the rapid vaporisation of a liquid that occurs when it is heated to a temperature called the boiling point. Vaporisation starts not only on the exposed surface, but also at various points throughout the liquid where bubbles of vapour form. When water boils at 100°C in a transparent kettle or saucepan, you can see bubbles containing water vapour begin to form low down in the water. The bubbles expand, rise and break at the surface (Figure 5.26).

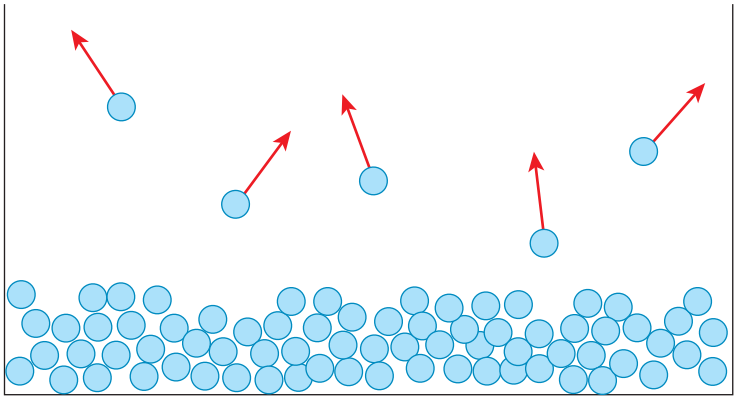

Figure 5.25 When heated, particles gain energy and spread out, allowing them to break free from the liquid and form a gas.

Figure 5.26 The bubbles in boiling in water form low down in the liquid, then expand and rise to the surface.

Explore! 5.5

Different substances have different boiling points as well as different melting points.

1. Find out the melting and boiling points of some different substances.
2. Draw up a table to record the melting point and boiling point of each of the substances you investigated.

Did you know? 5.4

Melting and boiling points can change

Melting and boiling points depend on the height above sea level. The higher up you are, the lower the melting and boiling points of substances. Even in Perth's Darling Range, which is only around 580 metres above sea level, the boiling point of water is around 98°C. Can you explain why this is the case?

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Sublimation is when a solid changes state to become a gas without becoming a liquid first. Most solid substances can go through the processes of melting to a liquid and boiling or evaporating to a gas. However, a few rare solid substances skip the liquid state altogether and can change from a solid directly to a gas. Dry ice (solid carbon dioxide) is an example of a substance that sublimes.

sublimation
the change of state from solid to gas, without passing through the liquid state

freezing
the change of state from liquid to solid

Removing heat

Cooling a substance causes a decrease in temperature. If enough heat is lost, the substance can change its state.

Freezing (or solidification) occurs when heat is lost and a liquid becomes a solid. The process of freezing is the reverse of melting. As the liquid cools, the particles lose energy and move or vibrate slower. If enough energy is removed, the particles will end up vibrating in a fixed position and, due to their closeness, the particles will form stronger attractions with their neighbours than before, and a solid is formed. The point at which this occurs is called the freezing point. Different substances have different freezing points. For example, the freezing (and melting) point of water is 0°C, while the freezing (and melting) point of oxygen is –218.8°C.

Figure 5.27 Snowflakes form when the liquid water turns into the solid ice.

Try this 5.7

Freezing water

Fill an empty plastic bottle with water (not quite to the top) and mark the water level with a waterproof marker. **Do not** use a glass bottle. Carefully place the open water bottle in the freezer and leave it overnight. Did the shape of the container change? Why? What might have happened if the container had been made of a hard material such as glass or stone? Explain what happened by using the particle model and your knowledge of changes in state.

Did you know? 5.5

Ice is strange!

Solids usually take up less volume than liquids because the particles are held closer together. However, ice is a very strange solid that actually takes up more volume (and is therefore less dense) than liquid water! That is why icebergs float on the sea, rather than sink to the bottom. A bottle of water put into the freezer will expand and sometimes break because the frozen ice takes up more space than the water. This is because particles occupy different positions in solid ice and liquid water.

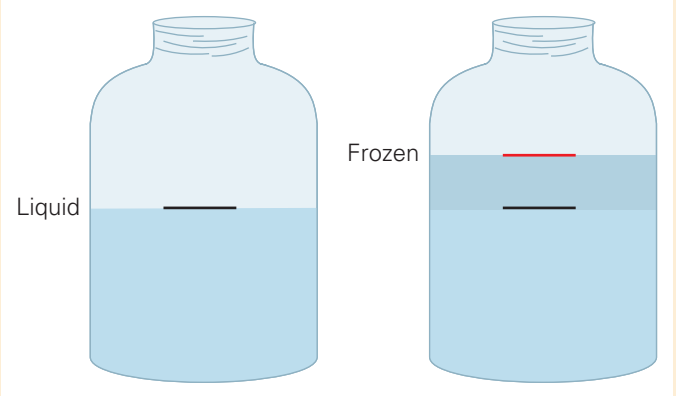

Figure 5.28 If you completed the Try this 5.7 Freezing water activity, you would have seen that when water is frozen, its volume increases.

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condensation
the change of state from gas to liquid

deposition
the change of state from gas to solid, without passing through the liquid state

Condensation occurs when heat is lost, causing a gas to become a liquid. As a gas cools, the particles of gas lose energy and slow down. When they have slowed down enough, the particles become close enough together that they begin to attract one another, and consequently form a liquid. An example you may see every day is when the steam from your shower condenses on the mirror of your bathroom as the water vapour (gas) hits the cool mirror and forms a liquid.

Deposition is also known as reverse sublimation or desublimation. Deposition occurs when a reduction in heat causes a gas to become a solid, without passing through the liquid state. Like sublimation, deposition is rare. However, it can be seen when, in sub-freezing air, water vapour changes directly to ice without first becoming a liquid.

Figure 5.29 Condensation forms on a window overnight as the air cools.

Try this 5.8

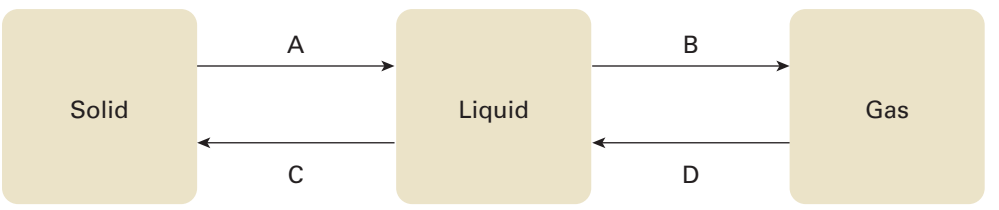
Changing state

Working with your classmates, role-play heating a solid so that it changes state from solid to liquid and then from liquid to gas. Make sure you can explain what the particles are doing. How would you role-play what happens when a gas cools down?

Quick check 5.6

1 In your own words, define the processes of melting, evaporation, boiling, sublimation, freezing, condensation and deposition. Add these terms to your glossary.

2 Solids, liquids and gases can change state. In the diagram below, each arrow represents a change in state.



- a Which letter represents melting?
- b What is the name of process B?
- c What happens to the particles in a solid when it becomes a liquid?
- d What is the name of process C?

3 Use the particle theory to explain these questions.

- a What happens when you increase the temperature of a cube of frozen juice?
- b What happens when you increase the temperature of liquid water?

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Practical 5.5: Investigation

Heating and cooling curves

Be careful

Take care when using the Bunsen burner, heatproof mat, tripod and glass thermometer. Be aware of the boiling water.

Aim

To investigate and construct the heating and cooling curves for stearic acid

Planning

1 Complete some research and write a rationale about kinetic theory, energy and changes of state.
2 Write a risk assessment for this investigation.

Materials

- boiling tube
- 250 mL beaker
- Bunsen burner
- stearic acid (octadecanoic acid) (enough to fill approximately a quarter of a boiling tube. Solidified stearic acid can be stored in the boiling tubes and reused)
- tripod
- gauze mat
- heatproof mat
- thermometer/temperature probe
- retort stand and clamp
- stopwatch
- matches
- safety glasses

Method

1 Wearing your safety glasses, set up the equipment as shown in Figure 5.30.
2 Put 150 mL of water in the beaker.

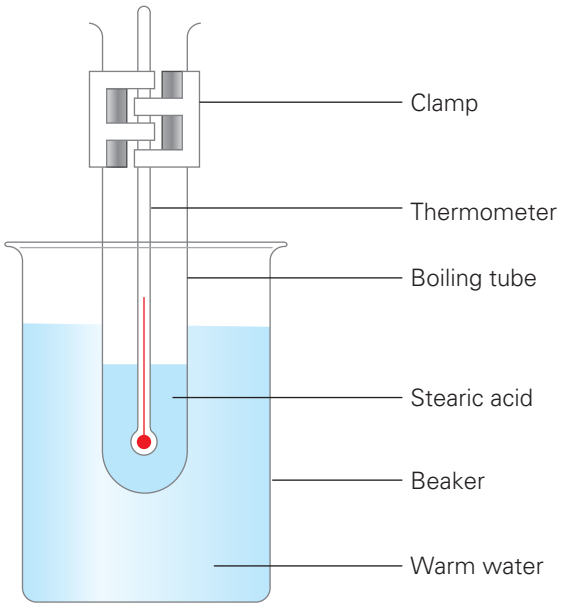

Figure 5.30 The equipment set-up you will need

3 Heat the beaker on a tripod and gauze until the water just starts to boil. Maintain this at a gentle boil, pulling the Bunsen burner aside if it becomes too vigorous.
4 Record the temperature of the stearic acid every 30 seconds until it reaches 70°C. Make a note on your results table when the stearic acid starts to melt.

continued...

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...continued

5 Carefully remove the boiling tube from the beaker, using the clamp, and record the temperature of the stearic acid every 30 seconds as it starts to cool.
6 Continue until the temperature reaches 30°C. Make a note on your results table when the stearic acid starts to solidify.

Results

1 Draw suitable results tables for this investigation.
2 Draw a line graph to show how the temperature of the stearic acid changed over the total time you took measurements. You should plot both sets of results on the one graph. Use a blue pencil to plot your cooling data and a red pencil to plot your heating data.

Discussion

1 Analyse your graph to deduce the freezing point of stearic acid.
2 Compare this temperature with the melting point indicated on the graph.
3 Explain what is happening to the particles in the solid stearic acid as they are melting.
4 Explain why parts of the graph are horizontal lines. Think about what is happening. Shouldn't the temperature be increasing if the Bunsen burner is still on? Where is the energy going?
5 Identify any potential sources of error in this experiment.
6 Suggest any changes you could make to the method to improve the quality of the data in future experiments. Justify your suggestions by explaining how each change will improve the data quality.

Conclusion

Draw a conclusion from this investigation regarding kinetic theory and energy. Justify your answer with data.

Science as a human endeavour 5.3

Is hot water different from cold water?

You have just been investigating the three states of water – solid ice, liquid water and water vapour (gas). However, our understanding of the states of water is changing. In April 2016, an international team of scientists revealed that they had found signs that liquid water might actually exist in two different states. The researchers were surprised to find a number of physical properties of water change between 50°C and 60°C. This could have a profound impact on our understanding of biology and environmental science.

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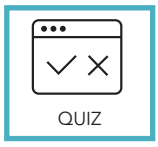
Section 5.3 questions



Remembering

1 **Recall** what happens to the closeness and energy of particles when you heat a substance. What happens when you cool a substance instead?

2 **Recall** the name of the process in each yellow box (e.g. melting, evaporation). Indicate whether you add heat or take away heat to achieve that change of state. You may do so by redrawing the diagram shown and using different colours for the arrows depending on whether heat is added or taken away.

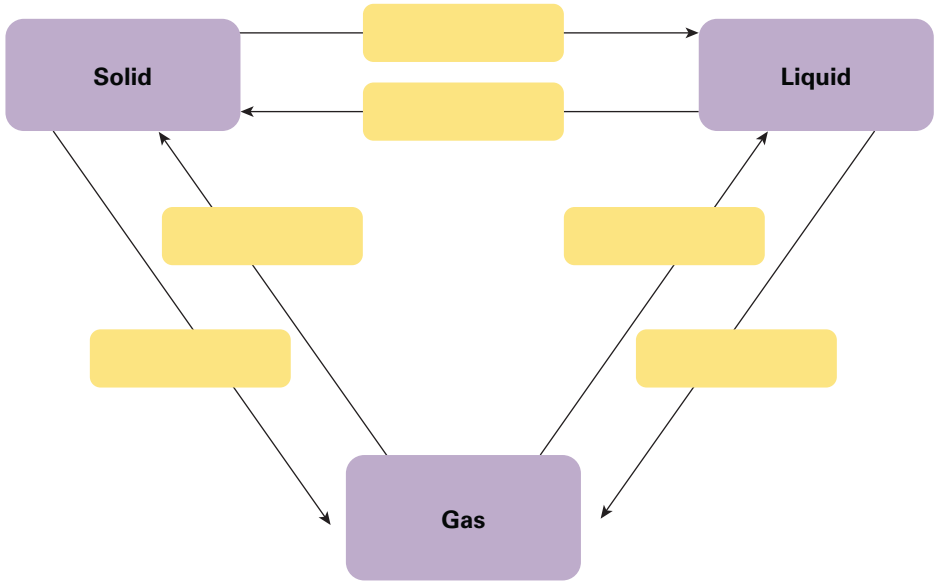


Figure 5.31 Changes of state

Understanding

3 For each of the following processes, **state** whether energy is added or taken away.

- a sublimation
- b evaporation
- c freezing
- d condensation
- e deposition
- f melting

Applying

4 Use the following terms to **describe** the processes of:

- a ice melting
- b water boiling.

boil	boiling point	decrease
evaporate	gas	heat
increase	liquid	melt
melting point	particle	solid
space	speed	temperature

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Analysing

5 Answer the following questions, using the information in Figure 5.32.

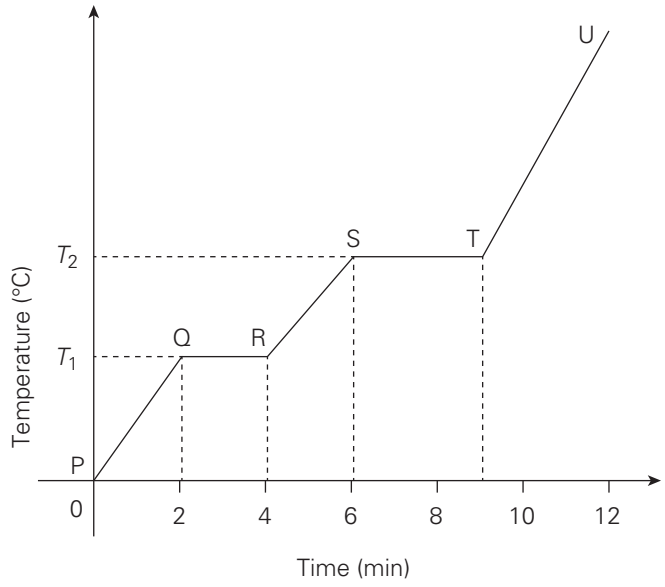

Figure 5.32 The heating curve of a substance that exists as a solid at time 0 minutes

a **Identify** what process is happening between 2 and 4 minutes.
b **Identify** the state of matter that is present at U.
c **Identify** the temperature of the boiling point.
d **Identify** the time period when the substance is all in liquid form.

6 Use the information in the table below to answer the following questions.

Substance	Melting/freezing point (°C)	Boiling point (°C)
Water	0	100
Aluminium	660	2467
Iron	961	2212
Ethanol	–130	78
Helium	–272	–268

a **Identify** the substance that has the highest melting point.
b **Identify** the substance that has the lowest melting point.
c **Sequence** the substances from lowest boiling point to highest boiling point.
d **Identify** one substance that is a gas at 20°C.
e **Identify** one substance that is a liquid at 20°C.
f **Identify** one substance that is a solid at 20°C.

Evaluating

7 In cold countries, rock faces can sometimes have pockets of water trapped inside cracks after it rains. **Decide** what might happen if the trapped water freezes when the temperature drops.

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Chapter review

Chapter checklist

In the Interactive Textbook, the success criteria are linked to the review questions and will be automatically ticked when answers are correct. Alternatively, you can download this checklist from the Interactive Textbook to complete it.

Success criteria		Linked question	Check
5.1	I can recall the particle model.	11	
5.1	I can describe the three states of matter.	17	
5.1	I can describe how heat influences contraction or expansion of particles.	8	
5.2	I can describe the properties of different solids, liquids and gases.	2	
5.3	I can describe how matter can change state.	10	

Review questions

Remembering

SCORCHER

1 **Identify** the correct words or terms to answer the questions or fill in the blanks.
   a You can do this if you want a metal to contract.
   b Hot air _____ because it expands and gets less dense.
   c This metal is a liquid at normal temperatures and, because of the way it contracts and expands, can be used to measure temperature.
   d This word means the same as evaporation.
   e This is the process of turning a solid into a liquid by heating it.
   f When the water vapour in the air cools down overnight, it will often _____ and form dew.
   g Hot air balloons rise because the _____ of its air increases.

2 **Recall** the properties of solids, liquids and gases. You may do so by copying and completing the following table.

	Solids	Liquids	Gases
Shape			
Volume			
Density			
Ability to flow			
Ability to be compressed			
Closeness of particles			

3 **Recall** the two measurements that you need to make to calculate the density of an object.

4 **State** if each of the following statements is true or false. Rewrite the false statements so that they are true.
   a Oobleck behaves only like a solid.
   b Oxygen can be compressed.
   c A wooden toy has a fixed shape.

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d Water will always boil at 100°C.
e Melting points are different depending on the substance.
f Steam changes back to a liquid at the boiling point.
g Liquid particles have the highest speed of movement.
h The particles in water are closer than in steam.
i Solids and liquids have a fixed mass, while gases do not.

5 **Select** the property (A–D) that matches the correct behaviour of the particles (1–4).

Property	Behaviour of particles
A Take the shape of the container	**1** The particles are very close already
B Are very difficult to compress	**2** The particles are not held together at all
C Cannot be poured	**3** The particles are free to move
D Can spread out in all directions	**4** The particles are not free to move

Understanding

6 The particles of a substance are moving very fast with a lot of space between the particles. **Identify** the state of this substance.
7 **Explain** why a solid is very difficult to compress when force is applied.
8 **Explain** why temperature influences the state of a substance.
9 **Describe** the likely outcome of heat being absorbed by particles.
10 Use your knowledge of the particle model to **explain** what happens in the following situations.
a Decrease the temperature of steam (gas)
b Decrease the temperature of liquid water

Applying

11 **Explain** the gas pressure in a full balloon with reference to the particle model.
12 Imagine a single grain of sand. It is hard and has a definite shape. If you scoop up a handful of dry sand, you can pour it out of your hand, which sounds like the behaviour of a liquid, not a solid. It is very difficult to build a sand castle with dry sand. However, if you wet the sand, you can shape it into a sand castle. **Explain** why you might classify sand as a solid.

Figure 5.33 Sand seems to have different properties when it is wet and when it is dry.

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13 You get a can of soft drink out of the fridge and leave it on the bench while you get a glass from the cupboard. When you return to the can, it has beads of water on the outside. **Explain** where the water came from and what change of state occurred.

14 Block A and block B are made of different materials. Each block is in a beaker with baby oil, as shown in Figure 5.34.

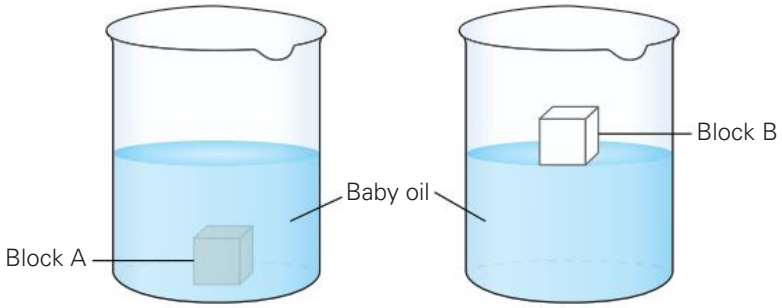

Figure 5.34 Block A sinks in baby oil, while block B floats.

a **Explain** why block A sinks and block B floats. The density of baby oil is 0.82 g mL^{-1}.

b **Decide** if you would expect the same or different results if you warm the baby oil in the beaker containing block B.

15 **Describe** how one gas diffuses through another.

16 Figure 5.35 shows the process of diffusion occurring; that is, the movement of gases or liquids spreading out in another gas or liquid.

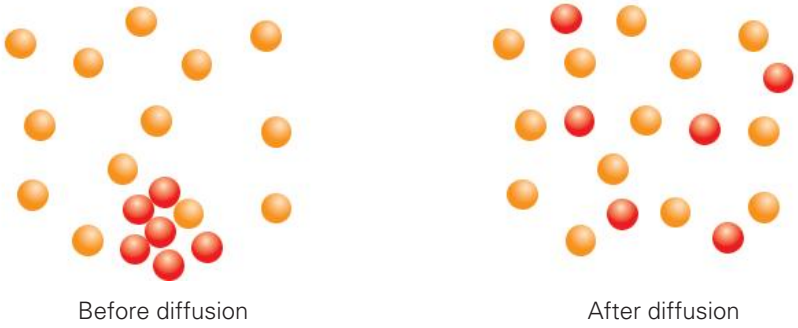

Figure 5.35 The process of diffusion illustrated as particle diagrams. The particles are constantly moving and, over time, will spread out.

a **Explain** what is happening to the red particles as they diffuse through the orange particles.

b Factors such as heat can affect how fast diffusion occurs. Would the red particles diffuse faster or slower in warm water? **Explain**, making mention of the particle model.

c The state of the substances diffusing can also affect how fast diffusion occurs. **Decide** which would diffuse faster – particles of perfume in air or particles of ink in water. Give reasons for your answer.

d An effervescent tablet put into water bubbles until it is gone. This is an example of diffusion. **Decide** if this is an example of a solid moving through a liquid, a liquid moving through a liquid or a gas moving through a liquid. Give reasons for your answer.

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Analysing

17 **Classify** the substances in Figure 5.36 as solid, liquid or gas. What characteristic allowed you to identify substance B?

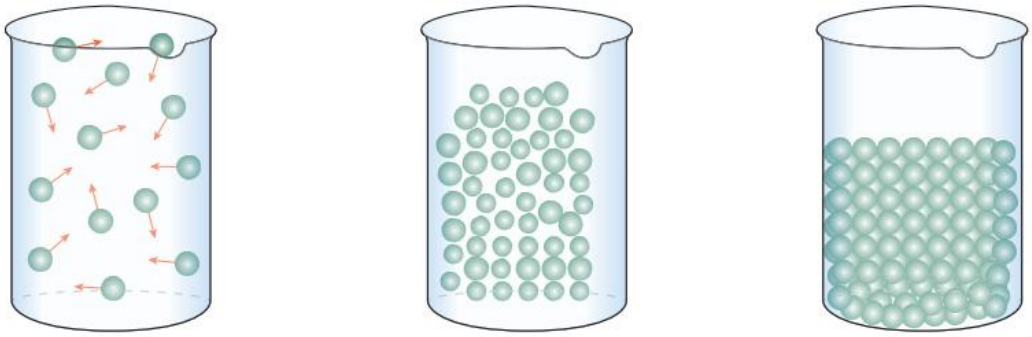

Figure 5.36 Classify these substances as solid, liquid or gas.

Evaluating

18 The particle theory of matter states that there are attractive forces and spaces between particles. **Decide** if you would expect the forces of attraction to be larger or smaller for particles that are further apart from one another.

19 Burning a fuel produces a lot of heat and the particles formed are usually in the gaseous state. **Discuss** why, when solid or liquid fuels burn, the product is usually a gas.

20 When you are walking home from school, look at the concrete footpath. You may notice that it is not one long path but rather a series of large sections all in a row. **Propose** why you think concrete paths are constructed this way.

21 Dry ice is used in filmmaking to set the mood for scenes (e.g. in horror, fantasy and mystery films) (Figure 5.37). **Determine** how dry ice is useful in this case.

Figure 5.37 What process is involved in dry ice such that it can create this effect?

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Data questions

Water exists naturally on Earth in three states: solid (ice), liquid (water) and gas (water vapour). Figure 5.38 shows the point at which water changes between these states at different temperatures and pressures.

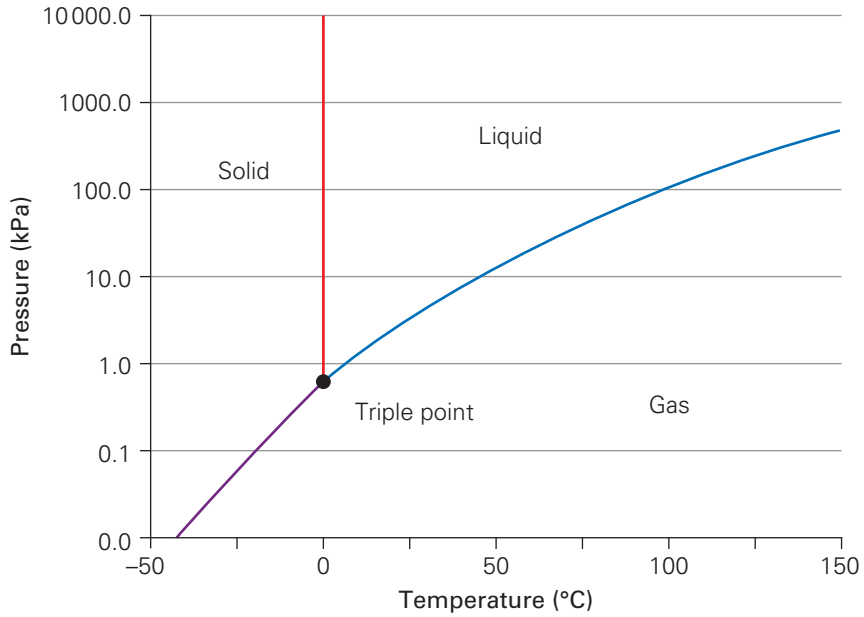
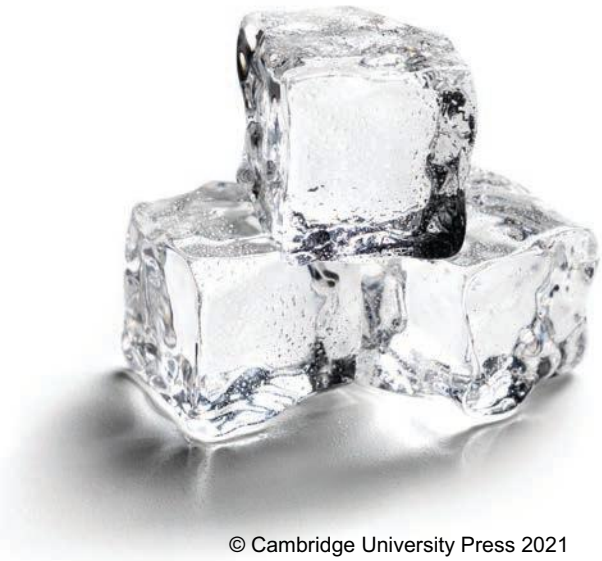


Figure 5.38 State changes of water at different temperatures and pressures. The purple line illustrates sublimation, the red line melting and the blue line the evaporation.

1 **Identify** the state of water at 50°C and 100 kPa.
2 **Identify** the temperature of freezing at 1000 kPa.
3 **Contrast** the boiling point of liquid water at 10 kPa pressure and 100 kPa pressure.
4 **Infer** what is meant by the 'triple point'.
5 Given that atmospheric pressure (the pressure at sea level) is approximately 101 kPa, **explain** why we tend to encounter water in its liquid state in our daily lives (puddles, rain, rivers, lakes, coming out of taps etc.).
6 **Predict** at what temperature liquid water will freeze at 20 000 kPa pressure.
7 **Justify** why, at atmospheric pressure (101 kPa), snow should melt, and not sublime.
8 Starting at atmospheric pressure (101 kPa), **deduce** whether the pressure needs to be increased or decreased at 0°C for ice to sublime.
9 **Deduce** whether it is possible for water to exist as a liquid above 100°C.



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STEM activity: Prosthesis design

Background information

Your skeleton protects your organs and gives your body shape and structure. Your skeleton is necessary for you to move, make blood cells, store calcium and more. You would look very different without it. For various reasons, not everyone has all the bones that complete their skeleton. Biomedical engineers can help in this area. Biomedical engineers combine engineering principles and problem-solving strategies to medicine for healthcare purposes. In this case, a biomedical engineer would study the strength and durability of bones so that they can replicate them to make prostheses (artificial devices that replace body parts). Of course, there are criteria and constraints that a biomedical engineer needs to think about when designing, for example, a prosthetic leg. Consider what would be some important features of a good prosthetic leg.

Biomedical engineers design new ways to create prosthetic legs that have all the characteristics you have thought of, but most importantly biomedical engineers must carefully select the right materials for the project. Whenever something is made by engineers, they must consider both the chemical and physical properties of the materials they use – their choices are key to biomedical technologies.

Design brief: Construct a lower-leg prosthesis that can assist in movement.

Activity instructions

In teams, you will become a biomedical engineer and investigate the technology of prosthetics. First, list the characteristics and features that are important for a prosthetic leg, then design your prototype using various ordinary materials that you have selected on the basis of their physical properties, before creating a lower-leg prosthetic prototype. Your team will then demonstrate your prosthetic's strength, analyse your prototype and make suggestions for design improvements.

Figure 5.39 Components of an artificial lower leg

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Suggested materials

- ruler or tape measure
- scissors
- prosthetic structural materials from home, e.g. cardboard tubes, sponges, pants, shoes, rope
- roll of duct tape

Research and feasibility

1 Conduct research to find out what types of materials are used to manufacture prostheses, the physical properties of the materials, and design considerations of the prosthesis.

2 Consider important design factors for the prosthesis, including aesthetics, cost and customisation of the prosthesis. Use a table to rank important considerations of the prosthesis. You can also add other design considerations.

Design consideration	Why this is important?	Rank of importance
Aesthetics (how it looks)		
Cost of materials		
Customisation of the prosthesis (socket that connects the prosthesis)		
Useability (how easy it is to use)		

Design

3 Design a lower leg prosthesis and label all the design features. Consider the types of materials you have available, how they will be used in construction and the durability of these materials compared to the materials used in manufacturing. Also, ensure your design is practical and considers how the prosthesis would be attached to the limb, and how it allows ankle movement.

Figure 5.40 An artificial limb restores functionality and independence.

Create

4 Construct the lower leg prosthesis you have designed using the materials available.

Evaluate and modify

5 Create a reflection chart containing Positives, Minuses and Interesting observations, and evaluate your constructed lower leg prosthesis prototype. Make sure you reflect on the strength, durability, usability and comfort of the prototype.

Positives	Negatives	Interesting
e.g. Ankle movement is realistic and the ankle has a 60° range.	e.g. Cardboard tubing used was not strong and broke when tested.	e.g. The foam used around the tubing was a strong support for the tubing.

6 Explain the improvements and modifications you would make to the prototype in a presentation to the class.

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Chapter 6
Particles

Chapter introduction

This chapter goes beyond the idea of there being many small particles in matter and deeper into the exciting world of chemistry. You will look at atoms, elements, compounds and mixtures, the arrangement of the particles in these substances and compare their characteristics. You will also learn about their symbols and how to write chemical formulas. It's like learning a new language!

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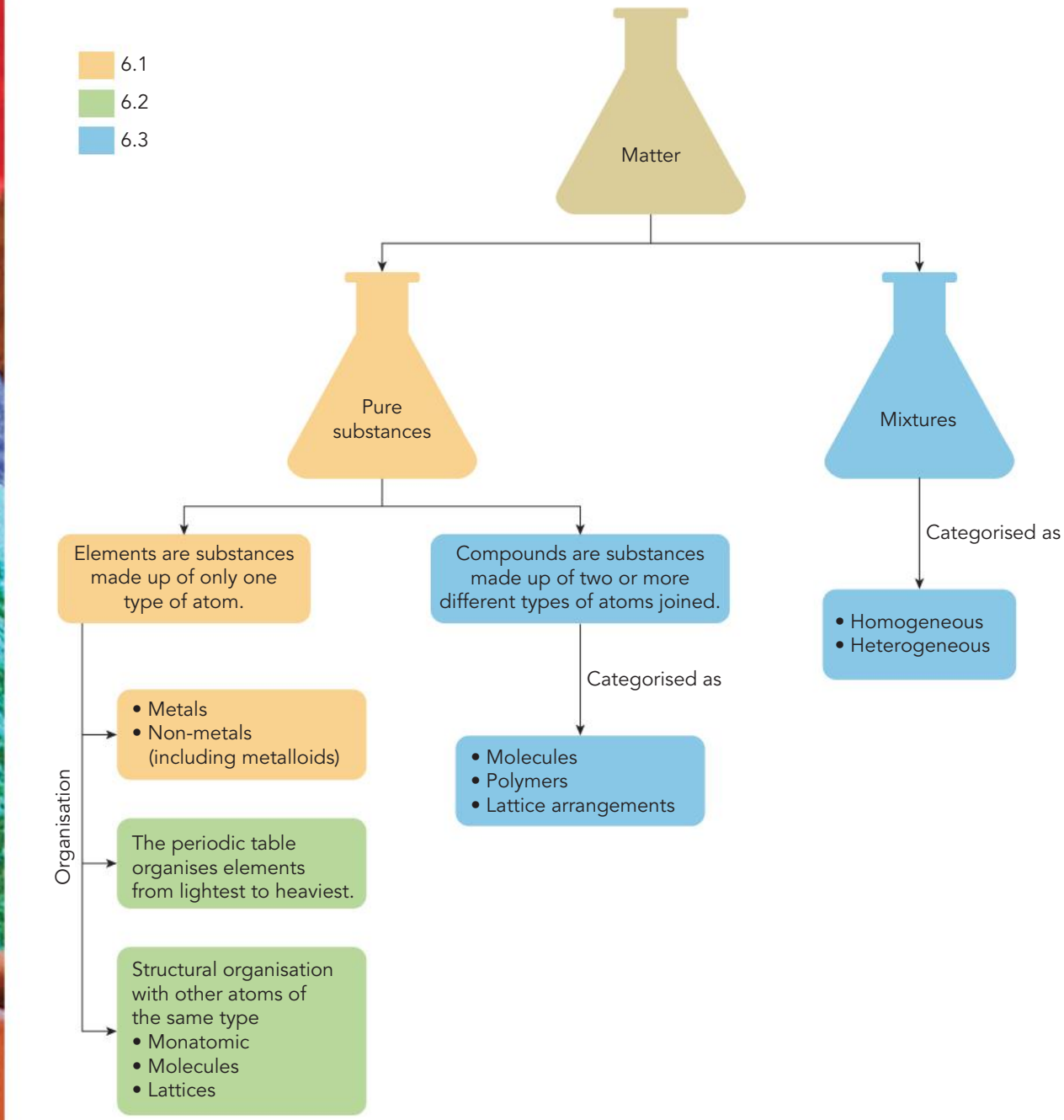
Chapter map



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6.1 Atoms and elements

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to define an element, a molecule, a compound and a mixture.
2 To be able to distinguish metal, non-metal and metalloid elements.

atom
the smallest possible piece of any substance; atoms make up all matter

pure substance
a substance made up of one type of atom or the same groups of atoms (molecules or compounds)

chemical bond
a strong force of attraction that joins atoms together

covalent bond
a chemical bond, usually between non-metal atoms

metallic bond
a chemical bond, usually between metal atoms

In Chapter 5 you learned about the particle theory of matter, and the relationship between solids, liquids and gases. Scientists refer to some of these tiny particles using the scientific term '**atom**'. This word comes from an ancient Greek word that means 'indivisible'. As you go through high school, you will learn more about atoms, but we are going to keep it simple for now. If you want to imagine how small atoms are, there are about 10 000 000 000 000 000 (10^{15}) atoms in the dot at the bottom of this exclamation mark!

Try this 6.1

Cut a strip of paper 28 cm x 1 cm. Now cut it in half, and you will have two 14 cm lengths of paper. This is cut 1. Repeat this as many times as you can, counting your cuts as you go.

How many cuts were you able to make? Name one item that is the same size as the paper with 1 cut, 3 cuts, 5 cuts. How many times do you think you could keep cutting the paper smaller and smaller? It would take 31 cuts to get a piece of paper the size of an atom!

Pure substances and mixtures

In chemistry, substances are often classified as pure substances or mixtures. You investigated this idea in Year 7, but now let's take it further.

ionic bond
a chemical bond, usually between metals and non-metal atoms

element
a substance made up of only one type of atom

molecule
two or more atoms joined together by strong covalent bonds

A **pure substance** is made up of only one type of atom or the same group of atoms. Atoms don't usually exist on their own – often there are two or more atoms joined together. In this case, the strong force of attraction used to join atoms is called a **chemical bond**. There are several different types of chemical bonds: **covalent bonds** (a bond usually between two or more non-metal atoms), **metallic bonds** (bonds between metal atoms) and **ionic bonds** (a bond usually between a metal and a non-metal atom).

In this chapter you will learn about two types of pure substances: elements and compounds.

An **element** is a substance made up of only one type of atom. These can be single atoms or atoms that are bonded together, but they are all the same type of atom. For example, gold is an element and is made up of many single gold atoms joined by metallic bonds. A combination of atoms held together by strong covalent bonds is called a **molecule**. Atoms of the element hydrogen bind together to form molecules, each with two hydrogen atoms joined by covalent bonds.

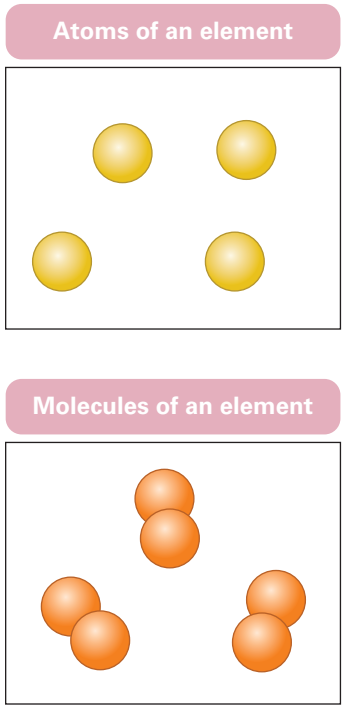

Figure 6.1 In an element, all the atoms are the same.

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A **compound** is a substance made up of two or more different types of atoms bonded together. For example, water is a covalent molecular compound because it is made up of two hydrogen atoms bonded to one oxygen atom, joined by strong covalent bonds.

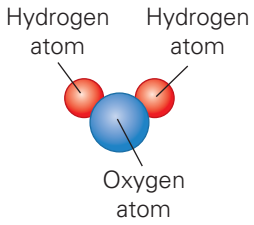

Figure 6.2 A water molecule is a compound, because it has two different types of atoms: one oxygen atom bound together with two hydrogen atoms. Water is also a pure substance because it is made up of only one type of molecule, the one shown here.

A **mixture** is a substance that is made up of two or more different substances (compounds or elements) that are not bonded together. For example, air is a mixture of several different elements and compounds.

compound
a substance made up of two or more different types of atoms

mixture
a substance made up of two or more different substances (compounds or elements) that are not bonded together

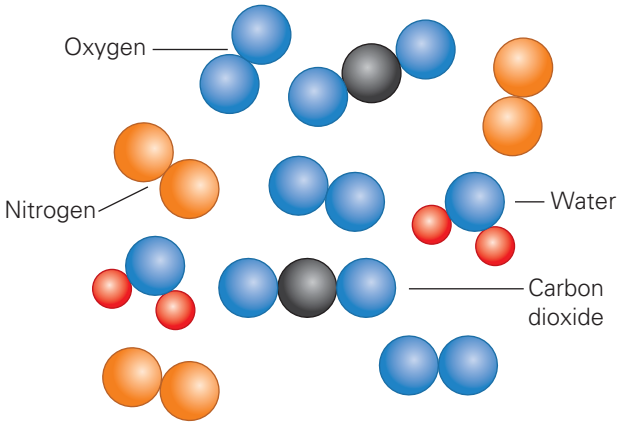

Figure 6.3 Air is a mixture of nitrogen, oxygen, argon, carbon dioxide, water vapour and very small amounts of other gases.

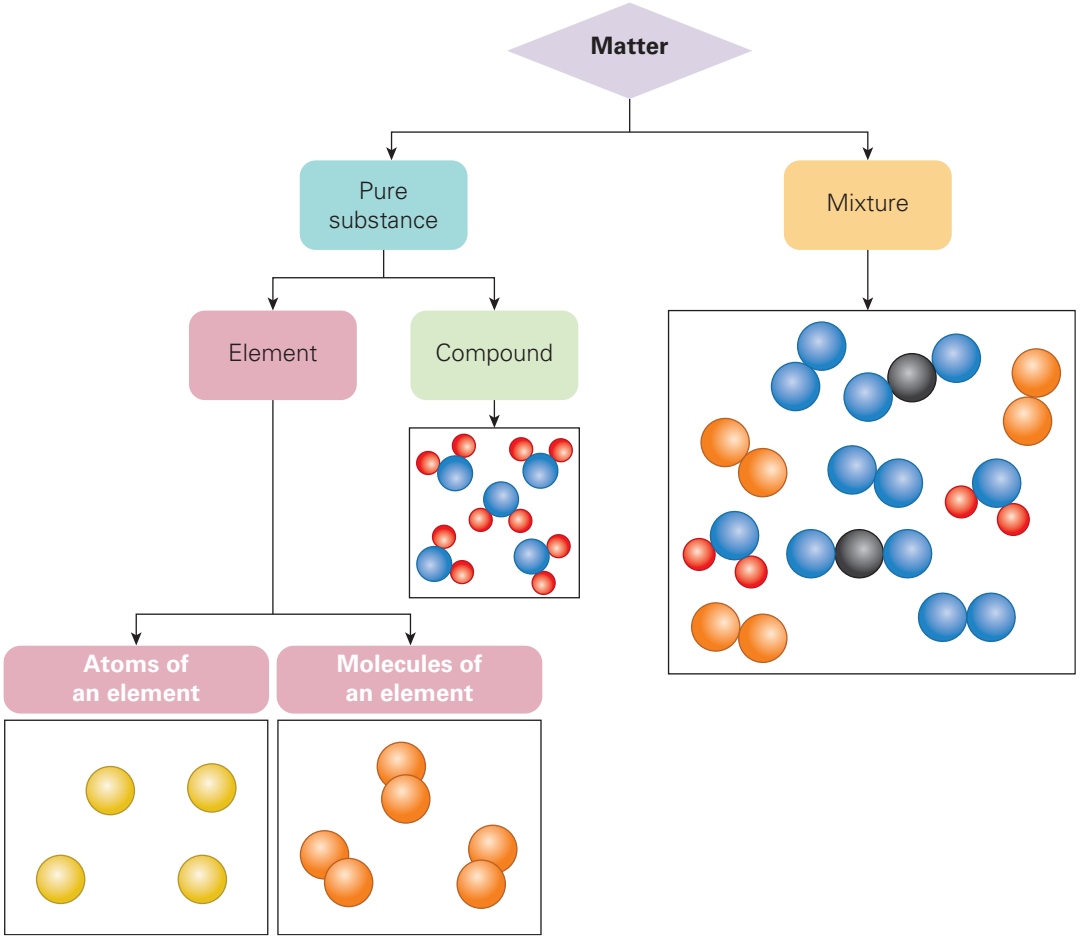

Figure 6.4 Putting it all together: matter is made up of pure substances (elements and compounds) and mixtures.

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Try this 6.2

Use Lego® or Molymod® kits to model different elements, compounds and mixtures.

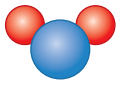
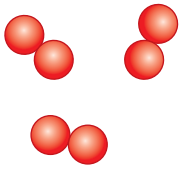
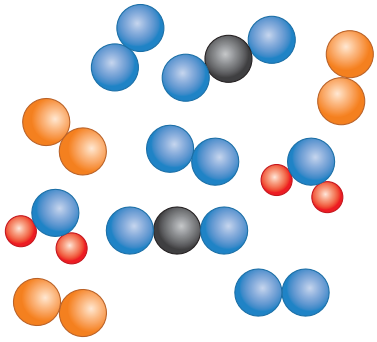
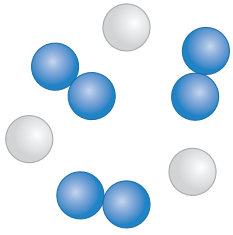
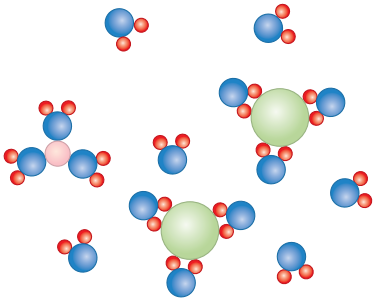
For a challenge, model pure elements, pure compounds, a mixture of elements, a mixture of compounds and a mixture of elements and compounds.

Quick check 6.1

1 Rewrite the following terms, matching them with their correct definitions.

Term	Definition
Molecule	The smallest piece of substance you can have; it makes up all matter
Compound	A substance made up of only one type of atom
Chemical bond	A substance made from two or more different types of atoms
Element	Two or more atoms (same or different) joined together by covalent bonds
Atom	The strong force of attraction that holds atoms together

2 Rewrite the following table, by re-ordering diagrams A–E to match the terms and examples.

Term	Example	Diagram
Mixture of elements	Oxygen and helium	A 
Pure compound	Water	B 
Element	Hydrogen	C 
Mixture of compounds	Salt and water	D 
Mixture of elements and compounds	Air	E 

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Did you know? 6.1

Scanning tunnelling microscopes

You cannot see an atom with a light optical microscope, which is the type of microscope you may have at school. In 1981, a type of microscope called a scanning tunnelling microscope (STM) was developed that allowed scientists to finally see atoms. Since then, the technology has improved further, and in 2018, the world record for the highest resolution microscope was achieved by researchers at Cornell University, USA. Their transmission electron microscope (TEM) measures down to an impressively small one billionth of a metre.

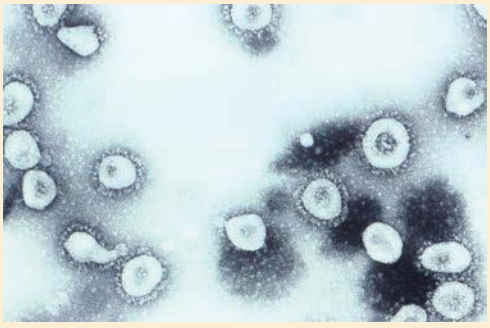

Figure 6.5 A transmission electron microscopic image of coronavirus OC43, a member of the same family of viruses that causes SARS-CoV-2 (the novel coronavirus that causes COVID-19).

Figure 6.6 This scanning transmission electron microscope in the USA is able to see single atoms.

VIDEO
How does a scanning tunnelling microscope work?

Elements

You have learned that an element is a pure substance made up of just one type of atom or one type of molecule. Elements make up all matter. Elements differ from one another because they are made of different types of atoms. These different types of atoms differ by mass and size, and you will learn more about this in Year 9.

The first elements were identified thousands of years ago, and included gold, tin, copper and iron. Since then, more and more elements have been discovered in Earth's rocks, soil, air and water. Scientists have also synthesised some elements, but these artificial elements are highly radioactive and, because they are so heavy, most of them break down almost as soon as they are made.

Science as a human endeavour 6.1

In 2016, scientists announced four new elements: elements 113, 115, 117 and 118. They are called nihonium (Nh), moscovium (Mc), tennessine (Ts) and oganesson (Og). The search is now on to synthesise elements 119 and 120, but this is harder than it sounds! A potential recipe for element 119 would be to blast a tiny mass of berkelium, a rare radioactive metal, with a beam of titanium ions for about a year. It could take 10 quintillion (10^{18}) titanium ions hitting the berkelium and a lot of luck to potentially make an atom of element 119, and, even then, it would only exist for a fraction of a second.

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metal
a substance that is shiny, can conduct electricity, can be bent, is usually silver/grey and is ductile (can be stretched into wires)

non-metal
a substance that is dull, cannot usually conduct electricity, is brittle and is not ductile

metalloid
a substance that has some of the properties of both metals and non-metals

Grouping elements

Metals and non-metals

Chemists classify substances into groups; for example, pure substance and mixtures; and solids, liquids and gases. One of the first steps in classifying elements is to determine whether the substance is a **metal** or a **non-metal**. To do this, scientists look at the general properties that the elements have in common (see Table 6.1).

Figure 6.7 These rods are made of steel, a metallic compound made up of iron and carbon. Steel is ductile – it can be made into long thin rods and wires.

Metalloids

Some of the elements in the non-metal group look like metals. One example is silicon (see Figure 6.8). Silicon can conduct heat and electricity a little, but it cannot be bent or made into wire. It is shiny when polished but is brittle and can shatter like glass. When an element has properties of both metals and non-metals, it is called a **metalloid** (Figure 6.8). There are eight metalloids: antimony, arsenic, astatine, boron, germanium, polonium, silicon and tellurium.

lustre
the ability of a substance to become shiny when polished

conductivity
the ability of a substance to conduct or carry electricity or heat

malleability
the ability of a substance to be bent or flattened into a range of shapes

ductility
the ability of a substance to be drawn into a wire

Property	Metals	Non-metals
State at room temperature	Solid (exception is mercury)	Solid, gas or liquid
Colour	Silver/grey	A range of colours, including colourless
Lustre	Shiny when polished	Usually dull
Conductivity	Conducts electricity and heat	Cannot usually conduct electricity or heat
Malleability	Can be bent or flattened	Cannot be bent or flattened, often brittle
Ductility	Can be made into a wire	Cannot be made into a wire
Melting point	Usually high temperature (exception is mercury)	Usually low temperature

Table 6.1 The general properties of the metal and non-metal elements

Figure 6.8 Three examples of metalloids. Left: Silicon is shiny and brittle, and can conduct electricity but not as well as a metal. Middle: Antimony is shiny like a metal, but brittle like a non-metal. Right: Boron conducts electricity but is brittle.

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Did you know? 6.2

Conductors and semiconductors

Generally, non-metals are poor conductors but some are good conductors. Carbon in the form of graphite is both a good heat and electrical conductor, and surprisingly, carbon in the form of diamond is the best known thermal conductor, with a conductivity five times higher than that of copper!

Metalloids have a heat conductivity between those of metals and non-metals, and if they can conduct electricity, this usually only occurs at higher temperatures. Metalloids that are good electrical conductors at high temperatures are called semiconductors. Silicon is an example of a semiconductor.

After oxygen, silicon is the second most abundant element in Earth's crust, but is rarely found naturally in its pure form. Instead, it can be extracted from silica sand, a combination of silicon and oxygen.

Silicon Valley in California, USA, is home to a number of technology company headquarters. It was named after the silica sand found in the area.

Practical 6.1: Teacher demonstration or student practical

Metals vs non-metals

Aim

To investigate the properties of metals and non-metals

Be careful

Electrical shocks may occur.
Elements may become hot.
Ensure the voltage output is not exceeded. Turn the power supply off when changing the circuit.

Materials

- light bulb (LEDs can also be used)
- connecting wires and alligator clips
- battery or power pack
- fine sandpaper
- samples of six metals and non-metals – for example, sulfur, magnesium, silicon, copper, iron/steel, tin, zinc, aluminium, carbon

Method

1. Draw a table like the one in the Results section. Include the six metals and non-metals you are investigating. Also select a property you would like to investigate in addition to those already listed.
2. Use the fine sandpaper to rub each substance and determine its lustre – is it shiny or dull? Record your observations in your table.
3. Try to bend each of the substances – is it malleable or not? Record your observations in your table.
4. Make a prediction about the electrical conductivity of each substance.
5. Connect each substance as shown in Figure 6.9. Does the substance allow electricity to pass through, making the globe glow? Record your observations in your table.
6. Investigate your choice of property.

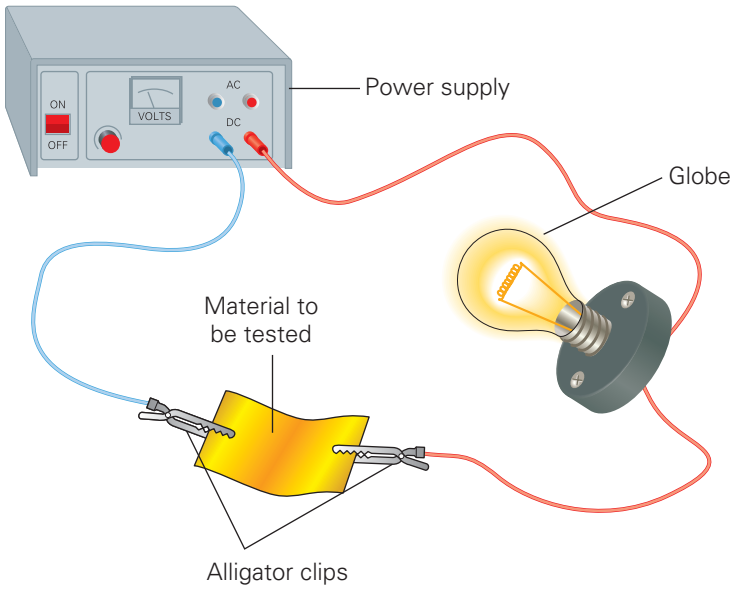

Figure 6.9 The experimental set-up for testing the electrical conductivity of different substances

continued...

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...continued

Results

Copy and complete the following table.

Element	Lustre	Malleability	Electrical conductivity	Your choice of property
			Prediction:	
			Observation:	
			Prediction:	
			Observation:	
			Prediction:	
			Observation:	
			Prediction:	
			Observation:	
			Prediction:	
			Observation:	
			Prediction:	
			Observation:	

Discussion

1. Which of the substances you tested were metals and which were non-metals? Were there any exceptions? List them and name the group that these exceptions belong to.
2. Explain how you tested for your choice of property.
3. Recall the difference between a physical property and a chemical property. Summarise the physical properties that metals have in common and the physical properties that non-metals have in common. Name some exceptions and state how they are different.
4. Are the substances you tested elements, compounds or mixtures? Explain your answer by including definitions of these terms.
5. Imagine you have discovered a new element. What tests would you carry out in order to determine whether the substance was a metal or a non-metal?

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Quick check 6.2

1 Define the following key terms: element, metal, non-metal, metalloid, malleability, lustre, conductivity, ductility. Provide examples where possible.

2 Demonstrate your knowledge of metals and non-metals by rewriting the following properties in the correct columns.

Metals	Non-metals
Solid, liquid or gas	Usually dull
Solid	Shiny surface
Usually cannot conduct electricity or heat	Can conduct electricity and heat
Ductile	Cannot be made into a wire
Low melting temperature	Malleable
High melting temperature	Cannot be bent

Explore! 6.1

Uses of the elements

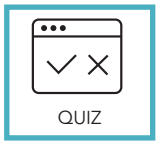
There are many different elements, each with their own properties. Some are rare; others are common. Some have more uses when they are combined with other elements than they do when they are on their own. Some have several different forms.

1 Investigate and report on three uses of carbon. Keep in mind that carbon has different forms.

2 Investigate and report on the medical uses of iodine.

3 Investigate and report on the uses of hydrogen in the chemical industry.

Section 6.1 questions



Remembering

1 **Define** 'pure substance' and 'mixture', providing examples of each.

2 **Recall** three properties of metals and three properties of non-metals.

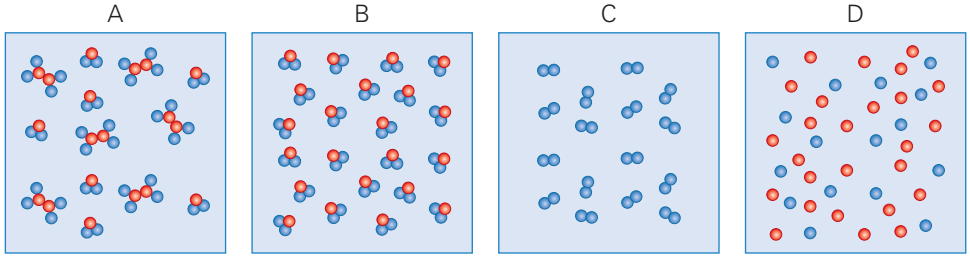
3 **State** what holds two or more atoms together in a molecule.

4 **Identify** the missing word in this sentence: A molecule consists of two or more _____ covalently bonded together.

Understanding

5 Look at diagrams A–D. **Identify** which diagram is:

- a an element
- b a compound
- c a mixture of elements
- d a mixture of compounds.



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Applying

6 **Describe** how Lego® pieces could be used to illustrate the difference between elements and compounds.

7 **Summarise** three of the tests you can do to find out whether a substance is a metal or a non-metal.

Analysing

8 **Distinguish** between:
- a an atom and a molecule
- b an atom and an element
- c an element and a compound
- d a molecule and a compound.

Evaluating

9 Consider what elements are and what compounds are. **Discuss** why there are many more compounds than there are elements.

10 **Justify** why the metalloids are considered a separate group from the metals and non-metals. Use an example to illustrate your point.

11 Here are the answers to some questions. For each answer, **determine** three options for a potential question.
- a properties
- b atom
- c conducts electricity
- d compound

6.2 Organising elements

WORKSHEET

Learning goal

1 To explore different elemental structures, including monatomic, diatomic, molecules and lattices.

Symbols for elements

Chemistry has its own language, with all the elements represented by symbols. It is a shorthand way of writing the name of the element so that every scientist in the world can understand it.

Table 6.2 lists the names and symbols of 20 elements. Notice that an element's symbol consists of either one letter or two letters and the letters are often the first letters of its English name. For example, the symbol for hydrogen is H and the symbol for helium is He. Note that the first letter of the symbol is always capitalised and the second letter is never capitalised. The symbols for some elements consist of the first and third letters; for example chlorine (Cl) and magnesium (Mg).

Other element symbols come from their Latin or Greek names. For example, the symbol for copper is Cu, from its Latin name *cuprium*. Another example is mercury, which has the symbol Hg, from its Latin name *hydragyrum*, which means 'shining water'.

Some elements are named after famous people or places, such as einsteinium and francium.

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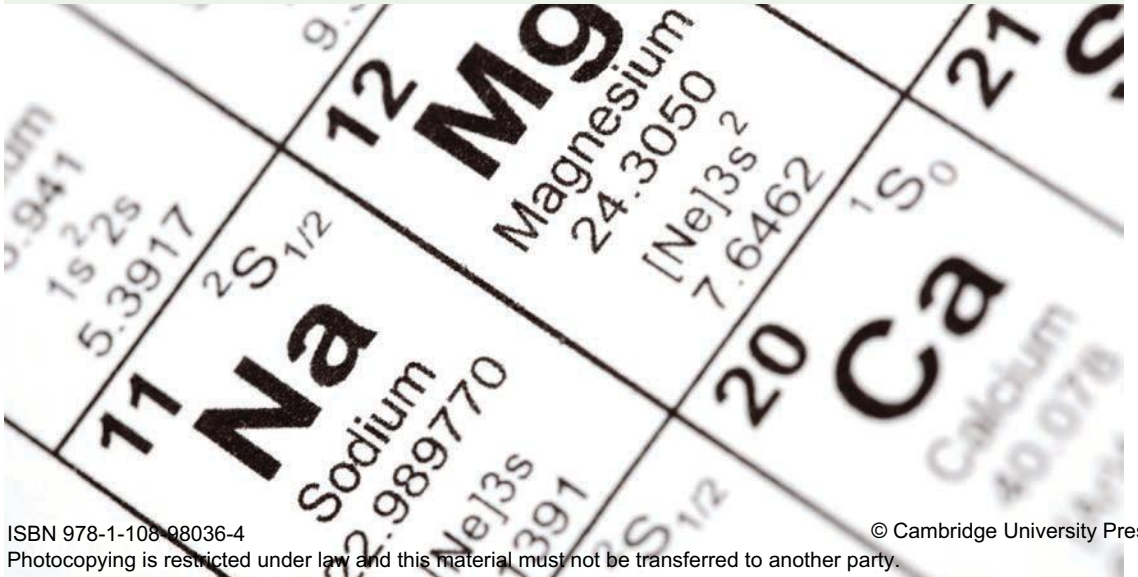
Element	Symbol	Metal/non-metal	Melting point (°C)	Year of discovery
Hydrogen	H	Non-metal	−259	1766
Helium	He	Non-metal	−272	1895
Lithium	Li	Metal	180	1817
Beryllium	Be	Metal	1278	1798
Boron	B	Metalloid	2300	1808
Carbon	C	Non-metal	3500	Ancient
Nitrogen	N	Non-metal	−210	1772
Oxygen	O	Non-metal	−219	1774
Fluorine	F	Non-metal	−220	1886
Neon	Ne	Non-metal	−249	1898
Sodium	Na	Metal	98	1807
Magnesium	Mg	Metal	650	1755
Aluminium	Al	Metal	660	1825
Silicon	Si	Metalloid	1410	1824
Phosphorus	P	Non-metal	44	1669
Sulfur	S	Non-metal	119	Ancient
Chlorine	Cl	Non-metal	−101	1774
Argon	Ar	Non-metal	−189	1894
Potassium	K	Metal	64	1807
Calcium	Ca	Metal	850	1808

Table 6.2 Twenty elements, their symbols and some of their properties

Quick check 6.3

1 Explain why not all elements' symbols consist of just the first letter of their names.
2 Recall the reason for using symbols instead of elements' full names.
3 Refer to Table 6.2.
   a Name the elements with the symbols K, S, Mg, Be and B.
   b Identify the element with the lowest melting point.
   c Identify the most recently discovered element.
4 Demonstrate your understanding of element names and symbols by matching the following element names and symbols.
   Names: hydrogen, carbon, oxygen, nitrogen, helium, sulfur, magnesium, aluminium
   Symbols: Mg, O, Al, S, N, H, C, He



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Did you know? 6.3

The fabulous four

The ancient Greeks believed that everything in the world was made up of one of four elements: earth, water, air and fire. These elements are referred to as the classical elements. This theory was first suggested around 450 BCE and was the cornerstone of philosophy, science and medicine for about 2000 years. At one stage, the four elements were even used to describe the four temperaments a person could have! Even though we no longer categorise things like this, in a way, the four elements do align with the four states of matter that modern science has agreed on: solid (earth), liquid (water), gas (air) and plasma (fire).

Figure 6.10 Earth, water, air and fire

Periodic table

periodic table
a table of all the known elements and their symbols

The **periodic table** is a table of all the known elements organised according to size and properties (Figure 6.11). It arranges the elements in groups and periods (rows), in order from lightest to heaviest, and shows which are metals, non-metals and metalloids. Some elements are naturally occurring and others have been synthesised by scientists in the laboratory.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1 H hydrogen 1.008																	2 He helium 4.003
3 Li lithium 6.94	4 Be beryllium 9.012											5 B boron 10.81	6 C carbon 12.01	7 N nitrogen 14.01	8 O oxygen 16.00	9 F fluorine 19.00	10 Ne neon 20.18
11 Na sodium 22.99	12 Mg magnesium 24.31											13 Al aluminium 26.98	14 Si silicon 28.09	15 P phosphorus 30.97	16 S sulfur 32.06	17 Cl chlorine 35.45	18 Ar argon 39.95
19 K potassium 39.10	20 Ca calcium 40.08	21 Sc scandium 44.96	22 Ti titanium 47.87	23 V vanadium 50.94	24 Cr chromium 52.00	25 Mn manganese 54.94	26 Fe iron 55.85	27 Co cobalt 58.93	28 Ni nickel 58.69	29 Cu copper 63.55	30 Zn zinc 65.38	31 Ga gallium 69.72	32 Ge germanium 72.63	33 As arsenic 74.92	34 Se selenium 78.97	35 Br bromine 79.90	36 Kr krypton 83.80
37 Rb rubidium 85.47	38 Sr strontium 87.62	39 Y yttrium 88.91	40 Zr zirconium 91.22	41 Nb niobium 92.91	42 Mo molybdenum 95.95	43 Tc technetium	44 Ru ruthenium 101.1	45 Rh rhodium 102.9	46 Pd palladium 106.4	47 Ag silver 107.9	48 Cd cadmium 112.4	49 In indium 114.8	50 Sn tin 118.7	51 Sb antimony 121.8	52 Te tellurium 127.6	53 I iodine 126.9	54 Xe xenon 131.3
55 Cs caesium 132.9	56 Ba barium 137.3	57–71 lanthanoids	72 Hf hafnium 178.5	73 Ta tantalum 180.9	74 W tungsten 183.8	75 Re rhenium 186.2	76 Os osmium 190.2	77 Ir iridium 192.2	78 Pt platinum 195.1	79 Au gold 197.0	80 Hg mercury 200.6	81 Tl thallium 204.4	82 Pb lead 207.2	83 Bi bismuth 209.0	84 Po polonium	85 At astatine	86 Rn radon
87 Fr francium	88 Ra radium	89–103 actinoids	104 Rf rutherfordium	105 Db dubnium	106 Sg seaborgium	107 Bh bohrium	108 Hs hassium	109 Mt meitnerium	110 Ds darmstadtium	111 Rg roentgenium	112 Cn copernicium	113 Nh nihonium	114 Fl flerovium	115 Mc moscovium	116 Lv livermorium	117 Ts tennessine	118 Og oganesson

			57 La lanthanum 138.9	58 Ce cerium 140.1	59 Pr praseodymium 140.9	60 Nd neodymium 144.2	61 Pm promethium	62 Sm samarium 150.4	63 Eu europium 152.0	64 Gd gadolinium 157.3	65 Tb terbium 158.9	66 Dy dysprosium 162.5	67 Ho holmium 164.9	68 Er erbium 167.3	69 Tm thulium 168.9	70 Yb ytterbium 173.0	71 Lu lutetium 175.0
			89 Ac actinium	90 Th thorium 232.0	91 Pa protactinium 231.0	92 U uranium 238.0	93 Np neptunium	94 Pu plutonium	95 Am americium	96 Cm curium	97 Bk berkelium	98 Cf californium	99 Es einsteinium	100 Fm fermium	101 Md mendelevium	102 No nobelium	103 Lr lawrencium

Metals
Metalloids
Non-metals
Mostly metals (some unknown)
Lanthanoids, actinoids

Atomic number → 1
H ← Symbol
hydrogen ← Element name
Relative atomic mass → 1.008

Figure 6.11 This periodic table includes all 118 known elements.

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Try this 6.3

Look at the periodic table in Figure 6.11. Begin by finding some of the metalloids you know of, such as boron (B), silicon (Si) and germanium (Ge). What colour is used to identify them in the periodic table? What are the symbols for the other metalloids?

Next, identify some of the metals you know of. Where are they in relation to the metalloids? Where are the non-metals positioned?

Quick check 6.4

1 Recall the purpose of the periodic table.
2 Here are some element symbols that start with C or S. Find them on the periodic table and state their full names.

C	Si
Cl	S
Ca	Sc
Cr	Se
Co	Sr
Cu	Sn
Cd	Sb
Cs	Sm
Ce	
Cm	
Cf	

Practical 6.2

Flame tests

Aim

To investigate the colour of a flame when an element is heated, and use this information to determine the metal element in four unknown samples

Materials

- heatproof mat
- Bunsen burner
- flame test wire
- 5 mol L^{-1} hydrochloric acid in labelled test tubes
- known test solutions in a test-tube rack:
  - barium (barium chloride)
  - calcium (calcium chloride)
  - copper (copper(II) chloride)
  - strontium (strontium chloride)
  - sodium (sodium chloride)
- four unknown samples

Method

1 Clean a flame wire by holding the metal loop in the hottest part of the blue Bunsen burner flame. If it is not clean, it will produce a coloured flame, so clean it by dipping it into the hydrochloric acid provided and then holding the loop in the Bunsen burner flame again.
2 Dip the clean flame test loop into one of the known test solutions, and then hold the metal loop in the hottest part of the Bunsen burner flame. Record the colour of the flame in your results table.

Be careful

Wear appropriate personal protective equipment.

Figure 6.12 A deep red flame produced by burning strontium chloride in the flame of a Bunsen burner

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...continued

3 Clean the flame test wire, and then test another known test solution. Keep going until you have recorded the colour for all the known solutions.
4 Flame test the four unknown solutions and record their flame colours in a second results table.
5 Work out which metals are in each of the unknown samples and record in your table.

Results

Known substances	Barium	Calcium	Copper	Strontium	Sodium
Flame colour					

Unknown substances	Sample 1	Sample 2	Sample 3	Sample 4
Flame colour				
Metal				

Discussion

1 Suggest why it is necessary to have a blue flame, not a yellow flame, on the Bunsen burner.
2 List the elements that produced the most easily identified colours. Were any colours difficult to identify?
3 Based on your observations, would this method be useful to determine the identity of metals in a *mixture*? Give a reason for your answer.
4 Give at least two reasons why the flame test may not always provide the right answer.
5 Describe some sources of error for this experiment and the improvements you would make if you were to repeat this task.

A closer look at the organisation of elements

monatomic
made up of single atoms, all of one type

lattice
a three-dimensional shape of atoms that pack together very tightly and form bonds that are extremely strong because the atoms bond to one another in all directions

diatomic element
an element that exists as molecules consisting of two atoms of the same type

In Section 6.1, you learned that elements are substances made up of only one type of atom. These can be single atoms or molecules, but all are the same type of atom. Let's now look at the different ways that elements can be organised: as single atoms (**monatomic**), as molecules and as **lattices**.

Monatomic

Monatomic means 'single atom'. A monatomic element is made up of single atoms. There aren't many of these elements in the periodic table, and all of them are non-metallic gases. You are probably most familiar with neon, which is used in neon signs. Other monatomic elements include helium (He), argon (Ar), krypton (Kr), xenon (Xe) and radon (Rn). Can you see where these elements sit in the periodic table? (Refer to Figure 6.11.)

Molecules

In most non-metal elements, the atoms are organised as molecules. We are discussing elemental molecules, and so the atoms in these molecules are all the same type. Some gases exist as **diatomic elements**. These molecules have two atoms of the same type bonded together, for example, oxygen gas (O_2), hydrogen gas (H_2) and nitrogen gas (N_2).

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Other elements exist in **polyatomic** form. For example, sulfur often exists as a ring of eight sulfur atoms (S_8), and phosphorus exists as P_4. Oxygen can also exist as ozone (O_3).

Some examples of different molecular elements are shown in Figure 6.13. Notice the range of molecules and how to write the chemical formula for elements that are molecules. For example, the oxygen molecule has two oxygen atoms, so we write O_2, where O is the elemental symbol for oxygen, and the subscript 2 shows how many atoms are joined by bonds in the molecule.

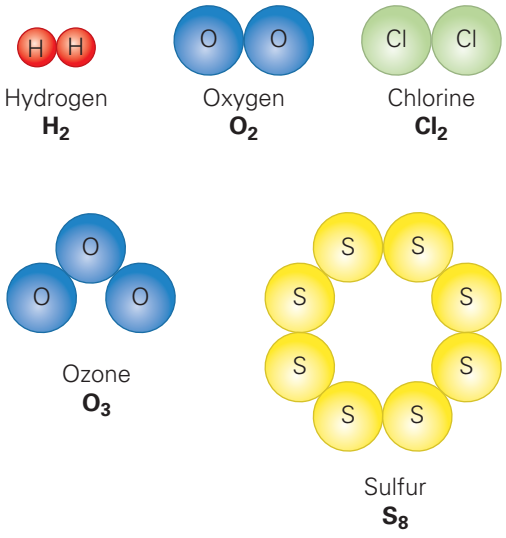

Figure 6.13 Some elemental molecules: hydrogen, oxygen, chlorine, ozone and sulfur

Lattices

polyatomic element
an element consisting of molecules containing more than two atoms of the same type

All metals in their solid state (and some non-metals, such as carbon and silicon) are organised in a lattice formation. A lattice is a three-dimensional shape that allows the atoms to pack together very tightly and form strong bonds. The bonds are extremely strong because the atoms bond to one another in all directions, and so it is hard to separate them completely. With metals, it is easier to make them slide past one another, provided they stay in contact. What properties of metals does this behaviour remind you of?

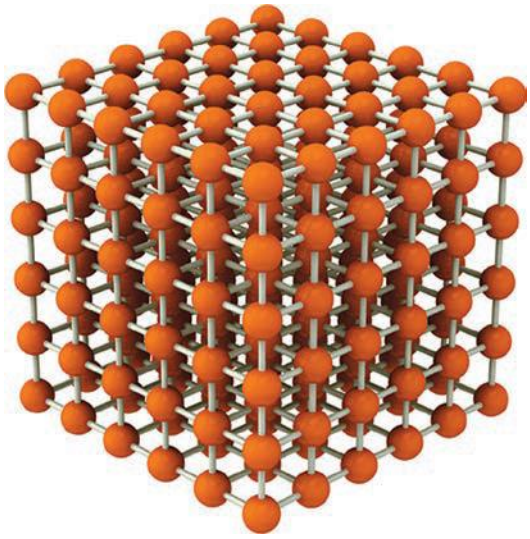

Figure 6.14 An example of a cubic lattice structure: each atom is attached tightly to other atoms in all directions

Try this 6.4

To envisage how metal atoms pack together and form a lattice, imagine marbles that need to be packed in a box. The marbles would be placed on the bottom of the box in neat orderly rows and then a second layer of marbles would move into the spaces between marbles in the first layer. Try arranging marbles in this way, and you will model the lattice formed by metal atoms.

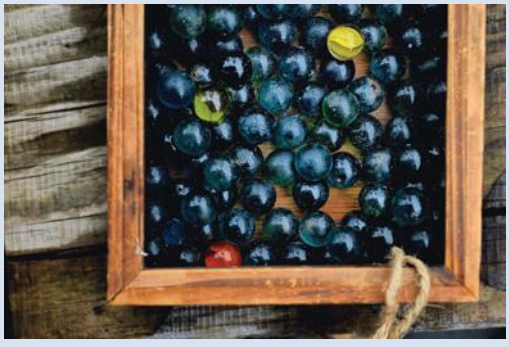

Figure 6.15 Stacking marbles of the same size in a box can be used to model how metal atoms could pack together and form a lattice.

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Quick check 6.5

1 Describe the three ways in which elements can be organised.
2 Draw a simple diagram to show the arrangement of atoms in a monatomic element, a molecule of an element and a lattice of an element.

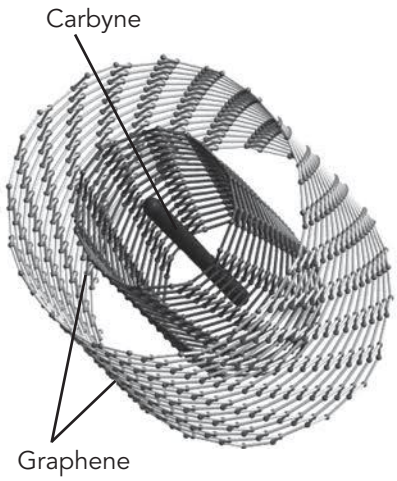
VIDEO
Forms of carbon

Explore! 6.2

Carbon is an element that occurs in many different forms. They all consist solely of carbon atoms, but the atoms are organised differently. This affects the properties of the different forms.

1 Investigate one of the hardest substances in the world: diamond. Find out its uses and its properties.
2 Investigate the substance that is in the middle of your pencil: graphite. Find out its uses and its properties.
3 Investigate the coolest-sounding molecules: buckyballs. Find out their uses and their properties.
4 Compare the structure of the lattices of diamond, graphite and buckyballs by describing what each looks like and including a picture.

Science as a human endeavour 6.2



Carbyne

As well as diamond and graphite, buckyballs and nanotubes, carbon can be in the form of carbyne. In 2013, Mingjie Liu and her team in the USA calculated the properties of this superstar material and discovered that it would have more strength than any known material. In 2016, scientists in Austria were able to make carbyne. It is difficult to build because it is a long, one-dimensional chain of carbon atoms that are linked to each other, and it is unstable – as quickly as it is made, it is destroyed. The Austrian scientists got around this instability by building the carbyne inside a tube made of graphene (another form of carbon).

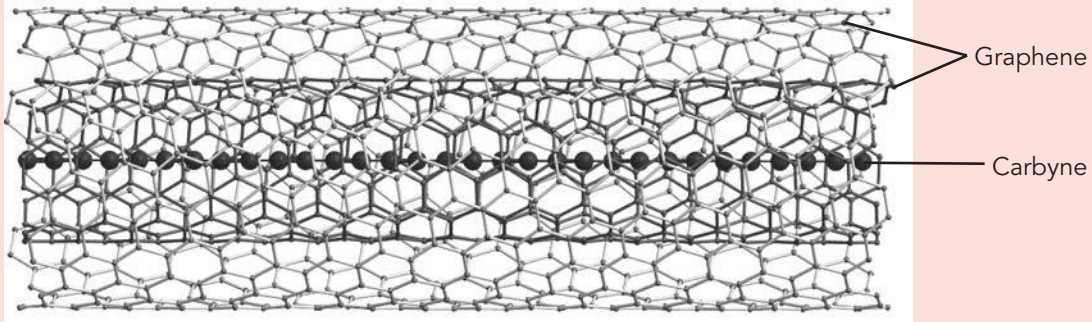


Figure 6.16 Scientists have made carbyne, a very strong material. These computer images show carbyne within a protective tube made of two sheets of graphene.

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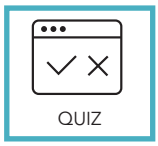
Section 6.2 questions



Remembering

1 **State** the chemical symbols for the following elements.
   - a carbon
   - b oxygen
   - c hydrogen
   - d silicon
   - e sodium
   - f copper
   - g chlorine
   - h potassium

2 **Identify** the names of these elements.
   - a Ag
   - b Au
   - c Sn
   - d Si
   - e Hg
   - f Na
   - g Zn
   - h Pb

3 **Name** all the elements in the periodic table that have symbols beginning with A.

Understanding

4 **Select** the appropriate word from the list to complete the sentences below:
compound, symbol, properties, sulfur, pure, letters, carbon dioxide, periodic table, atoms.
   - a _____ cannot be separated or broken down any further chemically.
   - b An element's name can be written as a _____, which consists of one or two _____.
   - c Elements are organised in the _____ _____.
   - d When two or more different elements are chemically combined, the end result is a _____.
   - e _____ is an example of an element and _____ is an example of a compound.
   - f Elements and compounds are called _____ substances because they have specific chemical and physical _____.

5 **Identify** each of the following as either an element or a compound.
   - a silver
   - b water
   - c chalk
   - d plastic
   - e tin
   - f silicon dioxide
   - g chromium
   - h arsenic
   - i carbon dioxide
   - j sodium chloride (table salt)

Applying

6 **Describe** a monatomic element and an elemental molecule.

Analysing

7 **Classify** the following elements as monatomic, molecular or lattice:
helium, diamond, hydrogen, aluminium, oxygen, argon, chlorine, copper, neon.

8 **Distinguish** between an elemental molecule and a lattice. Include examples in your answer.

Evaluating

9 **Propose** reasons why we use symbols to describe elements.

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6.3 Compounds and mixtures

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to name a chemical compound using naming conventions.
2 To be able to distinguish between homogeneous and heterogeneous mixtures.

Compounds

At the start of this chapter, it was mentioned that in chemistry, substances are grouped into either pure substances or mixtures. Elements and compounds are both examples of pure substances. In Section 6.2, you learned about elements. Now you will look at compounds. Remember that a compound is a substance made up of two or more different types of atoms. For example, water is made up of two hydrogen atoms bonded to one oxygen atom, so it has two different types of atoms. Just as the 26 letters of the alphabet can form thousands of words, elements can form millions of compounds.

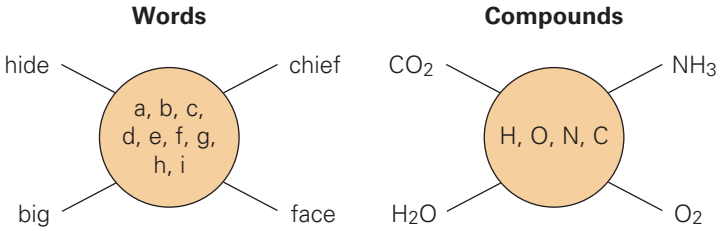

Figure 6.17 Elements are like the letters of the alphabet – letters can form thousands of words, and elements can form millions of compounds.

Figure 6.18 Substances that contain only carbon and hydrogen. From top to bottom: methane (natural gas); hexane (a solvent in glue for shoes); octane (a component of automobile fuel)

Compounds can be *covalent* or *ionic* – these terms describe the types of bonds that hold the compound together. Covalent compounds consist of units called molecules (e.g. water) while ionic compounds consist of units called ions (e.g. sodium chloride). The properties of a compound can be affected by the elements that are in the compound, the types of bonds between atoms and how they are arranged. For example, the properties of carbon vary depending on the arrangement of the carbon atoms – graphite, diamond and buckyballs have different properties (see Explore! 6.2). Hydrogen has the following properties: it is colourless, odourless, tasteless, non-toxic, non-metallic and highly combustible. However, the properties of the compounds formed from carbon and hydrogen are very different from those of the two elements. Figure 6.18 shows examples of the uses and properties of compounds made of only carbon and hydrogen.

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Organisation of compounds

polymer
a long molecule made of a chain of atoms in a pattern that repeats

A molecule of a chemical compound is always the same size and shape, and it always has the same elements and number of atoms. It can be relatively small – a few atoms joined together – or it can be huge, such as the compounds in plastics that are made up of thousands of atoms and stretch for metres. The atoms in compounds can be arranged in three different ways: as a molecule, a **polymer** or a lattice. These are summarised in Table 6.3.

Arrangement	Description	Examples
Molecule	Groups of different atoms held together by covalent bonds. A particular compound always has the same elements in the same ratio.	Carbon dioxide (CO_2) Water (H_2O)
Polymer	A long molecule made of a chain of atoms in a repeating pattern held together by covalent bonds.	Plastics Natural fibres (e.g. cotton) Proteins
Lattice	A 3D continuous network of atoms in a fixed arrangement, held together by chemical bonds. Most compounds that exist as lattices are ionic, so the lattices are made up of positive and negative ions rather than atoms.	Sodium chloride (NaCl) Silicon dioxide (SiO_2)

Table 6.3 The arrangement of atoms in a compound

Science as a human endeavour 6.3

Bioplastics

More plastic has been produced in the past 10 years than in the previous 100 years! In the past decade, companies have been developing bioplastics to overcome the problem of plastic pollution. Bioplastics differ from conventional plastics in that they can be:

- biodegradable – tiny microorganisms in the environment convert these materials into natural substances, such as water, carbon dioxide and biomass
- biobased – part of the material is derived from biomass (plants); for example, some bioplastics are made from corn
- both biodegradable and biobased.

Figure 6.19 Some companies are making plastic bags from biodegradable materials such as starch. Some companies are even developing plastic that can dissolve in water, and claim that the water is still drinkable!

The term 'bioplastic' refers not just to biodegradable plastics, but also to petroleum-based plastics that are degradable, plant-based plastics that are not biodegradable, and plastics that contain both petroleum-based and plant-based materials that may or may not be biodegradable. Given that many retailers now do not provide single-use plastic bags, scientists and engineers are hopeful that the way we use plastic polymer products will change.

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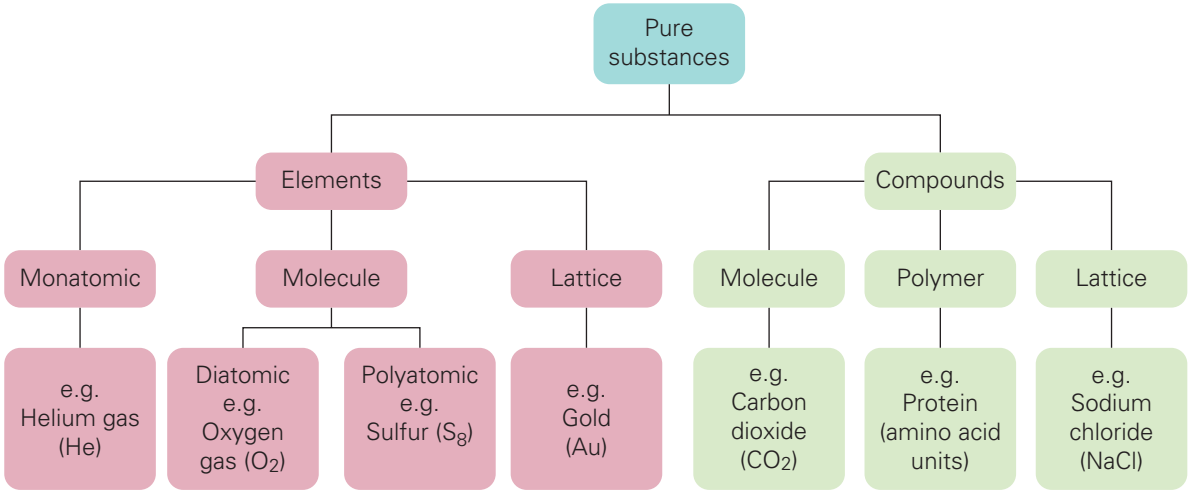

Figure 6.20 Summing up: the organisation of atoms in elements and in compounds

Did you know? 6.4

Polymer bank notes

In 1988, Australian scientists at the CSIRO developed the polymer bank note – the first in the world. Now polymer bank notes are also used in 30 other countries. Australian bank notes start out as plastic pellets, which are melted and blown into a bubble three storeys high! The walls of the bubble are pressed together and cooled to form laminated polymer film.

Figure 6.21 Australian polymer bank notes

Quick check 6.6

1. Define 'compound' and 'molecule'.
2. Explain why the properties of elements, and the compounds made up of those elements, are different.
3. Name two examples of compounds that have a molecular structure, two that have a polymer structure and two that have a lattice structure.

Symbols for compounds

A **chemical formula** is a shorthand way of describing the elements that are in a compound. The formula tells you which elements are present in the compound, and how many atoms of each element are present in one molecule or one basic unit of that particular compound.

chemical formula
a symbol for a compound that shows which elements, and how many atoms of each element, are present in one molecule or one basic unit of that compound

For example:

- Carbon dioxide in the air has the chemical formula CO_2. This means that one molecule of the compound carbon dioxide has two elements in it: carbon (C) and oxygen (O). There is one carbon atom and two oxygen atoms.
- Sodium sulfate, found in common detergents, is an ionic compound and has the chemical formula Na_2SO_4. This means that one basic unit of the compound has three elements in it: sodium (Na), sulfur (S) and oxygen (O). Each basic unit of sodium sulfate contains two atoms of sodium, one atom of sulfur and four atoms of oxygen.

Figure 6.22 Sodium sulfate is a compound used in common household detergents.

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Some formulas include brackets. For example, the compound aluminium carbonate has the formula $Al_2(CO_3)_3$. The brackets tell us that there is more than one CO_3 unit. In this case, there are three units of CO_3. So, from the formula, we can identify that there are three elements in each compound: aluminium (Al), carbon (C) and oxygen (O). Each unit of aluminium carbonate is made of two atoms of aluminium, three atoms of carbon and nine atoms of oxygen.

Try this 6.5

Consider the compound sodium hydrogen carbonate, more commonly known as bicarb soda ($NaHCO_3$). First, identify the elements in one basic unit of the compound, and then identify how many atoms there are of each of the elements.

Naming compounds

When naming a compound, there are some rules to follow depending on whether the compound contains a metal and a non-metal, or only non-metals.

Metal and non-metal compounds

1 If there is a metal in the compound, it gets named first. For example, $CaCl_2$ is calcium chloride. Calcium is the metal, so it is named first.

2 If the non-metal present is a single element, it is usually named with a suffix, -ide. For example, in $CaCl_2$ the non-metal present is chlorine so it is named second as chlor*ide*.

3 When the non-metal component contains more than one element, it usually takes a special name ending in -ate, such as nitrate (NO_3), carbonate (CO_3), sulfate (SO_4) and phosphate (PO_4). For example, $CaCO_3$ is named calcium carbonate.

Non-metal and non-metal compounds

4 If the compound contains only non-metals, such as oxygen (O) and chlorine (Cl), the start of the second element word changes according to how many atoms there are in the compound. For example, CO_2 contains one carbon atom and two oxygen atoms, and so the second word starts with a prefix di- and the compound is called carbon dioxide. Another example is the compound CO, which is named carbon monoxide because the second element starts with the prefix mono-. Table 6.4 summarises the prefixes used, depending on how many atoms of the second element there are in the compound.

5 If there is more than one atom of the first non-metal element present, the prefix is also used for the first element. For example, H_2O is named dihydrogen monoxide, although you will be more familiar with its common name of water!

Number of atoms of second element	Prefix (start) of second element word	Example
1	Mono-	Monochloride
2	Di-	Dichloride
3	Tri-	Trichloride
4	Tetra-	Tetrachloride
5	Penta-	Pentachloride

Table 6.4 Prefixes used at the start of the second element when naming compounds containing only non-metals

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Practical 6.3

Making a compound

Be careful

Do not look directly at the reaction. The reaction is very bright and can damage your eyes.

Aim

To make a compound from two elements, and to practise using elemental symbols and naming compounds

Materials

- strip of magnesium ribbon (approximately 5 cm)
- fine sandpaper
- crucible with lid
- pipeclay triangle
- tripod
- safety glasses
- wooden tongs
- Bunsen burner and matches
- heatproof mat

Method

1 Examine the piece of magnesium and record its properties. If it isn't shiny and clean, gently use the sandpaper to remove any imperfections from the surface.

2 Coil up the ribbon and place it in the crucible with the lid. Place the crucible on the pipeclay triangle, as shown in Figure 6.23.

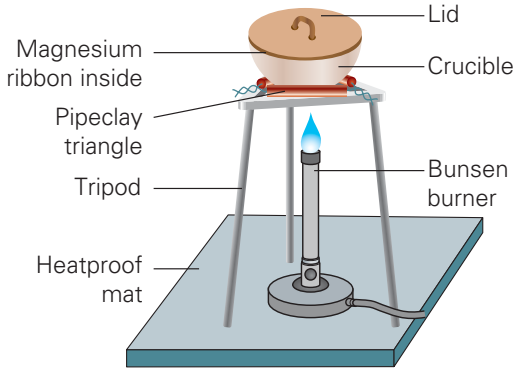

Figure 6.23 The experimental set-up

3 Put on your safety glasses. Heat the crucible with a blue flame, and every so often monitor the reaction by using the tongs to carefully lift the edge of the crucible lid.

4 When the reaction has finished, the magnesium ribbon will no longer be recognisable. Turn off the Bunsen burner and let the crucible cool down.

5 Record what you see in the crucible.

Results

Record your observations.

Discussion

1 Magnesium is an element. What is its elemental symbol?

2 When magnesium is heated, it reacts with something. What is the other element, and what is its elemental symbol?

3 Describe what you saw in the crucible after heating, and decide whether it is an element or a compound. Explain your answer.

4 Work out the chemical formula for this compound and the name of the substance formed in the crucible.

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Quick check 6.7

1 Copy and complete the following table to identify the elements and number of atoms present in each compound.

Compound	Scientific name	Formula	List of elements	Number of atoms of each element
Natural gas	Methane	CH_4	Carbon Hydrogen	C 1 H 4
Petrol	Octane	C_8H_{18}		
Alcohol	Ethanol	C_2H_6O		
Aspirin	Acetylsalicylic acid	$C_9H_8O_4$		
Eggshells	Calcium carbonate	$CaCO_3$		

2 State the formula for each of the following compounds.
- a hydrochloric acid – contains one atom of hydrogen and one atom of chlorine
- b glucose – a sugar, contains six carbon atoms, 12 hydrogen atoms and six oxygen atoms
- c rust – contains two atoms of iron and three atoms of oxygen

3 Determine the names of the compound that contains:
- a one carbon atom and four chlorine atoms
- b two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom
- c one magnesium and one oxygen atom.

Practical 6.4

Breaking down a compound

Aim

To investigate the breakdown of copper carbonate

Materials

- copper carbonate
- limewater
- straw
- 3 test tubes
- Bunsen burner
- matches
- heatproof mat
- wooden tongs
- paper towel
- retort stand and clamp
- delivery tube and stopper
- spatula

Be careful

Wear safety glasses at all times.

Wash hands thoroughly at the end of the experiment.

continued...

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...continued

Method

1 Half fill a test tube with limewater. Using the straw, blow into the limewater so it bubbles. Record your observations when CO_2 from your breath is bubbled through limewater.
2 Use the diagram in Figure 6.24 as a guide to the steps that follow.

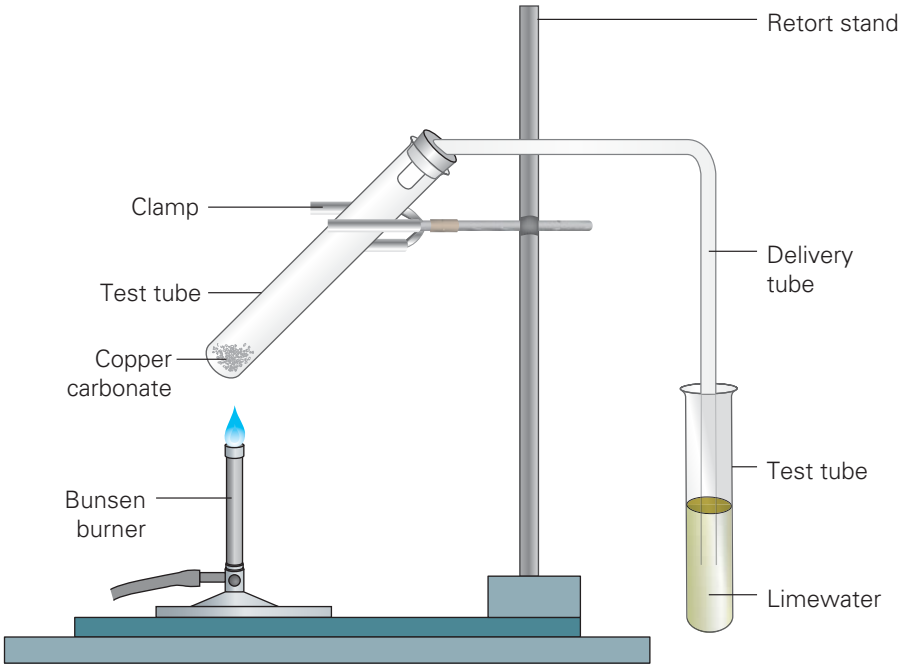

Figure 6.24 The experimental set-up

3 Place a small amount of the copper carbonate in a large test tube and fit it with the gas delivery tube and stopper. Clamp the test tube to the retort stand.
4 Record the appearance of the copper carbonate.
5 Half fill another test tube with limewater and place the gas delivery tube in it.
6 Using a small blue flame on the Bunsen burner, gently heat the copper carbonate.
7 Observe and record the changes in the copper carbonate and the limewater.
8 Remove the limewater solution before turning off the Bunsen burner.
9 Allow the solution to cool.

Results

Record your observations of the limewater after bubbling, the copper carbonate before heating, and the substance and the limewater after heating.

Discussion

1 What caused the change in the limewater when you blew into it?
2 Describe the copper carbonate before and after heating. Mention the changes you observed in the limewater.
3 What is the evidence that copper carbonate is a compound and not an element?
4 Why is it important to remove the delivery tube from the limewater as soon as heating is stopped?
5 Why do some gas bubbles pass through limewater when heating is first started?
6 Identify any faults in the method for this experiment and how the experiment could be improved if it were to be carried out again.

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Mixtures

Mixtures are not pure substances like elements and compounds. A mixture is a substance made from two or more different pure substances that have been mixed together and can be physically separated. The components of a mixture can be separated because they are not combined in a chemical way. Some examples of mixtures are soft drinks (a mixture of sugar, water, carbon dioxide and colouring), a cup of tea (a mixture of tea leaves and water), tap water (a mixture of water and salts) and spaghetti bolognaise (a mixture of tomatoes, beef, garlic, chillies, thyme, onions and spaghetti).

Mixtures have different properties from those of compounds, as there is no chemical bond between the parts of a mixture. Table 6.5 summarises the differences between compounds and mixtures.

Figure 6.25 This chicken salad is an example of a mixture – the components are not chemically combined, and so they can be separated.

Mixtures can be broadly classified into two categories: **homogeneous mixtures** and **heterogeneous mixtures**.

homogeneous mixture
a mixture of two or more substances that are evenly distributed and do not separate out easily

heterogeneous mixture
a mixture that can be separated into its parts, and the parts retain their original properties; the mixture is not blended evenly

	Compound	Mixture
Components	Contains two or more elements	Contains two or more elements or compounds
Bonding	Atoms are chemically bonded together	Elements/compounds are not chemically bonded together
Properties	The compound has properties that are different from the properties of the elements it contains	Each substance in the mixture retains its own properties
Separation	Most compounds can be separated into their elements by chemical decomposition reactions	Each substance is easily separated out of the mixture by a physical process
Ratio of different elements	Elements occur in strict ratios to one another	Substances in the mixture can occur in any ratio

Table 6.5 The differences between a compound and a mixture

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Homogeneous mixture
You cannot tell that two or more substances have been mixed together because they don't separate when left to stand. The components of the mixture are all evenly distributed, so the entire mixture has the same properties.
Examples: air, water, chocolate pudding, soft drink.

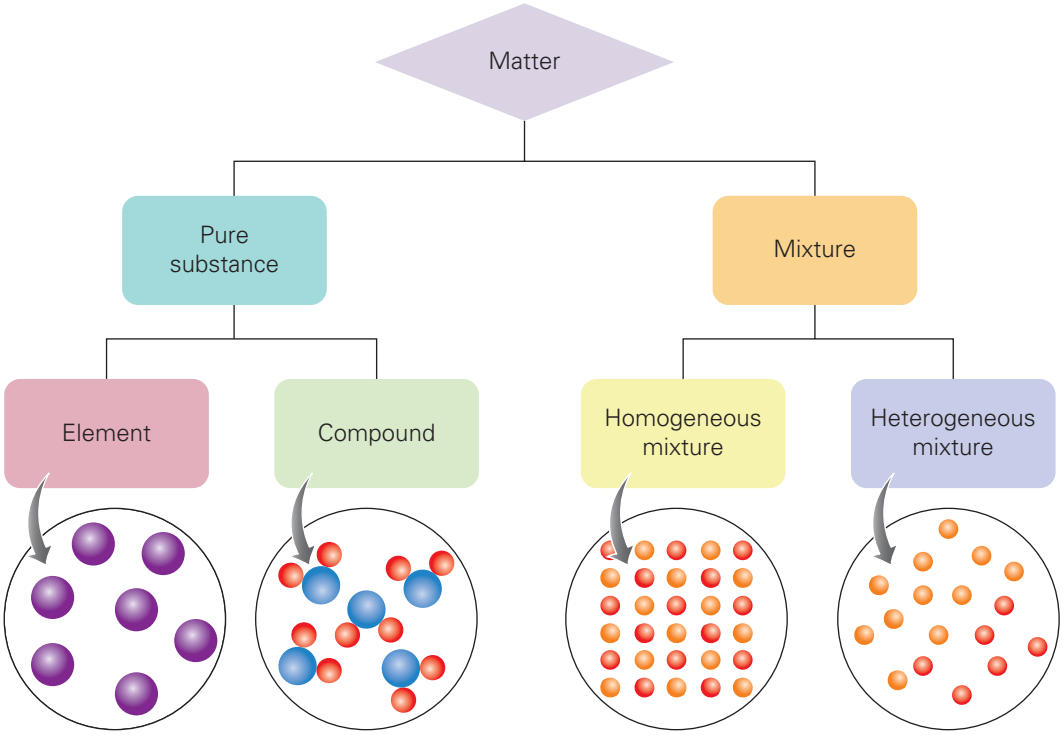
Figure 6.26 Soft drink is an example of a homogeneous mixture.

Heterogeneous mixture
You can easily separate it into its parts, and those parts retain their original properties. The mixture is not evenly blended and is not the same consistency throughout, so samples from different parts of the mixture would contain different amounts of the substances making up the mixture.
Examples: trail mix, choc chip cookies, pizza topping.

Figure 6.27 Pizza topping is an example of a heterogeneous mixture.

Symbols for mixtures

Mixtures do not have chemical formulas because they are made from two or more different pure substances mixed together that can be physically separated and are not combined in a chemical way. The elements and compounds that make up the mixture retain their own symbols and formulas.



WIDGET
Elements, compounds and mixtures

Figure 6.28 Matter consists of pure substances and mixtures. In this chapter, you have learned about both these groups.

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Try this 6.6

Make a revision flip book

Using three pieces of white A4 paper, in portrait orientation, cut from the middle of the top to the middle of the bottom of the paper, so you end up with six long, thin rectangles. Stack the rectangles on top of one another, turn the rectangles to landscape orientation, and place three staples, equally distant, across one long edge. Using your scissors, and Figure 6.29 as a reference, cut the rectangle into thirds.

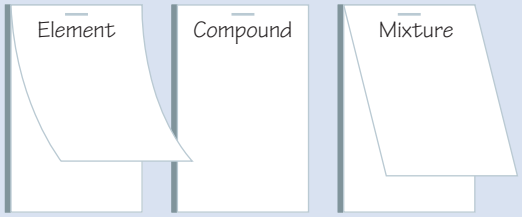

Figure 6.29 A revision flip book

First, label the three top panels with the words 'element', 'compound' and 'mixture'. Next, decide what key concepts you have learned in this chapter, to add to your flip book. Consider examples, definitions, symbols/formulas, diagrams, organisation and so on. Then hop to it!

Practical 6.5: Investigation

Investigating heat energy from alcohols

Be careful

Conduct this investigation in a fume hood or well-ventilated area.

Aim

To compare the heat energy produced by burning alcohols that have different numbers of carbon atoms

Planning

1. Summarise some background information about carbon-based fuels, the number of carbon atoms in them and how they release energy.
2. Write a specific and relevant research question for your investigation.
3. Identify the independent, dependent and controlled variables.
4. Write a risk assessment for this investigation.

Materials

- retort stand and clamp
- four 150 mL conical flasks
- 100 mL measuring cylinder
- thermometer
- spirit burners containing:
  - methanol
  - ethanol
  - propanol
  - butanol
- stopwatch
- matches
- eye protection

continued...

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...continued

Method

1 Add 100 mL of water to a conical flask and clamp it to the retort stand at a height where a spirit burner can be placed underneath.
2 Record the initial temperature of the water in your results table.
3 Light the wick of the spirit burner and let it burn for one minute.
4 Replace the spirit burner cap to extinguish the flame.
5 Record the final temperature of the water in your results table.
6 Repeat stages **1–5** with the three other alcohols. (Use a different conical flask each time.)

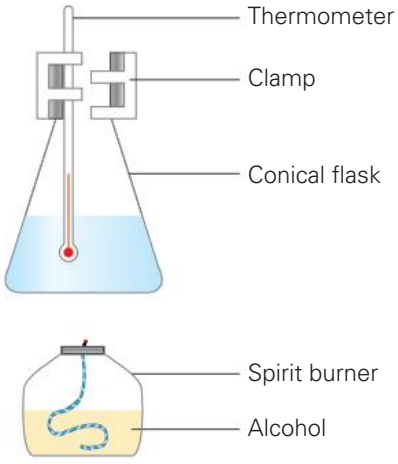

Figure 6.30 The experimental set-up

Results

Copy and complete the following table.

Name of alcohol	Formula	Number of carbons in the chemical compound	Initial temperature (°C)	Final temperature (°C)	Change in temperature (°C)
Methanol	CH_3OH	1			
Ethanol	C_2H_5OH				
Propanol	C_3H_7OH				
Butanol	C_4H_9OH				

Draw a graph that shows the relationship between the number of carbons in an alcohol and the change in temperature.

Discussion

1 Describe any patterns, trends or relationships in your results.
2 Explain any trends you have identified.
3 Identify any limitations in your investigation.
4 Suggest some improvements for this experiment.

Conclusion

Draw a conclusion from this experiment about the effect of the number of carbons in the alcoholic compound on the energy released in burning the alcohol. Use data to support your statement.

Section 6.3 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 Read each of the following statements and **state** whether it applies to compounds or mixtures.
   a The substances in it are not chemically bonded.
   b The substances in it are chemically bonded.
   c Each substance keeps its own properties.
   d Its properties are not the same as the properties of the elements that make it up.
   e The substances can be separated by chemical means only.
   f The substances can be separated by physical methods.

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2 **Name** the formula for:
   a marble, which contains one calcium atom, one carbon atom and three oxygen atoms
   b propane, which contains three carbon atoms and eight hydrogen atoms
   c sucrose, which contains 12 carbon atoms, 22 hydrogen atoms and 11 oxygen atoms.

Understanding

3 **Identify** the names of:
   a sand, which contains one silicon atom and two oxygen atoms
   b epsom salts, which contains one magnesium atom, one sulfur atom and four oxygen atoms
   c one phosphorus atom and three chlorine atoms.

4 **Describe** the following key terms, related to the organisation of compounds: molecule, polymer, lattice.

Applying

5 Draw a Venn diagram and label one circle 'Compound' and the other 'Mixture'. Write statements in each circle to **distinguish** between the two, and in the middle to identify what they have in common.

6 **Compare** a heterogeneous mixture with a homogeneous mixture.

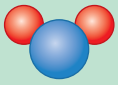
Analysing

7 A tiny sample of quartz contains 1 000 000 atoms of silicon and 2 000 000 atoms of oxygen. **Determine** what the formula would be, based on this information.

8 Substances A, B and C were tested and were found to have the following chemical compositions:
   A: 70% oxygen, 30% carbon
   B: 60% hydrogen, 40% carbon
   C: 60% oxygen, 40% carbon
   Deduce if any two of these substances are the same compound. Give reasons for your answer.

Evaluating

9 **Determine** the correct answers to complete the following table.

Name	Diagram	Formula	Number of different elements in the compound	Number of atoms in each molecule
Water		H_2O	2	3
Carbon monoxide		CO		
Sulfuric acid		H_2SO_4		
Nitrogen monoxide		NO		
Dinitrogen monoxide				
Methanol		CH_3OH		

10 Use the information you provided in your answer to Question **9** to answer the following questions.
   a **Describe** the difference between nitrogen monoxide and dinitrogen monoxide.
   b **Deduce** which is bigger: a molecule of sulfuric acid or a molecule of carbon monoxide. Explain.
   c **State** the ways nitrogen monoxide and carbon monoxide are similar.

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Chapter review

Chapter checklist

In the Interactive Textbook, the success criteria are linked to the review questions and will be automatically ticked when answers are correct. Alternatively, you can download this checklist from the Interactive Textbook to complete it.

Success criteria		Linked question	Check
6.1	I can define the following key terms: atom, molecule, element, pure substance, compound, mixture.	1, 7	
6.1	I can distinguish between metals, non-metals and metalloids.	10	
6.2	I can describe monatomic, diatomic, molecular and lattice structures.	11	
6.3	I can recall some rules that are required when naming compounds.	13	
6.3	I can distinguish between homogeneous and heterogeneous mixtures.	8	

Review questions

SCORCHER

Remembering

1 **Identify** the difference between a compound and an element.
2 **Identify** the correct symbol for each element name.
Symbols: O, C, He, Br, Au, Zn, H, S, Na, Mg
Names: sodium, hydrogen, oxygen, helium, magnesium, carbon, bromine, sulfur, zinc, gold
3 Baking soda is a common substance in pantries. Its formula is $NaHCO_3$. **Recall** the meaning of the '3' next to the oxygen symbol.
4 **Identify** the correct word to complete the following sentences.
   a Elements are pure substances containing only one kind of _____.
   b All existing elements are listed and classified in the _____.
   c In compounds, the atoms are _____ combined by bonds.
   d The properties of a compound are usually _____ from the properties of the elements it contains.
   e Mixtures contain two or more _____ or _____ that are not chemically combined.
   f Mixtures can be uniform (called _____).
   g Mixtures can also be non-uniform (called _____).
   h The properties of a mixture are _____ to the properties of its components.

Understanding

5 **Explain**, using examples, how the properties of an element relate to its use.
6 **Explain** why carbon dioxide does not appear in the periodic table.
7 **Summarise** the arrangement of atoms in an element, a compound and a mixture.

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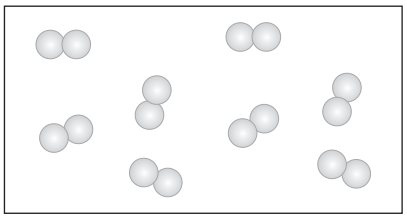
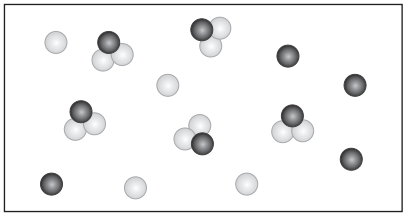
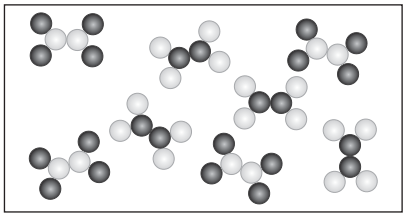
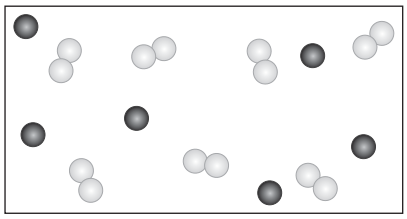
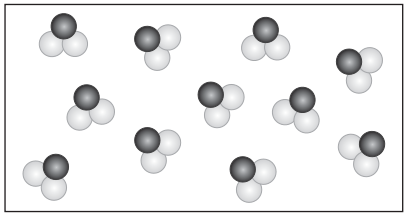
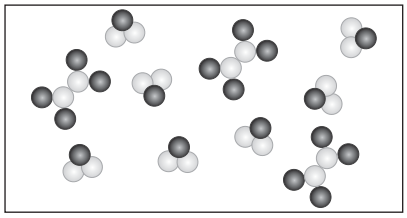
Applying

8 **Distinguish** between a homogeneous mixture, a heterogeneous mixture and a chemical compound.

9 **Classify** each of the following substances as an element, a compound, a mixture of elements, a mixture of compounds, or a mixture of elements and compounds. Some of the substances are named, and some are provided as diagrams.

- a Chicken soup
- b Bismuth (Bi)
- c Dry ice (CO_2)
- d Concrete
- e 
- f 
- g 
- h 
- i 
- j 

10 **Compare** the properties of metals and non-metals.

11 Sodium chloride (NaCl) has a lattice arrangement of atoms, whereas oxygen gas (O_2) is a diatomic molecule. **Describe** the difference between these structures.

Analysing

12 Marie heated an unknown powder over a Bunsen burner, and some gases were released (nitrogen dioxide and oxygen).

- a **Deduce** if the original unknown substance was an element or a compound.
- b **Identify** the elements that you can confirm were in the original substance.
- c Marie then continued to heat the substance and more oxygen gas was released. There was also a silvery residue in the test tube (the element mercury). **Determine** what other element(s) you can now confirm were in the original substance.

13 Methane (natural gas), hexane (solvent in glue for shoes) and octane (petrol) are substances that contain only carbon and hydrogen. **Deduce** why they are all so different.

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14 **Determine** the correct answers to complete the following table.

Name of compound	Formula	Number of elements in the compound	Names of elements in the compound	Number of atoms in the compound
Magnesium oxide	MgO	2	Magnesium, oxygen	2
	FeS			
Potassium oxide	K_2O			
	$FeSO_4$			
Benzene	C_6H_6			
	Al_2O_3			
	SO_3			

Evaluating

15 We can use the letters of the alphabet to make up words, sentences, paragraphs and more. Using this analogy, what would best represent compounds, mixtures and elements – letters, words or paragraphs? **Justify** your answers.

16 **Propose** why elements and compounds can be represented by chemical formulas, but mixtures cannot.

Data questions

Refer to the melting points and boiling points for various elements shown in Table 6.6 and Figure 6.31.

Element	Classification	Melting point (°C)	Boiling point (°C)
Carbon	Non-metal	3550	4827
Nitrogen	Non-metal	−210	−196
Oxygen	Non-metal	−219	−183
Helium	Noble gas	−272	−269
Neon	Noble gas	−249	−246
Fluorine	Halogen	−220	−188
Chlorine	Halogen	−102	−34
Bromine	Halogen	−7	59
Iodine	Halogen	114	184
Magnesium	Metal	650	1091
Iron	Metal	1538	2861
Nickel	Metal	1455	2913
Copper	Metal	1085	2560
Silver	Metal	962	2162
Platinum	Metal	1768	3825
Gold	Metal	1064	2836
Mercury	Metal	−39	357

Table 6.6 Classification, melting points and boiling points of various elements

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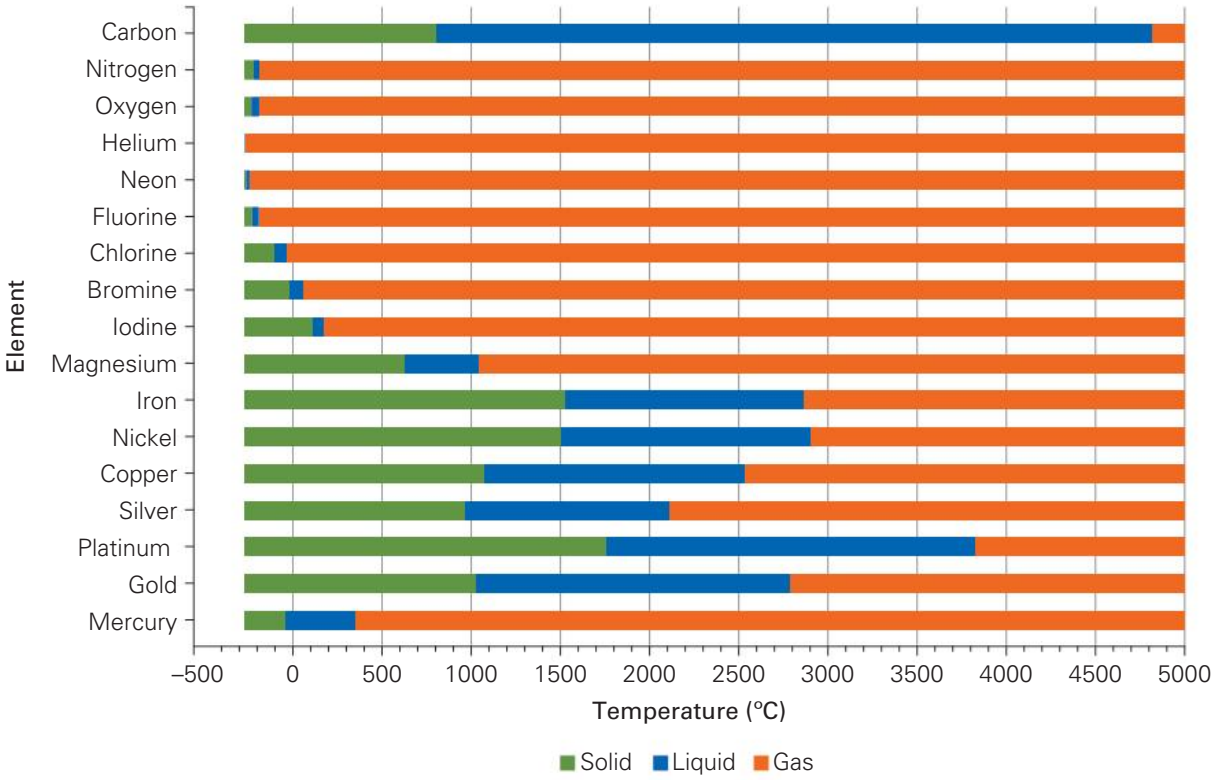

Figure 6.31 States of various elements at different temperatures

1 **Calculate** the difference in temperature between the melting and boiling points of elemental mercury.
2 **Identify** the element with the lowest melting point.
3 **Identify** which elements in Table 6.6 are classified as halogens. (Halogens are a group of elements that produce salts with similar properties when reacted with a metal, in particular sodium.)
4 **Contrast** the general melting points of the noble gases and the metals in Table 6.6. (Noble gases are a group of gases which generally do not react with other chemicals.)
5 **Identify** the element where the data does not match that of similarly classified elements.
6 **Categorise** the halogen elements as either 'gas at 25°C' or 'not gas at 25°C'.
7 **Compare** the temperature range for which each metal is present in the liquid state.
8 Given the data in Table 6.6, **deduce** whether the noble gases can exist in the liquid state.
9 Argon is a noble gas element. **Predict** whether the boiling point of elemental argon is closer to 3000°C, 100°C or −150°C.

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STEM activity: Reduce, reuse, repurpose, recycle

Background information

Waste is a huge issue for the whole world. Western Australia banned retailers from supplying plastic bags, and now has a container refund scheme to raise awareness and decrease waste, with the hope that the state will reach milestones in becoming a circular waste economy; that is, a zero waste society.

The Western Australian Waste Authority goal for 2030 is that 75% of waste material will be recovered for recycling. To achieve this important goal, society needs to be educated about having a zero waste philosophy.

Design brief: Design an educational poster about zero waste and the science behind making a zero waste society for the Western Australian Waste Authority to distribute through schools.

Activity instructions

Your group has been employed by the Western Australian Waste Authority to produce an educational poster about the circular waste economy for primary school children. It should include the science behind how different waste products are made, and how different items can be reused, repurposed and recycled. Your poster should also include the reasons why certain products must be avoided.

Figure 6.32 Return. Reuse. Recycle. Reusable cups reduce the impact on waste generated by takeaway hot chocolates.

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Suggested materials

- pens/pencils/graphic markers
- butcher's paper
- presentation/poster-making software
- computers

Research and feasibility

1 Research, discuss in your group and list different types of waste produced by society.

2 Discuss in your group which types of waste you think should be the focus of your poster and research how they are made, used and then reused/repurposed/recycled.

3 Create a table like the one shown below to help determine which types of waste are easiest or most difficult to become zero waste.

Waste	Household/society quantity	Can this product be made zero waste?	How? Level of difficulty
E.g. cling wrap	Varies depending on household	Yes	It can be recycled, but it is a difficult process, and should be avoided as a product.

Design and sustainability

4 Decide, as a group, five key ideas you want to have on your poster, and discuss if you have enough significant research to help convince primary school students of their importance.

5 Sketch, as a group, different poster designs and annotate the locations of the most important information. Discuss as a group if the poster is effective visually.

Create

6 Use butcher's paper or a computer to create your information poster. Remember this poster is for primary school children.

Evaluate and modify

7 Present your poster to your class as a group, and encourage questions and feedback from your class.

8 Evaluate the effectiveness in transforming the message of zero waste to your class.

9 Discuss modifications you would make to your poster based on feedback from the class.

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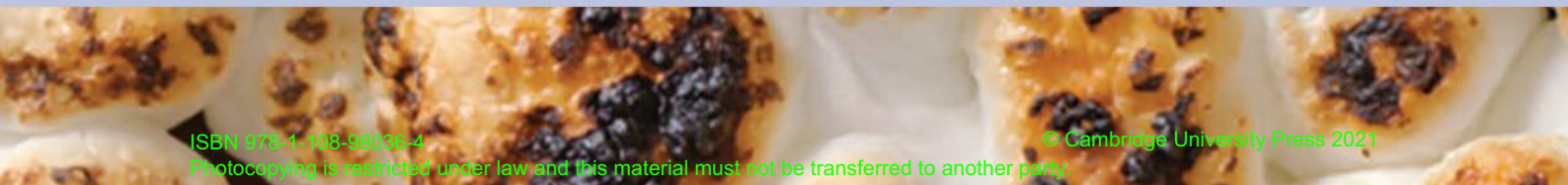
Chapter 7
Chemical change

Chapter introduction

This chapter introduces you to the physical and chemical changes that occur in our world. You will also learn about how substances react to form new substances, and the evidence that a reaction has occurred. You will look at how glow sticks work, how marshmallows go gooey and delicious over a fire, how fruit ripens, and how fireflies glow in the dark.



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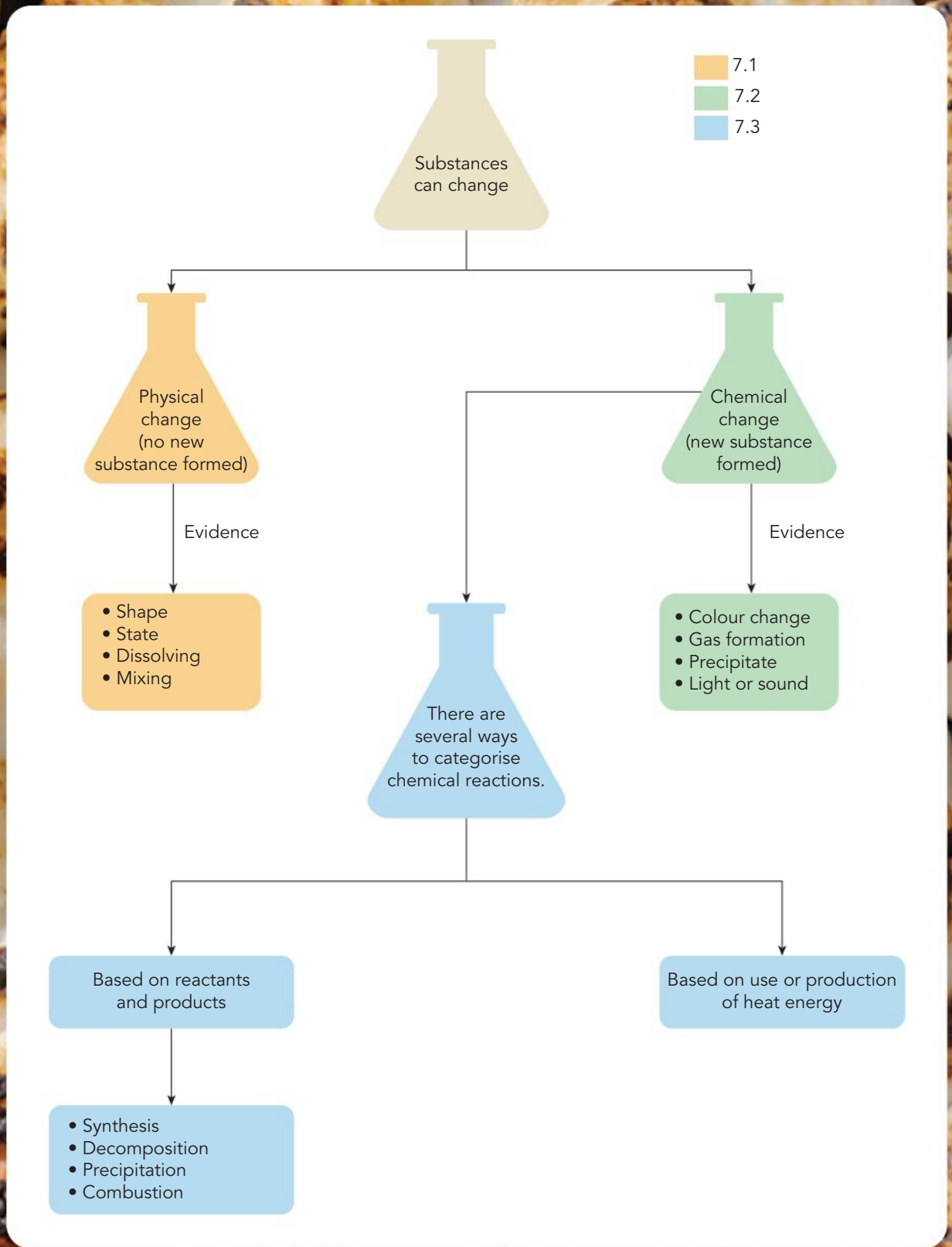
Chapter map



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7.1 Evidence of physical change

WORKSHEET

Learning goal

1 To be able to describe the common evidence of physical change.

Physical change

physical change
when the physical properties of a substance change in some way, but no new substance is formed; it is reversible

reversible
capable of going in the opposite direction

irreversible
incapable of going in the opposite direction

During a **physical change**, the characteristics of a substance, or its physical properties, change in some way, but no new substance is formed. Examples of physical properties are texture, shape, size, colour, odour, volume, mass and density. The chemical composition of the substance is unchanged. Physical change can be **reversible** (e.g. ice melting into water can be refrozen) or **irreversible** (e.g. cutting a piece of paper).

When trying to determine whether a physical change has occurred, there are several pieces of evidence to look for (Figure 7.1). These include:

- a change in shape
- expansion or contraction
- a change in state
- mixing or dissolving occurring
- a non-permanent colour change.

Evidence of physical change

Changing shape

When an object changes shape, we say it has undergone a physical change. For example, when an elastic band is stretched, the physical properties of the elastic band change but not its chemical structure. A new chemical has not formed and the change is reversible. Think about a soft-drink can being crushed (Figure 7.2). Have its physical properties changed? Has its chemical structure changed? Has anything new been made? So is it a physical change?

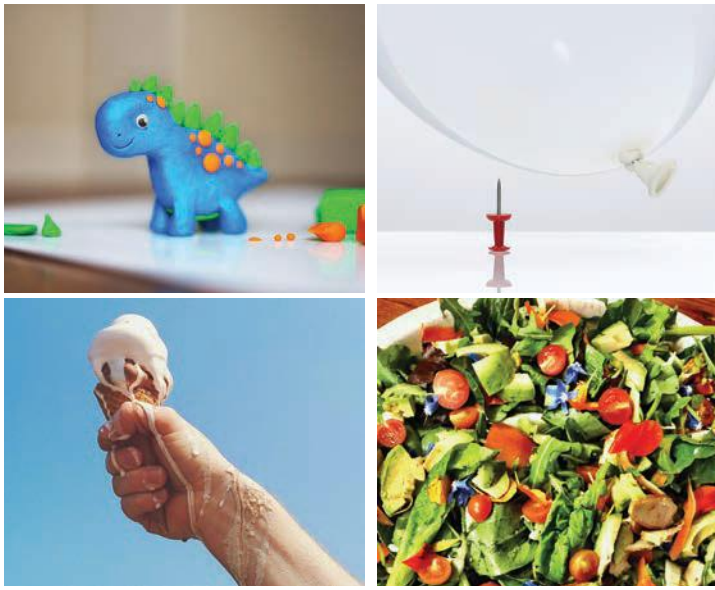

Figure 7.1 Different types of evidence that a physical change has occurred: (top left) change in shape, (top right) expansion or contraction, (bottom left) change in state or (bottom right) mixing

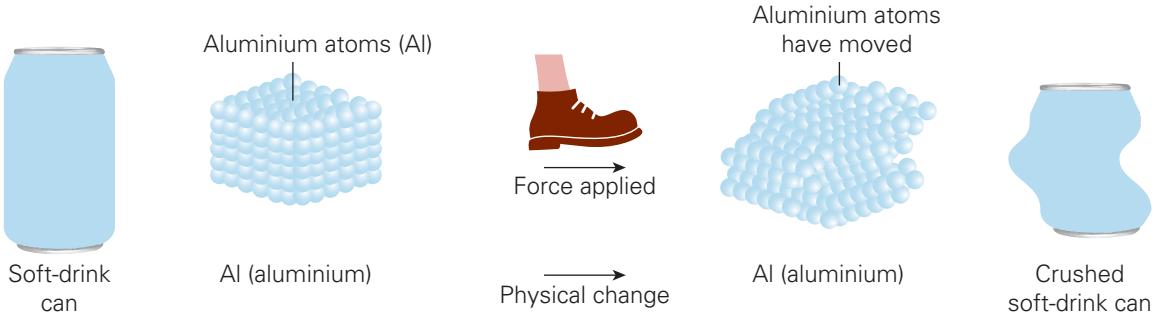

Figure 7.2 When an aluminium can is crushed, the characteristics of the can have changed, but nothing new is formed. Therefore, it is a physical change.

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Figure 7.3 An example of a physical change is when glass breaks.

Breaking glass is another example of physical change (Figure 7.3). Its physical characteristics change, but it is still glass.

Quick check 7.1

1. Define 'physical change'.
2. Name four pieces of evidence to look for when determining whether a physical change has occurred.
3. Explain how changing shape is an example of physical change.

Expansion and contraction

In Section 5.1 you learned about the particle model and different states of matter. The particle model, which describes the behaviour of atoms in solids, liquids and gases, suggests that if you heat up a substance, the atoms in the substance will also gain energy, move faster, and expand if the container allows. This means the atoms will gain energy, move more and increase the distance between one another. This process of atoms moving away from one another is called expansion. Expansion is an example of physical change – the properties of the substance have changed (volume increases and density decreases),

Figure 7.4 When the air inside a hot air balloon is heated, the atoms in the heated air gain energy. They move faster, moving away from each one another and therefore taking up more space. This is an example of a physical change occurring and it results in the air being less dense on the inside of the balloon, so the balloon rises.

but no new substance has formed, and it is reversible. Hot air balloons (Figure 7.4) and thermometers are two examples of where we can see evidence of a physical change occurring in this way.

The reverse of expansion is contraction, and this is also evidence of a physical change occurring. The substance cools down, the atoms lose energy, they slow down, and the distance between the atoms gets smaller (volume decreases and density increases).

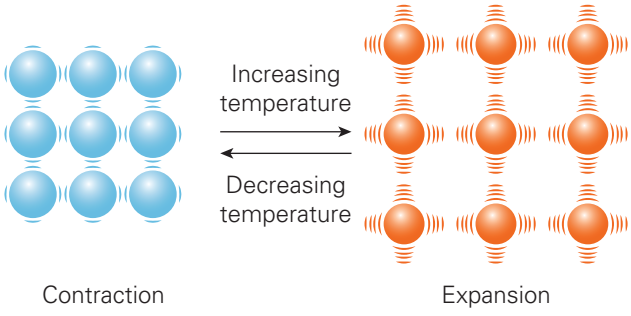

Figure 7.5 The physical changes experienced by atoms during expansion and contraction

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Practical 7.1

Making a model thermometer

Aim

To demonstrate expansion and contraction by making a model thermometer

Materials

- 250 mL conical flask
- glass thermometer
- clear narrow plastic straw
- ice-cream container
- red food colouring
- kettle or hotplate
- 250 mL beaker
- permanent marker
- modelling clay (or Blu-Tack)
- water
- ice

Method

1. Half fill the conical flask with water.
2. Add a drop or two of food colouring.
3. Place the straw in the flask, but do not let it touch the bottom. Use the modelling clay to seal the edges of the flask's top with the straw in the middle. The clay will hold the straw in place and prevent it from touching the bottom of the flask.
4. On the side of the flask, use a permanent marker to mark the height of the liquid inside the straw (your thermometer) at room temperature. Record the temperature of the room using the glass thermometer.
5. Place the flask into an ice-cream container with ice and allow it to cool. Record the temperature inside the ice-cream container using your glass thermometer and mark the side of the flask to record where the liquid level is.
6. Heat some water on the hotplate and add it to the ice-cream container. Let the flask sit in the ice-cream container for several minutes. Record the new temperature using the glass thermometer and mark the side of the flask to record where the liquid level is.
7. Make a scale on your model thermometer, using the temperatures you have recorded and the marks you have made on the flask.
8. Test your model thermometer by using it to predict the temperature of different environments, such as a sunny spot in the school, or by changing the ratio of hot and cold water in the ice-cream container. Check your predictions with the glass thermometer.

Results

Record your observations and tabulate your results: the temperature of each environment and the height of the fluid in the straw.

Discussion

1. Compare your model thermometer results with the actual glass thermometer results. How close are they?
2. Explain your results. Why did the fluid move up or down the straw? Use your knowledge of the particle theory to aid in your explanation.
3. Imagine you repeated your experiment with a narrower straw. How would you expect the measurements to be different? Explain whether this new thermometer would be likely to be more or less accurate than your first thermometer.
4. Outline possible faults in this experiment, and explain how each could have affected your results.
5. Suggest improvements for this experiment if you were to carry it out again.

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Changing state

In Section 5.3, you learned that solids, liquids and gases can change their state and that heating up a substance causes an increase in temperature. If enough heat is added, the substance can change its state. When a substance changes state, it is a physical change. The change can be reversed, and the actual substance is still chemically the same; it is just its physical properties that have altered. The different changes of state are summarised in Figure 7.6.

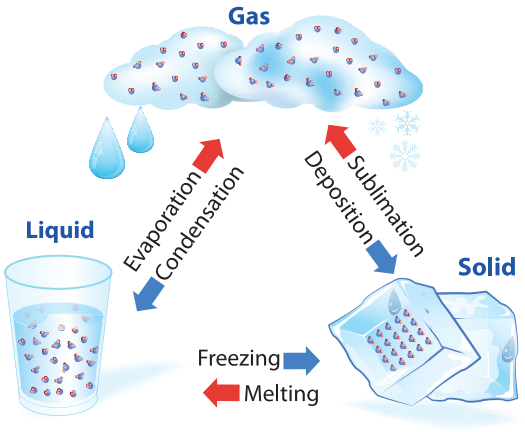

Figure 7.6 When some substances gain or lose heat, they undergo a physical change: no new substance is produced and the substance changes its physical properties but is still the same substance.

Figure 7.7 A snowman melting is an example of physical change. Can you explain why?

Figure 7.8 Condensation is an example of a physical change, as no new substance has formed. It is reversible and it is only the physical properties of the water that have altered, not its chemical make-up.

Science as a human endeavour 7.1

Physical changes have happened on Mars too!

Mars has a number of surface features, such as dried-out river valleys and gigantic outflow channels, that could have been caused by glaciers. Scientists think that in the distant past, Mars had a thick atmosphere and a lot of surface water, including a huge ocean that may have covered 40% of its northern hemisphere.

A change of state is an example of physical change, so physical changes have happened on Mars too. Four billion years ago, the atmosphere of Mars started to thin, causing any liquid on the surface to quickly freeze and evaporate.

However, data collected by the European Space Agency's Mars Express spacecraft suggests that there is a pool of liquid water buried under layers of ice and dust in the south of Mars. A 2020 study predicted that very salty water (which doesn't freeze as easily) could be found on the surface, and this is only possible for very short periods of time each year, but the water would be a very chilly −48°C!

Figure 7.9 The surface of Mars is thought to have been shaped by physical changes.

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Quick check 7.2

1 Explain how expansion and contraction are examples of physical change.
2 Explain how changing state is an example of physical change.

dissolving
the process where individual particles of a solute are separated from one another and surrounded by solvent molecules, causing them to no longer be visible in a solution

Mixing and dissolving

When you mix substances or dissolve one substance in another, a physical change occurs. Think about **dissolving** sugar (solute) in water (solvent) to form a solution. The way the molecules of sugar spread out within the water is called diffusion. In Chapter 5, you learned that diffusion is the movement of particles from an area of high concentration to an area of low concentration. When the sugar is spread out in the water, you still have sugar, but the molecules have been separated and surrounded by water molecules. The characteristics of the sugar have changed from a crystalline, solid structure to one where all the sugar particles can move around freely in the water. No new substance has been formed, and the process is reversible if you evaporate the water. It is for this reason that mixing and dissolving are considered evidence of physical change.

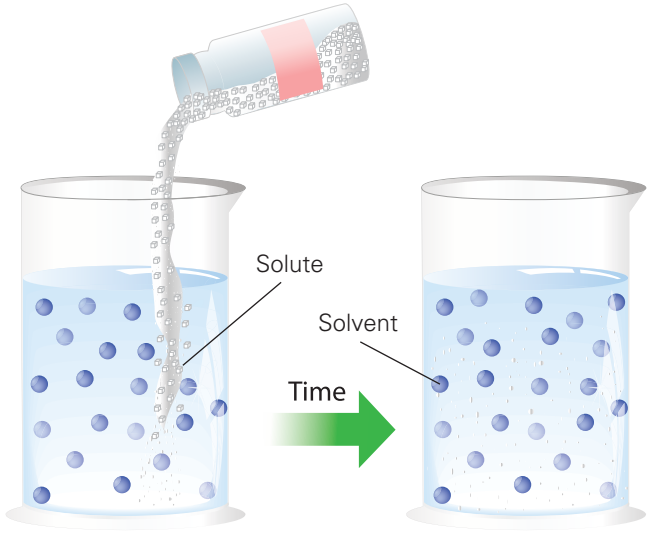

Figure 7.10 Molecules of water (blue) move randomly in a glass. Add sugar (white) and the new, dissolved molecules will eventually become distributed uniformly throughout the water. This is diffusion.

Try this 7.1

Skittles® and diffusion

Note: This activity uses lollies containing food colouring, which may present a risk to students with food allergies. Do not consume any food items.

Collect the following materials: Petri dish, stopwatch, filter paper or white paper, 10 Skittles of different colours, and a beaker of water.

Place the Petri dish on the filter paper or white paper and place five Skittles equally spaced in the Petri dish. Slowly pour water into the Petri dish to fill it up, and start timing. Record your observations. Explain your observations using the term 'diffusion'.

Repeat the activity with warm water. Explain the differences you observe.

Figure 7.11 Skittles can help demonstrate diffusion.

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Quick check 7.3

1 Explain how mixing and dissolving are examples of physical change.
2 Identify which of the following are physical changes.
- slicing bread
- turning on a light
- breaking an egg
- mowing grass
- setting off fireworks
- breaking glass
- freezing water
- cutting hair
- making a fire
- drying clothes
- burning toast
- melting chocolate
- colouring hair
- yoghurt going 'off'
- popping popcorn
- squeezing an orange

Explore! 7.1

More physical changes?

Are there other examples of physical change that you have not investigated, or have you covered them all? Research the following three situations, and provide evidence why each is or is not an example of physical change:

1 the heating of an iron bar until it turns red
2 the magnetising of a piece of iron
3 the glowing filament of a light globe.

Figure 7.12 An iron bar glows red when heated, and a filament glows in a light globe. Are these examples of physical change?

Explore! 7.2

Recycling

Separating waste materials during recyling makes use of the unique physical properties of a range of waste materials, including cardboard, glass, aluminium cans and magnetic metals. Investigate the design of a recycling plant for the separation of components of waste based on their physical properties.

1 How are paper and cardboard separated from larger plastic bottles by a screening machine?
2 How are magnetic metals separated from non-magnetic components of a mixture?

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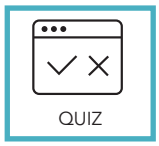
Section 7.1 questions



Remembering

1 **Identify** which of the following are physical properties.
- blue colour
- odour
- density
- sweet taste
- flammable
- reacts with air
- reacts with water
- boiling point
- hardness
- dissolves in water
- lustre
- volume

2 **Identify** which of the following are physical changes.
- cutting an apple
- milk going 'off'
- digesting food
- ice melting
- cooking pikelets
- wood rotting
- reacting with vinegar
- inflating a bike tyre
- grass growing
- silver tarnishing
- mopping up water
- Milo dissolving in milk

3 **Define** the following terms: reversible, irreversible, expansion, contraction, melting, freezing, evaporation, condensation, dissolving, diffusion.

Understanding

4 **State** if each of the following statements is true or false. Rewrite the false statements so that they are true.
- a During a physical change, the chemical make-up of the substance also changes.
- b Melting is a physical change.
- c As particles warm up, expansion can occur; this is a physical change.
- d Physical changes are never reversible.
- e When heat is lost from a substance, the particles can move closer together, and a gas can change to a liquid.
- f Cutting up a cake changes the shape and size of the cake; this is a physical change.
- g Burning wood in a fire forms charcoal and ash; this is a physical change.
- h When a solute dissolves in a solvent, nothing new is formed, so this is a physical change.

5 **Identify** five physical changes that happen in your home.

Applying

6 **Summarise** the following physical changes, using your knowledge of the particle theory.
- a On a cold day, the tyres on your family car seem more deflated.
- b How a liquid in a glass thermometer works
- c On extremely hot days, there are concerns about train tracks not working well.

7 **Summarise** the process whereby a strong-smelling deodorant is sprayed in one corner of a room but eventually everyone in the room can smell it.

Analysing

8 **Consider** how you could you reverse the following physical changes.
- a salt dissolving in water
- b inflating a balloon
- c ice melting
- d glass breaking

Evaluating

9 **Justify** why each of the following is an example of a physical change.
- a Blow-drying your dog's coat after giving him a bath
- b Making cordial from a concentrate and water
- c Your camping airbed getting tight and ready to pop after lying in the sun
- d Crushing cereal boxes before putting them out for recycling

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7.2 Evidence of chemical change

Learning goal

1 To be able to describe the common evidence of chemical change.

WORKSHEET

Chemical change

During a **chemical change**, a new substance is formed. This new substance could be a solid, a liquid or a gas. To determine whether a new substance has been formed, and therefore whether a chemical change has occurred, there is characteristic evidence to observe. Usually, you will observe one or more of the following (occasionally, there will be exceptions):

- a permanent colour change
- a gas being given off (as an odour, or smoke or bubbles)
- a solid (called a **precipitate**) forming in a solution
- a change in temperature (increase or decrease)
- energy in the form of light or sound being produced (e.g. an explosion).

Consider the fireworks that light up the night sky each year on New Year's Eve. The bright explosions of colour that we see are produced by metals, such as magnesium and copper. The metals may change chemically as they burn, while producing fantastic colours in the process. We know that a chemical change has occurred because we see smoke, we hear cracking and fizzing, and we know the fireworks are dangerous to get close to, because of the heat they produce.

chemical change where one or more substances undergo a chemical reaction and a new substance is formed

precipitate the solid that forms when two clear solutions are mixed and undergo a chemical change

Chemical changes can be irreversible (e.g. burning paper) or reversible (you will learn more about this in senior chemistry). When referring to chemical reactions, 'irreversible' means that the products cannot easily be converted back to the substances that formed them. Undoing an irreversible chemical change often requires a different chemical reaction (or many reactions) to take place.

Figure 7.13 These fireworks above Perth city are an example of chemical changes occuring.

Quick check 7.4

1 What is a key piece of evidence that a chemical change has occurred?
2 List the five pieces of evidence to look for, to determine whether a chemical change has occurred.
3 What is the evidence that a chemical change has occurred in each of these situations?
   a Leaves turn red in the autumn.
   b Sherbet fizzes in your mouth.
   c Bread is baking in the oven.

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Science as a human endeavour 7.2

Chemical reactions caught on film

Scientists can 'film' chemical reactions on a molecular level by using the electron beam from a transmission electron microscope, like stop-motion or stop-frame filming. This technique can show chemical reactions as they are happening and, among other challenging questions, can help us understand how molecules interact or react with one another at the atomic level. We may also be able to find out why one product, rather than another, forms.

VIDEO Evidence of chemical reactions

Evidence of chemical change

It is finally the school holidays and your family is going camping. One cool evening you are all relaxing around the campfire to keep warm. The adults are cooking sausages on the grill over the flames and damper in the coals beneath. You toast marshmallows using sticks held over the edge of the fire, letting them get all brown, gooey and delicious. On this lovely evening, chemical changes are happening all around you!

Figure 7.14 Damper that has been cooked in the coals of a fire shows evidence of a chemical change occurring.

Colour change

A chemical change is any change that causes a new substance to be formed. For example, when your campfire has burned out completely, ashes are left behind – these are a new substance formed by the burning of wood. This is a chemical change. Another indicator that a chemical change has occurred is a permanent change in colour.

Your marshmallows, sausages and damper are all browning on the outside from being exposed to the heat of the campfire flames. This is due to a reaction between amino acids and sugar. This is a permanent colour change, indicating that a chemical change has occurred, although there may also be a new substance (charcoal) forming on the outside if your food is burning! Generally speaking, the changes caused by cooking food are all chemical changes.

The ripening of fruit and vegetables is another example of a colour change indicating that a chemical change has occurred. For example, when a tomato reaches the green stage of its development, it starts to produce ethene gas. The ethene then interacts with the tomato fruit to start the ripening process, which involves chemical reactions, and so it is evidence of chemical change (Figure 7.15).

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Figure 7.15 Tomatoes ripening and changing colour is evidence that a chemical change has occurred.

Rusting, a type of **corrosion**, is a slow and usually unwanted chemical change that causes iron and steel to go flaky and brown. This is not desirable in things like buildings, bridges and train tracks, which are made of iron and steel. Rusting occurs when iron reacts with water and with the oxygen in the air to form iron oxide (rust). This is a new substance forming and so, clearly, rusting is a process producing a chemical change (Figure 7.16).

corrosion
the gradual and natural process of metals breaking down, e.g. rusting

galvanisation
the process of coating iron or steel with zinc to prevent corrosion

Given the widespread use of iron and steel, we need ways to prevent rusting. The word equation for the process of rusting is:

iron + oxygen + water → iron hydroxide

Iron hydroxide then dehydrates to form iron oxide (rust).

This equation means that all three substances on the left of the arrow are required to produce the substance on the right of the arrow. If iron and steel are not exposed to water and oxygen, then iron oxide cannot be made and rusting is halted. You may have noticed that, in hardware stores, there are two options for stopping water and oxygen coming into contact with the iron and steel:

- painting a surface protector onto the iron or steel surface. This is like the paint we put on cars to prevent the metal panels being exposed to the elements
- **galvanisation**, in which the iron or steel is coated in a layer of zinc. If a corrugated iron roof has been galvanised, the zinc coating will corrode before the iron, and so the iron is protected from rusting (Figure 7.17).

Figure 7.16 Screws exposed to water and oxygen will start to corrode or rust, providing evidence of chemical change.

Figure 7.17 A galvanised corrugated iron roof: the zinc coating will corrode before the iron underneath, preventing rusting of the iron.

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Try this 7.2

Steganography

Steganography is the practice of sending hidden messages. For this activity, you will need some lemon juice in a small container, white paper, a plastic tray, some cotton buds and access to an iron or a hairdryer. Place a piece of white paper on your tray. Dip a cotton bud into the lemon juice and write a message on the paper. When your message is dry, your teacher will reveal your message using a heat source (iron or hairdryer). Explain why this is an example of a chemical change.

Practical 7.2: Investigation

To rust or not to rust

Aim

To determine the conditions required for the chemical change of rusting

Planning

1 Write a summary of the background information about rusting and the factors that affect it.
2 Consider what you learned earlier in the chapter and in your background research about the conditions that are required for the chemical change of rusting.
3 Design an experiment that will demonstrate that the conditions you believe to be required for rusting are indeed essential, using iron nails, oil (to prevent air getting access to water or iron nails), stoppers and test tubes. Think about your independent, dependent and controlled variables as you plan. You will need to leave your experiment overnight.
4 Write a specific and relevant research question for your investigation.
5 Identify the independent, dependent and controlled variables.
6 Write a hypothesis for your investigation.
7 Write a risk assessment for your investigation.
8 Draw a diagram of your method, showing what will be added to each test tube.
9 Check your design with your teacher before starting your experiment.

Materials

- iron nails
- sandpaper
- large glass test tubes with stoppers
- vegetable oil
- water

Results

1 Draw a results table for your experiment.
2 Produce a suitable graph for your experiment.

Discussion

1 Describe any patterns, trends or relationships in your results.
2 Define 'chemical change' and 'rusting'. List any chemical changes you see in this experiment.
3 Write a word equation for the reaction that occurs when rust is produced.
4 Identify any limitations in your investigation.

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5 Propose another independent variable that could have been tested, to expand on your results.
6 Suggest some improvements for this experiment.
7 For a super challenge, how can you make the iron nail rust faster? You may like to use salt water, vinegar and soft drinks in your experiment.

Conclusion
Draw a conclusion from this experiment about the conditions required for rusting, using data to support your statement.

Gas is formed

To produce a soft, fluffy loaf of bread or a delicious piece of cake, you need a chemical change to occur. One of the key indicators in this case is a gas being produced. This gas could be in the form of an odour, bubbles or even smoke.

Bread can be made using a substance known as bicarb soda (or sodium hydrogen carbonate), which is added to the main ingredients – flour, salt, oil and water. The ingredients are mixed into a dough before baking. When heated, the bicarb soda breaks down and produces carbon dioxide gas. As the carbon dioxide is released into the dough, it expands with the heat (note that this is a physical change). Large bubbles of gas form in the dough, and this is what gives the bread its spongy texture.

Bread can also be made by using microorganisms called yeast. The yeast uses the starch and sugars in the flour to produce alcohol and carbon dioxide. The alcohol escapes during cooking, but the carbon dioxide expands inside the dough, creating bubbles of gas and making the bread rise.

Figure 7.18 Hot bread is a delicious result of chemical change.

Rotting things often produce gas and, again, this is a sign that a chemical change is occurring. For example, vegetable scraps in the compost bin are broken down by microorganisms in a process called **decomposition**, and this produces carbon dioxide gas.

decomposition
a reaction in which one substance breaks up into smaller ones

Try this 7.3

Ready, set, bake!
Find a simple bread recipe on the internet. Try the recipe at home. Write a word equation for the reaction – that is, write the ingredients that go into the bread, and then an arrow to represent the change, and then write the substances that are formed, to the right of the arrow. What evidence is there that a chemical change has occurred? Also list any physical changes you notice.

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Precipitate is formed

Another indicator that a chemical change has occurred is the formation of a precipitate. A precipitate is a solid that forms when two clear solutions are mixed. The precipitate is unable to dissolve in water and so, when it forms, it makes the solution look cloudy before it settles on the bottom. You will learn more about chemical reactions that produce a precipitate in the next section.

Quick check 7.5

1. Name three examples where a colour change indicates that a chemical change has occurred.
2. Recall the process of rusting as a word equation.
3. List two examples of where a gas being formed provides evidence of chemical change. In each case, explain the chemical reaction.
4. Define 'precipitate'.

Change in temperature

You already know that during a chemical change, new products are formed. But did you know that heat energy may be given off or absorbed during a chemical change? This is another sign that a chemical change has occurred. For example, the burning of natural gas in the kitchen when you are cooking is a chemical change that gives off a lot of heat. Heat is used in cooking to speed up the many chemical changes that result in a delicious meal. Remember that matter consists of atoms joined together to form different substances. Heat can help atoms break free of one another and form different substances. For example, when you cook an egg, the heat makes the atoms in the egg white recombine in a different way, and this appears to us as cooked egg.

Essentially, any time you burn something, heat energy is produced, and the increase in temperature indicates that a chemical change has occurred. But the opposite can also happen: heat energy can be absorbed, and the temperature decreases. Chemical ice packs are probably the most common example of this. If you injure yourself, you may be offered an ice pack. You pop a bubble inside the pack and the pack starts to absorb heat from the surrounding environment, making the pack feel cold. You will investigate chemical processes that produce heat energy and absorb heat energy, in the next section.

Light or sound produced

Another piece of evidence that a chemical change has occurred is light or sound. Remember that during the reaction of a firework, both sound and light are produced. Can you think of other examples where light or sound (or both) are evidence that a chemical change has occurred? The information on the next page may help you.

Figure 7.19 When natural gas burns, a lot of heat energy is released, and we use this heat to cook food and start chemical reactions.

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Did you know? 7.1

Fireflies glow because of chemical reactions

bioluminescence a chemical reaction that produces light in living things

chemiluminescence a chemical reaction that produces light

A chemical reaction occurs in fireflies' abdomens, allowing them to produce light. This process is called **bioluminescence** and is shared by many other organisms, mostly sea-dwelling or marine organisms. (Note that bioluminescence is a type of **chemiluminescence**.)

When oxygen combines with calcium, adenosine triphosphate (ATP) and luciferin, and a bioluminescent enzyme is also present, light is produced. When oxygen is available, the firefly's light organ glows, and when it is not available, the light goes out. The firefly is able to control the beginning and end of the chemical reaction, and thus start and stop the production of light. Unlike a light bulb, which gets hot when it produces light, a firefly's light is cold light, and so very little energy is lost as heat. This is very lucky for the firefly, because it would not survive getting as hot as a light bulb!

Figure 7.20 The abdomen of a firefly produces light through a chemical reaction known as bioluminescence.

Fireflies light up for a number of reasons. The larvae produce short glows that act as a warning to predators that they taste bad. As adults, many fireflies have flash patterns unique to their species, and use them to discriminate between members of the opposite sex. In males, a higher rate and intensity of flashing has been shown to be most attractive to females in several firefly species.

Explore! 7.3

Glow sticks

Have you ever played minigolf in the dark with glow-in-the-dark balls? Have you ever celebrated New Year's Eve with glow sticks? It all comes down to chemical reactions.

1. Define the following key terms: fluorescence, chemiluminescence, bioluminescence.
2. Find out about the structure of glow sticks and explain how it produces the light. Summarise your findings and include a picture/diagram.

Figure 7.21 Glow sticks work because of chemiluminescence, a chemical reaction that produces light.

Quick check 7.6

1. List some examples of where a change in temperature provides evidence of chemical change.
2. List some examples of where light or sound being formed provides evidence of chemical change.

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Practical 7.3

Chemical change

Be careful

Wear personal protective equipment.

Collect all waste and dispose of it appropriately.

Aim

To conduct a series of activities to explore chemical change and be able to identify the evidence of change

Materials

- Bunsen burner
- matches
- wooden skewer
- strontium chloride solution
- copper(II) sulfate solution
- ammonium hydroxide solution
- test tubes and test-tube rack
- 2 cm strip of magnesium ribbon
- 1 mol L^{-1} hydrochloric acid
- thermometer
- 100 mL glass beaker
- lemon juice
- baking soda

Method

Activity 1

1 Light the Bunsen burner.
2 Break a wooden skewer in half.
3 Dip the broken-off end of the skewer into the strontium chloride solution.
4 Place the wet end of the skewer into the flame.
5 Record your observations in your results table and tick which of the pieces of evidence show that a chemical change has occurred.
6 Repeat steps **2–5** with the copper(II) sulfate solution.

Activity 2

1 Place three eye droppers full of ammonium hydroxide into a test tube in a rack.
2 Add the copper(II) sulfate solution, drop by drop, no more than 10 drops, into the ammonium hydroxide.
3 Record your observations in your results table and tick which of the pieces of evidence show that a chemical change has occurred.

Activity 3

1 Place the 2 cm strip of magnesium ribbon into a test tube in a rack.
2 Gently stand the thermometer in the same test tube.
3 Add approximately 2 cm of dilute hydrochloric acid to the test tube.
4 Record your observations in your results table and tick which of the pieces of evidence show that a chemical change has occurred.

Activity 4

1 Put approximately 40 mL of lemon juice in the 100 mL glass beaker.
2 Gently stand the thermometer in the beaker.
3 Add 1 teaspoon of baking soda to the lemon juice.
4 Record your observations in your results table and tick which of the pieces of evidence show that a chemical change has occurred.

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Results

Copy and complete the following table to show the evidence that a chemical change has occurred.

Activity	Change in colour	Change in temperature (°C)	Gas produced	Light produced	Precipitate produced	Observations
1						
2						
3						
4						

Discussion

1 Define 'chemical change'.
2 Outline the different pieces of evidence that a chemical change has occurred, and provide an example from your activities.
3 Were there any pieces of evidence that were not demonstrated during these activities? Write an activity that would allow you to demonstrate this piece of evidence of chemical change. You may need to do some online research first.

Try this 7.4

Physical and chemical changes are all around us. Figure 7.22 shows some photos from a family holiday. List the physical and chemical changes you can see in the photos. For every change you notice, state the evidence that a change has occurred or is occurring – for example, colour change, a gas being produced or a new product being formed.

Figure 7.22 Can you spot the physical and chemical changes in these photos from a family holiday?

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Did you know? 7.2

Digestion is all about change!

Thousands of physical and chemical changes take place during the digestion of your food … yes, thousands!

Part of the body	Type of change	Details
Mouth	Physical	Food is chewed by teeth to break it down into smaller pieces so that enzymes have a greater surface area to work on.
	Chemical	An enzyme in saliva (called amylase) starts to break down complex carbohydrates into simpler forms that your body can absorb.
Oesophagus	Physical	As the oesophagus moves food from the mouth to the stomach, the muscles contract, pushing the food along, in a process called peristalsis.
Stomach	Physical	The stomach muscles contract and churn the food to break it into smaller pieces so that enzymes have a greater surface area to work on.
	Chemical	Enzymes start to break down proteins. Hydrochloric acid provides the optimum conditions for this to occur.
Small intestine	Physical	As the small intestine moves food along towards the large intestine, the muscles contract the food to help break it down further. Bile emulsifies fats into smaller droplets so that enzymes have a greater surface area to work on.
	Chemical	Enzymes break down proteins and fats even further, so they can be absorbed into your bloodstream through the walls of the intestine.

Table 7.1 Some of the many physical and chemical changes that occur in the digestive system

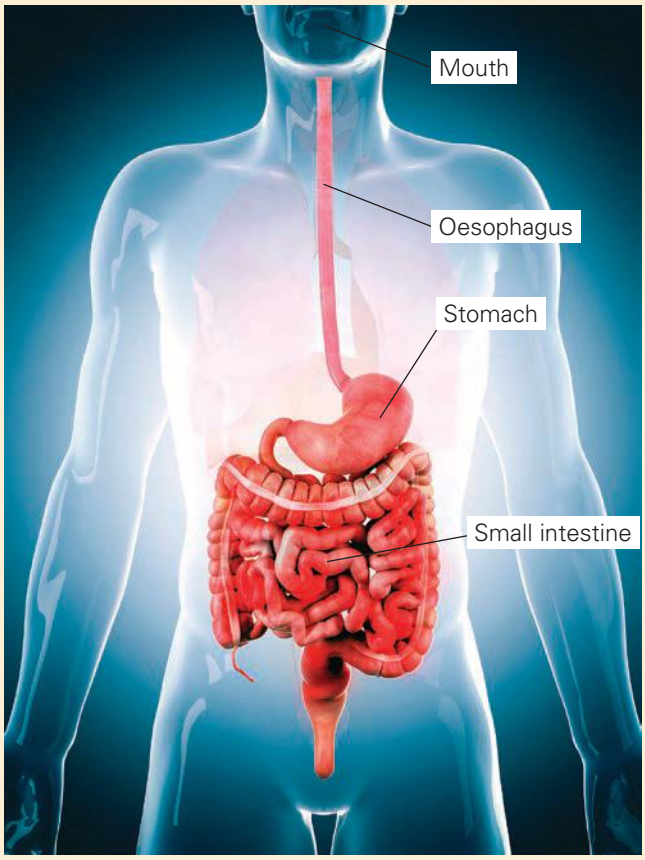

Figure 7.23 The digestive system uses physical changes and chemical changes to break down your food for absorption.

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Science as a human endeavour 7.3

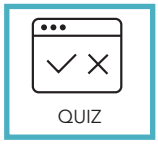
Forensic detection of fingerprints

In 2015, an Australian scientist's home was broken into. This inspired him to develop a new technique for fingerprint detection at a crime scene. Fingerprints can be used as an identification tool for suspects as each pattern is unique to each individual. However, while some fingerprints such as those from a dirty hand may be visible, others are often invisible on surfaces.

Figure 7.24 Detecting latent (invisible) prints left at a crime scene is now easier, with new detection methods involving chemical reactions.

Dr Kang Liang from the CSIRO found that by adding a drop of liquid containing crystals to surfaces, investigators using a UV light are able to see latent (invisible) fingerprints 'glow' in about 30 seconds. The benefits of the crystals are that they are cheap, react quickly and can emit a bright light. The chemical reaction doesn't create dust or fumes, reducing waste and the risk of inhaling dangerous gases.

Section 7.2 questions



Remembering

1 **Select** the correct definition for each term.

Term	Definition
Physical property	A new substance is formed.
Physical change	A characteristic of a substance that can be observed/measured without changing it, e.g. colour, melting point, hardness, boiling point, density.
Chemical property	No new substance is formed.
Chemical change	The behaviour of a substance when it reacts with another substance.

2 **State** some examples of physical properties.

3 **State** some examples of chemical properties.

4 **Recall** the five common signs that a chemical change has occurred.

5 **Name** three examples of chemical change occurring in your home.

Understanding

6 For each of the following situations, **summarise** the signs of chemical change you would observe.

- a Birthday candles are burning.
- b Glow sticks emit light when you break them.
- c Sandwiches go mouldy.
- d Baking soda and vinegar are mixed.

7 **Explain** the process of rusting and why it is an example of chemical change.

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Applying

8 A stoppered test tube of yellow liquid is left on the windowsill of a science lab over the weekend. When the students come back to class, they observe that there is condensation on the inside of the tube, the liquid has gone green, and the stopper has popped out. **Explain** whether these observations indicate physical or chemical changes, and give a reason for your answer.

9 **Distinguish** between bioluminescence and chemiluminescence.

10 **Classify** each of the following as physical or chemical change.

- a vegetable scraps breaking down in the compost bin
- b separating sand from gravel
- c cutting fingernails
- d drilling a screw into wood
- e chipping tree branches
- f a stock cube dissolving in hot water
- g fruit on the ground going mouldy
- h crushing a can
- i trees growing new leaves in spring
- j breakfast cereal going soggy
- k rain making the ground muddy
- l dropping and breaking a plate
- m baking a quiche

Analysing

11 **Identify** the types of changes occurring in the following situations. (There may be more than one type.)

- a Pastry is defrosted and then used to make a pie.
- b To make honeycomb, sugar is mixed with water and honey, heated, and then bicarbonate of soda is added.
- c A candle burns and wax drips down the side.

Evaluating

12 **Determine** the reasons why galvanised iron does not rust.

13 **Propose** why rusting occurs faster on door hinges of boat sheds than on door hinges a kilometre inland from the beach.

14 For each of the following situations, **deduce** whether a physical change, a chemical change or both has occurred. Give reasons for your answers.

- a biting, chewing and swallowing noodles
- b ice cubes melting in your iced chocolate drink
- c petrol burning in a car
- d bread dough being kneaded, then rising
- e a steel spoon left out after being washed and little red spots forming on it

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7.3 Investigating reactions

Learning goals

1 To be able to identify reactants and products in a chemical reaction.
2 To be able to describe four types of chemical reaction.

WORKSHEET

You now know what evidence to look for when a physical change occurs, and when a chemical change occurs. And you know the difference between physical and chemical change. In this section, you will investigate what happens when a chemical change occurs – that is, a chemical reaction.

Reactants and products

In a chemical reaction, the substances you start with are called **reactants**, and the substances you finish with are called **products**. A chemical reaction can be represented in different ways, such as a word equation or a chemical equation.

An example of a chemical reaction is when light hits photographic film coated with tiny crystals of the compound silver chloride. When the film is exposed to light, a chemical reaction occurs, and this darkens the film to produce an image. This reaction can be represented by a word equation and by a chemical equation.

Word equation:
silver chloride → silver + chlorine

Chemical equation: $2AgCl \rightarrow 2Ag + Cl_2$

reactants
the substances that are present at the beginning of a chemical reaction

products
the substances that are present at the end of a chemical reaction

The reactants or, in this case, reactant, are on the left of the arrow – silver chloride. Note that the formula for silver chloride is AgCl, one atom of silver bonded to one atom of chlorine.

The products are on the right of the arrow – silver and chlorine. Note that chlorine has the formula Cl_2 because it exists as a molecule, not as an atom on its own.

In front of the AgCl is the number 2, and there is also a number 2 in front of the Ag. This is part of the process of balancing equations, which you will learn more about in Years 9 and 10. To put it simply, atoms cannot be destroyed or created, they just move around during chemical reactions. So this means the number of silver atoms in the reactants must be the same as the number in the products, and the number of chlorine atoms in the reactants must be the same as in the products. The extra numbers you see in the equation are there to balance the numbers of atoms on each side of the equation (Figure 7.25).

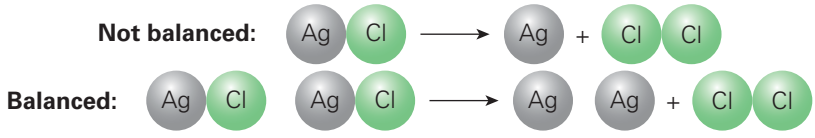

Figure 7.25 Keeping it simple: balancing equations is like working out whether you need one or two cups of flour to make bread. The top equation is not balanced, because the number of chlorine atoms is not the same on both sides of the reaction.

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Figure 7.26 Photographic film works because of chemical reactions.

Quick check 7.7

1 a Recall if chemical reactions involve physical change or chemical change.
  b Recall examples of what evidence there would be if a chemical reaction occurred.
2 Define 'reactants' and 'products'.
3 Name and give examples of two different ways we can represent chemical equations.

Figure 7.27 A car rusting is an example of a synthesis chemical reaction.

Types of chemical reactions

We will focus on the four basic types of chemical reactions:

- synthesis reactions (sometimes called combination)
- decomposition reactions
- precipitation reactions
- combustion reactions.

Synthesis

synthesis
a reaction in which two (or more) elements or reactants combine to form new substances or products

The simplest type of **synthesis** reaction involves two or more elements or reactants combining to form one or more new substances or products. Synthesis reactions can be represented in this way:

$$A + B \rightarrow AB$$

where A and B are the reactants and AB is the product.

You have already read about many synthesis reactions in this chapter, such as the rusting of iron. Iron can react with dry oxygen gas in the air, to form rust.

Word equation:
iron + oxygen → iron oxide

Chemical equation:
$4Fe + 3O_2 \rightarrow 2Fe_2O_3$

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Try this 7.5

The Hulk's hand

You are probably familiar with the Hulk and know that he has large hands when he takes on his green form. You are going to make the Hulk's hand using a chemical reaction! Put on safety glasses and move over to the sink (this can get messy). Take a disposable latex glove (preferably green) and, working with a partner, place 10 g of sodium hydrogen carbonate into the thumb of the glove. Then pour 50 mL of vinegar into the three fingers of the glove furthest from the thumb. Carefully seal the wrist of the glove, ensuring the different fingers don't mix. When you are ready, shake the glove and watch what happens. Can you guess what is being synthesised in this chemical reaction? What are the signs that this is a chemical reaction and chemical changes are occurring?

Figure 7.28 You too can have a hand like the Hulk's.

Decomposition

A reaction in which one substance (reactant) breaks up into smaller ones (products) is called a decomposition reaction. Decomposition reactions are essentially the opposite of synthesis reactions and can be represented in this way:

$$AB \rightarrow A + B$$

where AB is the reactant and A and B are the products.

Figure 7.29 The foaming and spraying that occurs when you open a can of soft drink is an example of a decomposition chemical reaction.

For example, carbonic acid (H_2CO_3) is an ingredient in soft drinks. When you open a can of soft drink, the carbon dioxide that escapes is a result of a decomposition reaction that has occurred within the drink (Figure 7.29).

Word equation:
carbonic acid → water + carbon dioxide

Chemical equation:
$H_2CO_3 \rightarrow H_2O + CO_2$

Some compounds break down when heated – this reaction is called **thermal decomposition**.

thermal decomposition decomposition that occurs when a substance is heated

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Try this 7.6

Thermal decomposition

Many metal carbonates can be involved in thermal decomposition reactions. For example, copper carbonate breaks down easily when it is heated:

Word equation: copper carbonate → copper oxide + carbon dioxide

Chemical equation: $CuCO_3 \rightarrow CuO + CO_2$

Your teacher may demonstrate this. Wearing safety glasses, add two spatulas of copper carbonate to a test tube. Then, using tongs, gently heat the base of the test tube. Make sure the mouth of the test tube is pointing towards a wall. You may like to hold a flame or a lit match over the mouth of the test tube. What do you observe? What evidence is there of a chemical change? What happened to the flame? What gas was produced?

Calcium carbonate ($CaCO_3$) behaves in the same way. Can you write both a word equation and a chemical equation for its thermal decomposition?

VIDEO
Airbags

Did you know? 7.3

Airbags use a decomposition chemical reaction

Airbags are essential in cars for safety reasons, but how do they work? Airbags are not inflated from a gas source but from the products of a chemical decomposition reaction. The chemical responsible for the airbag reaction is sodium azide (NaN_3). An electronic sensor in the car detects a sudden change of speed and/or direction, and sends a signal to an ignitor, which provides heat. This causes the sodium azide to break down rapidly into sodium and nitrogen gas, which causes the airbags to inflate. Amazingly, a handful of sodium azide will produce 67 litres of nitrogen gas! What is even more amazing is that from the time the sensor detects the collision to the time the airbag is fully inflated is only 0.03 second!

Figure 7.30 Deflated airbags after an accident. Airbags inflate because of a decomposition chemical reaction.

The sodium produced from the decomposition is dangerous, and so manufacturers of airbags must add other chemicals into the mix so that the sodium quickly binds with something else to make it less dangerous.

Quick check 7.8

1 Name four different types of chemical reactions.
2 Explain how you would identify that a chemical reaction was a synthesis reaction.
3 Explain how you would identify that a chemical reaction was a decomposition reaction.

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Precipitation

Chemical reactions that involve the mixing of two clear solutions to produce a solid are called **precipitation** reactions. The solid that is formed is a called a *precipitate*. Precipitates are insoluble, which means they are unable to dissolve in water. Precipitates are often very colourful and some are used as pigments in paint.

For example, when colourless solutions of lead nitrate and potassium iodide are added together, a canary yellow precipitate forms (lead iodide) (Figure 7.31).

Figure 7.31 When two clear solutions are mixed and a solid forms, this is a precipitation reaction.

precipitation
a reaction that involves the mixing of two clear solutions to produce a solid called a precipitate

Word equation:
lead nitrate + potassium iodide → lead iodide + potassium nitrate

Chemical equation:
$Pb(NO_3)_2 + 2KI \rightarrow PbI_2 + 2KNO_3$

Practical 7.4: Teacher demonstration

Precipitation reactions

Be careful
Wear appropriate personal protective equipment.

Aim
To demonstrate and observe how to mix two clear solutions in order to produce an insoluble, and often coloured, solid called a precipitate, and to name the precipitates formed

Materials
- 0.1 mol L^{-1} solutions of the following chemicals in dropper bottles: silver nitrate, lead nitrate, copper sulfate, potassium iodide, sodium carbonate, sodium hydroxide and potassium chromate
- micro test tubes
- micro test-tube rack
- safety glasses

Method
1. Place approximately 10 drops of silver nitrate in six micro test tubes standing in a rack.
2. Add 10 drops of lead nitrate to the first micro test tube containing silver nitrate.
3. Observe whether there is reaction and record your observations in the results table.
4. Repeat steps **2** and **3** with each of the other solutions and record your observations in the results table.
5. Test lead nitrate with each of the other solutions in the same way.

continued...

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...continued

6 Name the precipitates that were formed. To do this, take the first name of the first solution and add it to the last name of the second solution. For example, lead nitrate and potassium iodide react to form lead iodide (the product).
Follow this rule for the rest of the precipitates formed in this experiment.

Results

Draw up a table like the one shown here, to record the results of mixing two clear solutions to produce a precipitate.

Chemical	Silver nitrate	Lead nitrate	Copper sulfate	Potassium iodide	Sodium carbonate	Sodium hydroxide	Potassium chromate
Silver nitrate							
Lead nitrate				Yellow precipitate			
Copper sulfate							
Potassium iodide		Yellow precipitate					
Sodium carbonate							
Sodium hydroxide							
Potassium chromate							

Discussion

1 Define 'chemical change' and 'precipitate'.
2 What observations did you make that suggest a chemical change has taken place?
3 Write word equations for each of the pairs of solutions that reacted to form a precipitate.
4 Challenge: Use formulas to write a chemical equation for each of the pairs of solutions that reacted to form a precipitate.
5 Suggest some possible faults in the experimental method used and how these would be resolved if the experiment were to be carried out again.

Combustion

Chemical reactions that involve the burning or exploding of something are called **combustion** reactions. A substance that reacts with oxygen, and heat and light are released along with the formation of the products. These substances include hydrocarbons, which are molecules consisting of carbon and hydrogen; for example, methane (CH_4).

combustion
a reaction that involves the burning or exploding of a substance in the presence of oxygen

Methane is the gas that comes out of a Bunsen burner. It reacts with oxygen to produce carbon dioxide, water, light and heat.

Word equation:
methane + oxygen → carbon dioxide + water

Chemical equation:
$CH_4 + 2O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2H_2O$

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Another example is octane, the fuel used to power your family car. It reacts with oxygen to produce carbon dioxide, water, light and heat.

Word equation:
octane + oxygen → carbon dioxide + water

Chemical equation:
$2C_8H_{18} + 25O_2 \rightarrow 16CO_2 + 18H_2O$

Figure 7.32 Octane is a component of petrol.

Explore! 7.4

Fire and agriculture

Many plants in Australia can be cultivated or propagated by fire. Conduct research on yams and cycads to describe how Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples use fire to cultivate these crops.

Figure 7.33 Fire is used in the cultivation of yams (top) and cycads (bottom), which are sources of carbohydrates.

Did you know? 7.4

Candle combustion

Candles are a great source of light and can last for hours with a controlled flame. A common misconception is that when a candle wick is ignited, it is only the wick that burns. In fact, the wax surrounding the wick burns in contact with oxygen in the air in a combustion reaction. This is why the wax eventually disappears from the candle: it has become carbon dioxide and water vapour. This steady burn and relatively controlled flammability has allowed candles to be used for lighting for thousands of years.

Figure 7.34 The wick provides a surface on which the wax can vaporise in a combustion reaction.

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Practical 7.5: Teacher demonstration

Sugar snake

Aim

To investigate a combustion reaction

Materials

- fume hood or well-ventilated area (outdoors recommended)
- teaspoons
- aluminium pie tin
- sand
- mixing bowl
- lighter fluid (or isopropyl alcohol)
- matches
- powdered sugar
- baking soda

Method

1. In a bowl, combine 4 teaspoons of powdered sugar with 1 teaspoon of baking soda.
2. Fill the pie tin with sand and create a small mound in the centre. Then use your hand to make an indent in the middle of the mound.
3. Pour lighter fluid on the mound and in the indentation. Make sure the sand is well soaked.
4. Spoon the sugar and baking soda mixture into the centre of the mound.
5. Carefully light the sand near the sugar mixture.

Results

Take photos of each stage of the method and record the chemical reaction using a phone or video camera.

Discussion

1. Define 'chemical change' and 'combustion'. What evidence do you see that a chemical change has occurred?
2. What ingredient do you think is undergoing combustion? What gas is being made?
3. Can you explain why the 'sugar snake' goes black? Why does it keep growing?
4. Explain the purpose of the sand.
5. Why is it recommended that this experiment is done wearing safety glasses, in a well-ventilated area or fume hood?

Quick check 7.9

1. Explain how you would identify that a chemical reaction was a precipitation reaction.
2. Explain how you would identify that a chemical reaction was a combustion reaction.

Science as a human endeavour 7.4

Synthesis of pharmaceuticals

In this chapter, you have explored four basic types of reactions. However, scientists employ a wide range of other chemical reactions to make new complex molecules. An example of this is the development of pharmaceuticals to specifically target certain diseases.

Scientists are always working to produce new vaccines, antiviral and antibiotic agents for a range of new and old diseases. The synthesis of such molecules may require more than 20 steps of chemical reactions to achieve the complex pharmaceutical.

In early 2020, scientists around the world were hastily using chemical reactions to attempt to produce a molecule that would act as an antiviral agent to the SARS-CoV-2 virus.

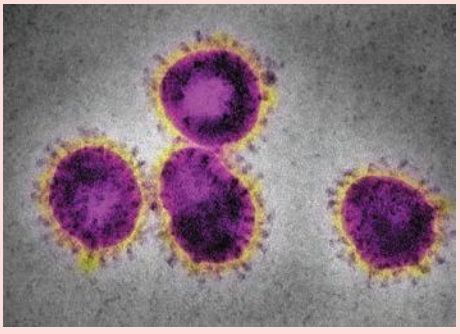

Figure 7.35 The coronaviruses are a family of viruses that includes MERS and SARS (shown here).

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Practical 7.6: Teacher demonstration

Elephant's toothpaste

Aim

To observe the evidence that shows the decomposition of hydrogen peroxide is a chemical reaction

Materials

- empty 500 mL plastic soft-drink bottle
- ½ cup hydrogen peroxide (6% for a big reaction or 3% for a smaller reaction)
- 1 packet of dried yeast
- warm water
- dishwashing detergent
- dishwashing gloves
- cup
- food colouring
- funnel
- large plastic tray

Method

1. Pour the peroxide into the bottle using a funnel.
2. Add a large squirt of detergent to the bottle and swirl to mix.
3. Add some food colouring.
4. In the cup, mix about 4 tablespoons of warm water and the dry yeast, and stir to combine.
5. Pour the yeast into the bottle with the peroxide, using a funnel. Quickly stand back and observe what happens. Record your observations.

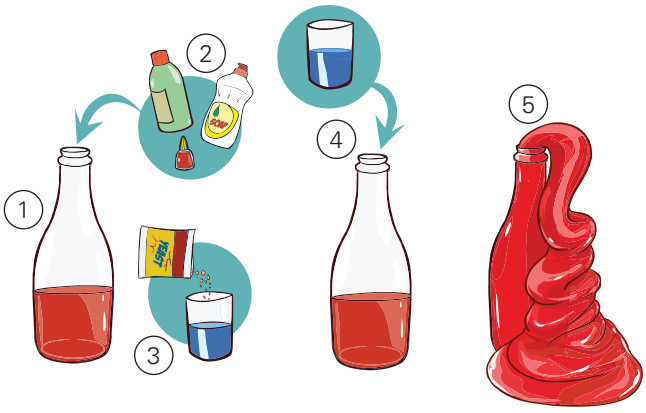

Figure 7.36 Follow this method for this practical.

Results

1. Take photos of each stage of the method, and record the chemical reaction using a phone or video camera.
2. Once the reaction is complete, touch the foam and the edge of the bottle, and record your observations of the temperature.

Discussion

1. What evidence was there that a chemical change had occurred?
2. How do you think the foam was formed? Why do you think it is called 'elephant's toothpaste'?
3. How was the heat made?
4. Write a word equation for the decomposition of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2).
5. Write the chemical equation for the decomposition of hydrogen peroxide.
6. Investigate yeast and find out why it is included as an ingredient in this reaction.

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Section 7.3 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **Recall** the characteristics of a precipitation reaction.
2 **Recall** the products of a typical combustion reaction of a hydrocarbon.
3 **Define** 'precipitate'.
4 **Demonstrate** how a reaction might fit into more than one category. Use an example.
5 **Summarise** the four types of reactions. You may do so in a table like the one shown.

Reaction type	Definition	Example

Understanding

6 **Identify** the reactants and products in the following reactions.
   a $2Mg + O_2 \rightarrow 2MgO$
   b In fermentation, sugar decomposes to form ethanol + carbon dioxide + energy.
7 **State** the word equations for each of the following reactions.
   a Hydrogen gas and oxygen gas explode to form water.
   b When fruit ripens, fructose (a sugar) is formed from starch and water.
   c Solid iron is combined with sulfur and forms iron sulfide.
8 A chemical reaction occurs between two clear solutions, of baking soda and calcium chloride. Calcium carbonate is the solid that forms, along with carbon dioxide gas, sodium chloride and water.
   Chemical equation: $2NaHCO_3 + CaCl_2 \rightarrow CaCO_3 + 2NaCl + CO_2 + H_2O$
   a **State** the word equation for this reaction.
   b **Identify** the reactants and the products in the reaction.

Applying

9 **Explain** what gas is necessary for a combustion reaction.
10 **Explain how:**
   a a synthesis reaction is different from a decomposition reaction
   b you could tell whether a precipitation reaction is occurring.

Analysing

11 **Classify** each of the following reactions as synthesis, decomposition, precipitation or combustion.
   a $A + B \rightarrow C$
   b methane + oxygen → carbon dioxide and water
   c $Fe + S \rightarrow FeS$
   d $C_6H_{12}O_6 \rightarrow 6C + 6H_2O$
   e $2Mg + O_2 \rightarrow 2MgO$
   f carbon dioxide → carbon + oxygen
   g sodium chloride + silver nitrate → silver chloride + sodium nitrate

Evaluating

12 You are carrying out a chemical reaction in class and observe that condensation appears on the inside of the test tube. **Propose** if this is evidence of a physical change or a chemical change. Has heat energy been absorbed or released? Give reasons for each of your answers.

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Chapter review

Chapter checklist

In the Interactive Textbook, the success criteria are linked to the review questions and will be automatically ticked when answers are correct. Alternatively, you can download this checklist from the Interactive Textbook to complete it.

Success criteria		Linked question	Check
7.1	I can describe ways to identify if a physical change has occurred.	2	
7.2	I can describe ways to identify if a chemical change has occurred.	13	
7.3	I can identify the reactants and products in a reaction.	10	
7.3	I can describe the four basic types of chemical reaction.	6	

Review questions

SCORCHER

Remembering

1 **Define** the following key terms: physical property, chemical property, physical change, chemical change, reactant, product.
2 **Recall** the possible evidence that a physical change has occurred.
3 **Name** the products released when a hydrocarbon compound undergoes a combustion reaction.
4 **State** whether each of the following processes is a physical or chemical change.
   a moth balls evaporating in a cupboard
   b building a sandcastle
   c hydrogen burning in chlorine gas
   d fogging up a mirror by breathing on it
   e breaking a bone
   f a broken bone mending
   g slicing potatoes for making chips
   h hand sanitiser evaporating
   i mixing sugar with coffee
   j making a paper aeroplane
   k pan frying dumplings
   l copper turning green when exposed to the air
   m paper ripping
5 **State** if each of the following statements is true or false. Rewrite the false statements so they are true.
   a Synthesis reactions are when two (or more) elements or reactants combine to form new substances or products.
   b Precipitation reactions involve the formation of a colourful and soluble solid that can settle.
   c Decomposition reactions are those in which several reactants break up into even smaller products.
   d Combustion occurs whenever there is oxygen.
6 **List** and provide an example of four different types of chemical reaction.

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Understanding

7 When Tori reacts a lump of calcium carbonate with sulfuric acid, she infers that water, carbon dioxide and calcium sulfate form.

a **State** the word equation representing the information given.

b **Identify** the reactants and the products, and give reasons for your answer.

8 **State** the following as word equations.

a Dean mixed together eggs, flour and milk. He then heated the mixture and produced delicious pikelets.

Figure 7.37 Pikelets

b Suzi dropped a chunk of magnesium into a test tube containing hydrochloric acid, and magnesium chloride was formed. She also noticed a gas forming and when she held a glowing splint nearby, it went *pop*, just like hydrogen gas does when it burns.

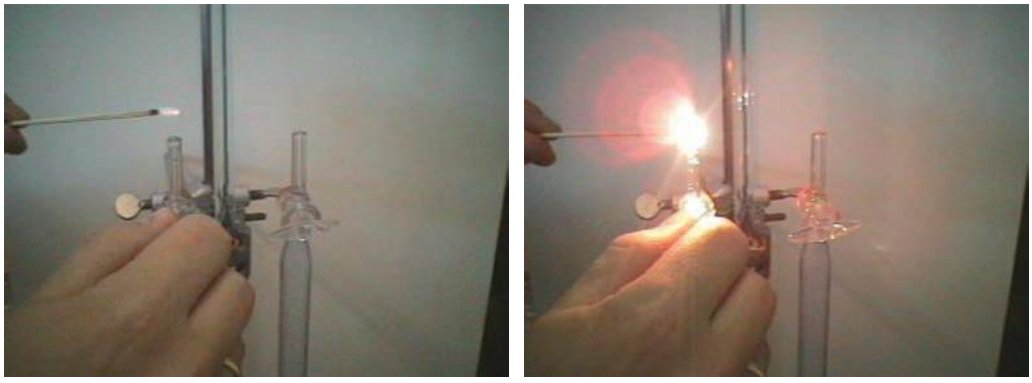

Figure 7.38 A splint is a long thin piece of wood used in labs. It is lit and then blown out. While still glowing, it can be introduced to a gas sample.

c Maisie used some nitric acid from science class to mix with iron oxide and produce iron nitrate and some water.

d Edward put some copper scraps with a little sulfur powder in a test tube and heated it over a Bunsen burner. At the end of the reaction, he observed a greenish colour on the copper – a sulfide.

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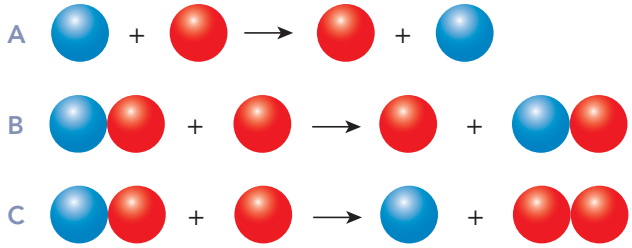
9 **Identify** which of the following are examples of chemical reactions.



Applying

10 When a substance burns, it reacts with a gas in the air and forms an oxide.
   a **Name** this gas.
   b **Identify** the type of chemical reaction.
   c **State** the word equations for the two examples shown below. You may need to refer to a periodic table to determine the names of the elements involved.
      i $2Mg + O_2 \rightarrow 2MgO$
      ii $4Fe + 3O_2 \rightarrow 2Fe_2O_3$

11 Barium sulfate ($BaSO_4$), is used in medical imaging of the gastrointestinal tract because it absorbs X-rays and can show up in an imaging scan. It is formed when two clear solutions, barium chloride and sodium sulfate, react together. Sodium chloride is also formed.
   a **State** the reactants of this chemical reaction.
   b **List** the products of this reaction.
   c Barium sulfate is a solid produced during this chemical reaction. **Identify** the type of chemical reaction.
   d **Identify** the piece of evidence that you have that your answer to part **c** is correct.

12 a **Explain** why baking cookies is not an example of physical change.
   b **Explain** why bending metal in half is not an example of chemical change.

13 **Summarise** the observations you could make if a chemical change had occurred.

14 **Explain** why a colour change occurring is not always a sign that a chemical change has occurred.

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Analysing

15 **Critique** the following statement: 'Atoms that are not in the reactants can end up in the products of a chemical reaction'.

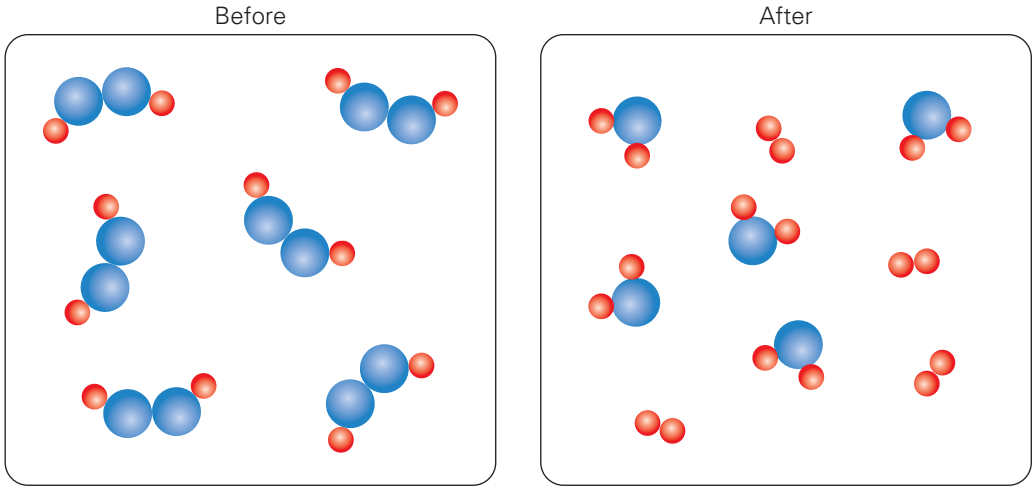
Evaluating

16 a When you combine bicarbonate soda and buttermilk, a gas is produced. **Propose** why the gas is considered evidence that a chemical reaction occurs.

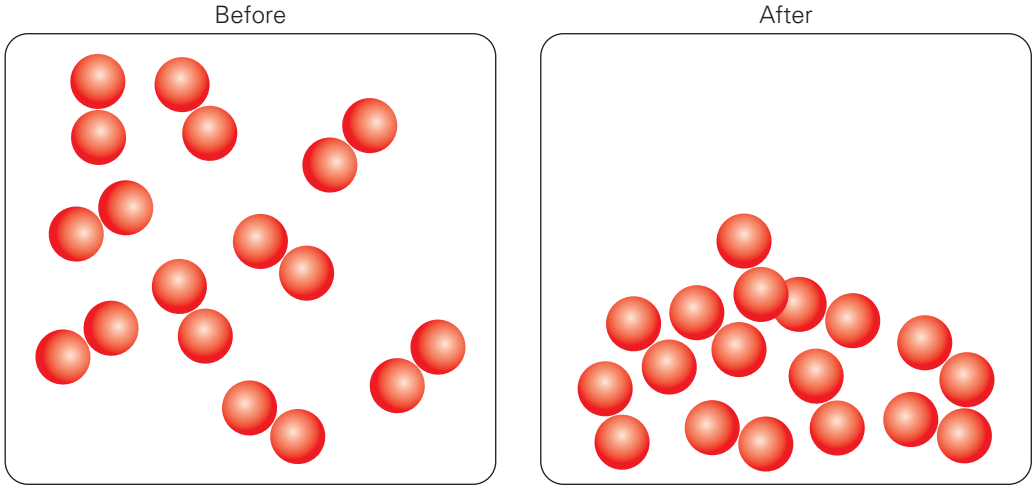
b **Propose** whether it is possible to continue adding more and more of one reactant and expect to get more and more product. Give reasons why or why not.

17 **Determine** whether each of the particle diagrams below indicates a chemical or physical change. Justify your answer.

a



b



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Data questions

A theoretical chemical reaction occurs so that reactant A reacts to form an intermediate product B, which reacts to form a product C. The chemical reactions occurring are:

$A \rightarrow B$ reaction 1
$B \rightarrow C$ reaction 2

The mass of each species is plotted in Figure 7.39, with respect to time passed in the reaction.

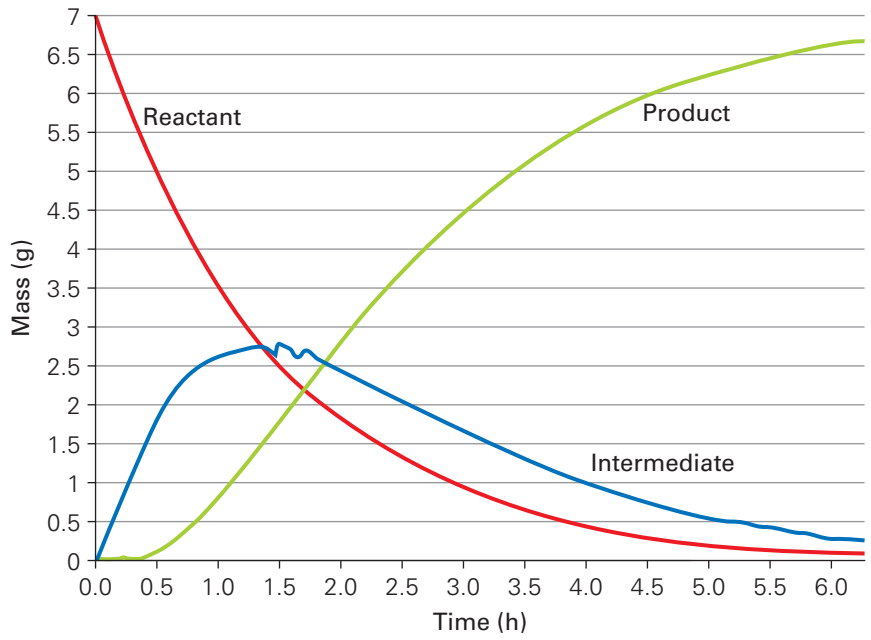

Figure 7.39 The change in mass of reactant (in red), intermediate (in blue) and product (in green) of time in a chemical reaction

1 **Identify** which coloured line represents the reactant A – the line with a mass greater than zero at the beginning of the reaction.
2 **Identify** which coloured line represents the intermediate – the species that is formed in a reaction of A, and then reacts to form C.
3 **Identify** the time at which the mass of intermediate B is greatest.
4 **Identify** the relationship between the mass of reactant A and the mass of product C.
5 **Contrast** the curve for intermediate B and product C and account for the shape of the blue line.
6 **Infer** why the green line does not increase steadily until after 0.5 h.
7 **Justify** what the total mass of all species will be at 3.0 h if the mass of reactant A was 7 g at time zero.
8 **Predict** whether the mass of product C will increase above 7 g.
9 The intermediate, B, has a blue colour when it is produced, and in this reaction this blue colour was only evident when B composed the most mass of all species. **Deduce** which time period after the start of the reaction the reaction mixture would have appeared blue.

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STEM activity: Building a rocket

Background information

Rockets are exciting machines that are designed by engineers and used to explore space. It is amazing to think that someone has worked out how to get these heavy vehicles into space! Rockets depend on a combustion reaction to provide the thrust they need to overcome the force of gravity and shoot up into orbit. Combustion is a fast heat-producing (exothermic) reaction between a fuel and oxygen, in which the fuel is burned. As you know, during a chemical reaction, new compounds are made – in this case, these compounds are the rocket's exhaust. The exhaust coming out from the bottom of the rocket produces a great thrust or force, and the reaction force to this pushes the rocket upward.

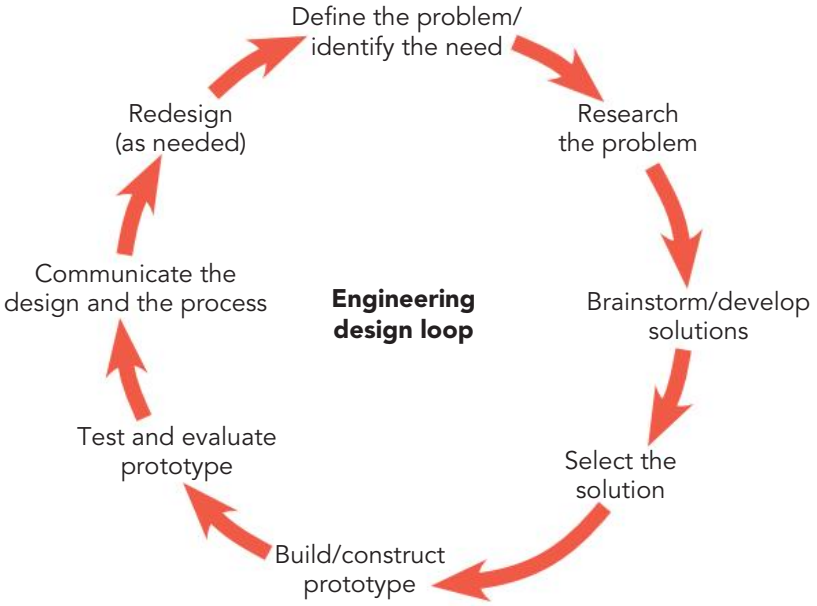

Figure 7.40 Designing and testing of a model takes place before construction of the real thing.

Figure 7.41 Space launch

In a process known as the engineering design cycle, aerospace engineers design small-scale models to learn from and experiment with. By testing small-scale models, the engineers make sure the rockets will work, without wasting time and money on testing full-size rockets. They can test the thrust and stability and make modifications, in order to design the best rocket they can.

Design brief: Design, build, test and evaluate a rocket that will launch in a controlled manner in 10 seconds.

Activity instructions

In teams, you will take on the role of aerospace engineers for The Super Fast Rocket Company. You have been hired to design, build, test and evaluate a rocket that will launch safely and repeatedly in 10 seconds. There will be two major factors in solving this problem: the design of the rocket and the chemical reaction that will provide the thrust for the rocket.

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Suggested materials

- 35 mm film canister (or anything similar with an internal snapping lid)
- an antacid tablet, such as Alka-Seltzer®
- water
- scissors, sticky tape, textas, paper
- chopping board, mortar and pestle, knife, spoon
- safety glasses

Research and feasibility

1 Research the chemical reaction between antacid tablets and water to produce carbon dioxide, and find out the impact of temperature, surface area, mass or other factors on the rate of reaction. List these factors in a table like the table below.

Factors that affect rate of reaction	Rate of reaction (Increase/ Decrease/No effect)	Ideas on how to use this factor in design
Temperature		
Surface area		
Mass		
Reaction vessel type		

2 Research and discuss, in your team, ideas of how to use the film canister and lid as a reaction vessel: good engineers use existing technology and work on improvements, and sometimes completely reinvent the concept.

3 Research rocket design and the size ratios of the dimensions of the rocket.

Design and sustainability

4 Discuss in your group how to make the rocket reaction vessel reusable to reduce waste, and think of methods to limit excess production of carbon dioxide.

5 Sketch multiple possibilities of the rocket design and how the rocket would obtain lift from the reaction vessel, making sure that your rocket is not destroyed through the explosion of the reaction vessel.

6 Discuss the sustainability of your design, and as a group decide on a model V1.0 to build.

7 As a group, use your knowledge of chemical reactions to decide on a combination of tests you will use to launch the rocket in 10 seconds. You may find creating a table a good way to record your tests. You can do this any way you wish.

Mass (g) or surface area (cm^2) of antacid	Volume of water (mL)	Temperature (°C)	Time to launch (s)

Create

8 Break into two groups, a build team and a discovery team. The build team will construct the rocket, and the discovery team will work on discovering the correct amount of antacid and water in the film canister to obtain a time to launch of 10 seconds. The build team needs to ensure the rocket can launch safely, and sustainably.

Evaluate and modify

9 Discuss the different conditions you investigated and what you found out about the effect of temperature, surface area and mass of the antacid tablets on the rocket launch times.

10 Draw a flow chart to show your original design for a 10-second launch and the modifications that followed, ending with your rocket launching at exactly 10 seconds. Highlight the change/ improvement you made at each step along the way.

11 Consider your rocket and the other rockets you observed being launched. Identify and describe the characteristics that make one rocket perform better than another.

12 Discuss what challenges you faced while designing and testing your rocket, and how you overcame these challenges.

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Chapter 8
Rocks

Chapter introduction

In this chapter, you will learn about Earth's crust and the rocks that make up its composition. You will learn about the three types of rock – igneous, metamorphic and sedimentary – and how rocks can change from one form to another, according to the rock cycle. You will also learn about the mining industry and how resources contained in rocks are extracted to make useful materials, such as metals for technology, and glass and cement for building.

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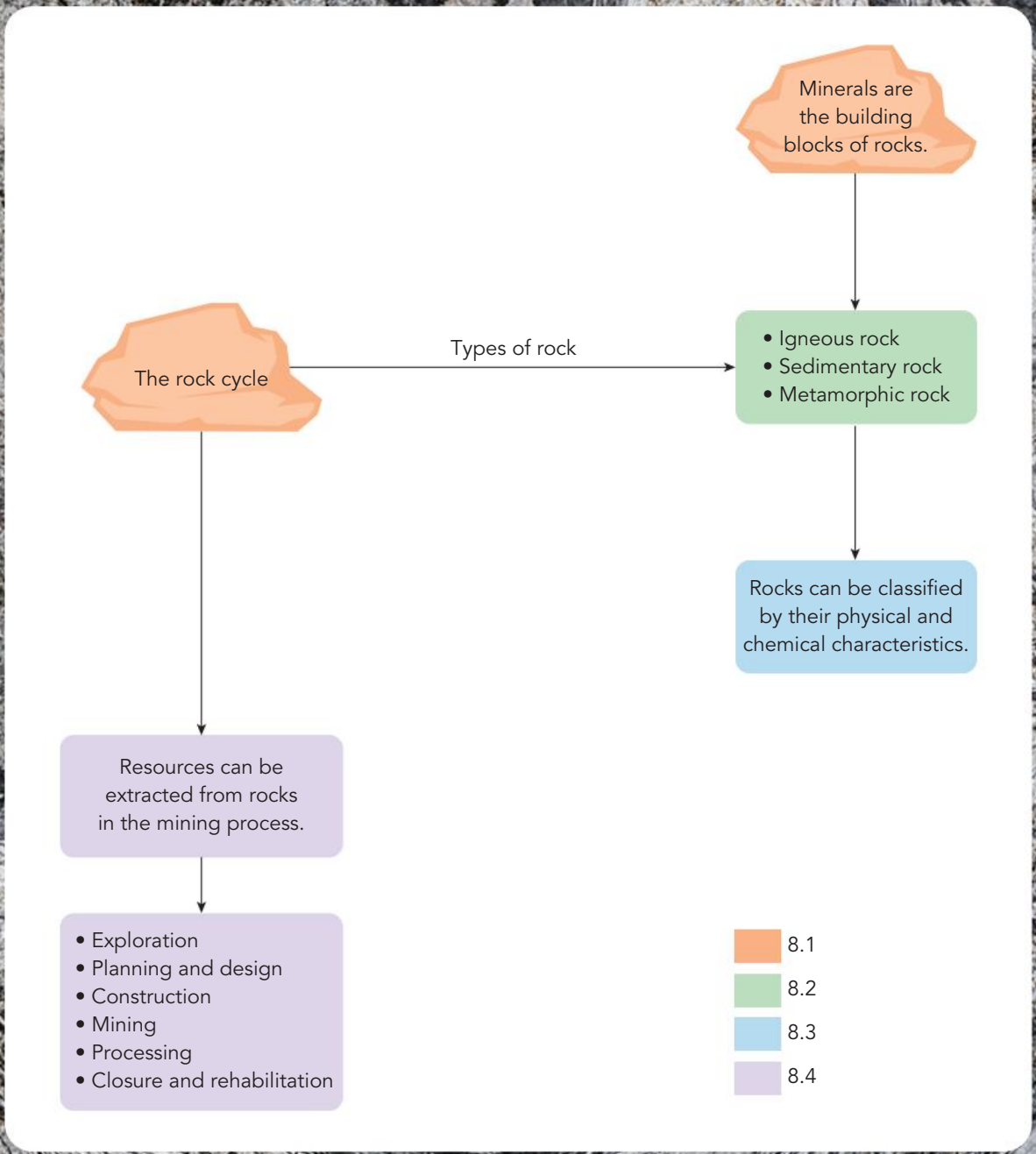
Chapter map



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8.1 Rock formation

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to define igneous, sedimentary and metamorphic rocks.
2 To be able to label the different layers of Earth.
3 To be able to describe the processes occurring in the rock cycle.
4 To be able to explain the role of weathering and erosion in the rock cycle.

rock
solid material forming Earth's crust; rocks are formed as part of the rock cycle

mineral
a chemical substance that is formed naturally in the ground

igneous
describes rocks made from lava on the surface or magma below the surface

sedimentary
describes rocks made from deposited materials that are the products of weathering and erosion

metamorphic
describes rocks that are changed by exposure to high temperature, pressure or both

crystal
a mineral in which the atoms are arranged in an ordered way to form a geometric shape

Rocks and minerals

Rocks are a naturally occurring substance made up of one or more **minerals**. Minerals are considered to be the building blocks of rocks, and each mineral has a specific chemical structure. Rocks can be:

- **igneous** – formed from molten rock
- **sedimentary** – formed from the products of erosion
- **metamorphic** – altered by heat and pressure.

A mineralogist is a person who studies minerals. It can be an interesting job, because there are more than 5000 minerals to study. Some minerals are found in the form of **crystals** and this can be an easy way to identify them.

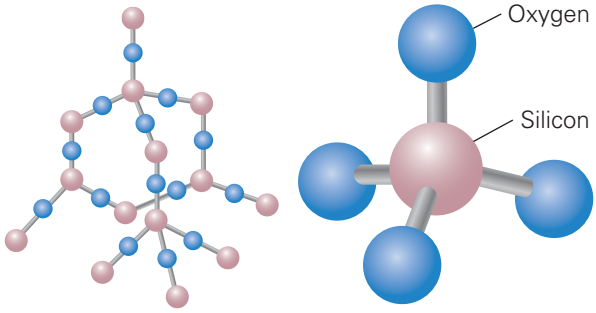

Figure 8.1 Quartz (top) is a mineral made of silicon and oxygen atoms arranged in a continuous framework.

Figure 8.2 Granite is an igneous rock, usually made up of three or more minerals.

Figure 8.3 Limestone is a sedimentary rock composed mainly of mineral calcite (calcium carbonate).

Figure 8.4 Gneiss is a metamorphic rock commonly composed of quartz, potassium feldspar and sodium feldspar.

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Did you know? 8.1

Minerals include gemstones that are used in jewellery. Most gemstones are brightly coloured or transparent crystals. For example, diamond is a crystal made from carbon. Carbon is the same chemical element that is in graphite, which is used to make pencil leads.

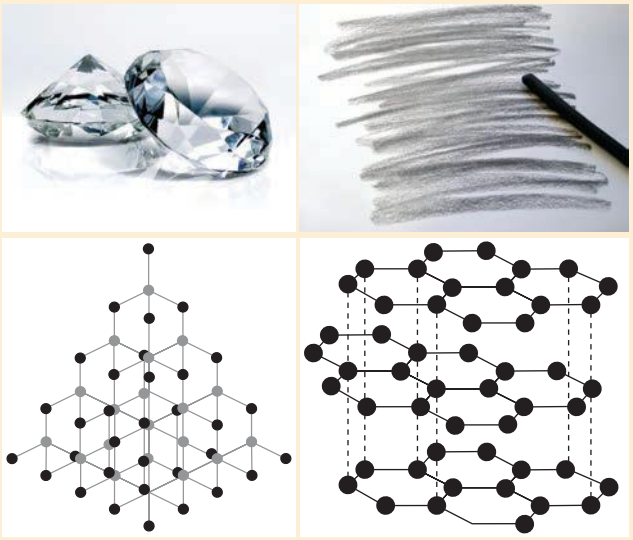

Figure 8.5 Diamond (left) and graphite (right) are both made of carbon atoms. The arrangement of the atoms makes a big difference to their properties.

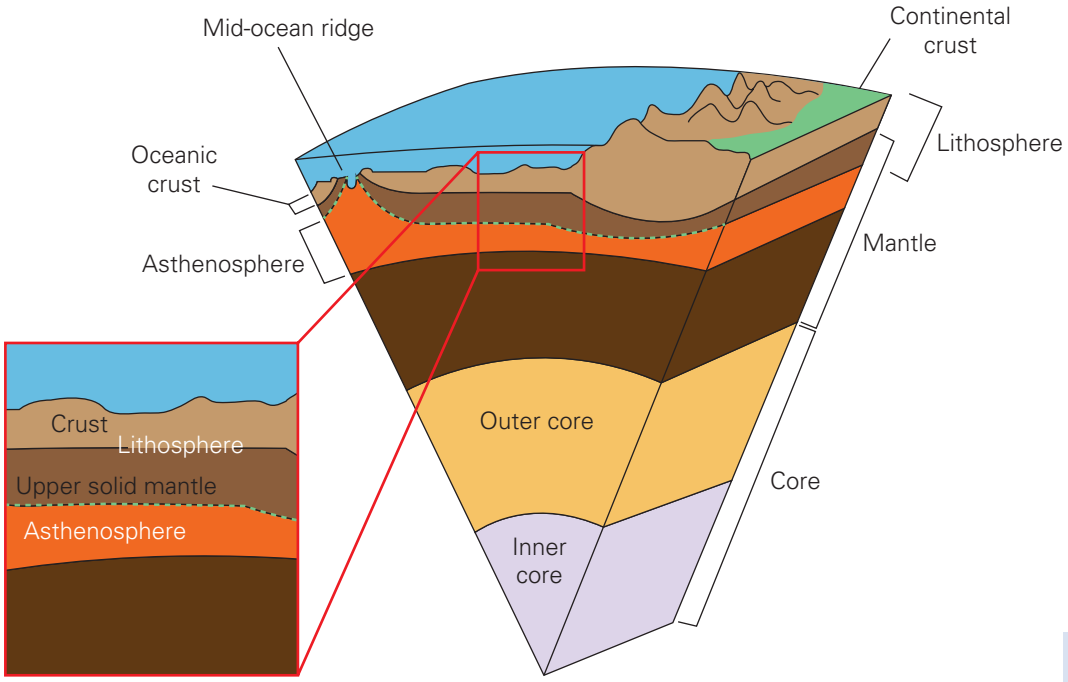

Figure 8.6 Earth is composed of several layers.

Rocks and Earth

The **inner core** of Earth is currently thought to be mostly solid iron, while the **outer core** is made of liquid iron and nickel. Surrounding the outer core is the **mantle**, comprising mostly solid and semi-molten rock. Earth's outer layer is the solid **crust**. Rocks are formed and re-formed in the **lithosphere**, which includes the crust and the uppermost mantle.

Earth's mass is predominantly made up of iron, then oxygen, silicon and magnesium. Small amounts of all the other elements can also be found. This is what makes geology (the study of the rocks and similar substances that make up Earth's surface) fascinating, as each type of rock contains different components and has different properties.

inner core
the solid centre of Earth; probably made of iron

outer core
the liquid layer surrounding the inner core of Earth; probably made of liquid iron

mantle
the layer of solid and semi-molten rock that surrounds the outer core and extends up to Earth's crust

crust
the solid outer layer of Earth; on average, continental crust is 35 km thick and oceanic crust is 10 km thick

lithosphere
the solid outer layer of Earth; includes the crust and uppermost mantle

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Element	% of Earth's mass
Iron	35
Oxygen	30
Silicon	15
Magnesium	13

Table 8.1 The four elements that make up most of Earth's mass

Quick check 8.1

1. Define and distinguish between rocks and minerals.
2. Where are rocks formed in Earth?
3. What elements make up most of Earth's mass?

geology
the study of the rocks and similar substances that make up Earth and other planetary objects

deep time
the idea first suggested by James Hutton that Earth is very old

rock cycle
the constant process of change that rocks go through, between igneous, metamorphic and sedimentary forms

magma
molten rock under Earth's surface

lava
molten rock from inside Earth (called magma) that has reached the surface

The rock cycle

James Hutton, the founder of modern **geology**, tried to explain why the surface of Earth is so complex. He came up with two conclusions.

- Earth is very old – Hutton called this **deep time**.
- Earth's surface has been constantly changing throughout its history. The rock component changes constantly because of some key processes, which together are called the **rock cycle**.

Melting and cooling

As you can see in Figure 8.7, the melting of rock to form magma (molten rock), and then the cooling of that magma, results in the formation of igneous rock. The process of melting takes place beneath Earth's crust at temperatures that can be as low as 500°C and as high as 1600°C. The process of cooling can happen below or above Earth's surface. An interesting characteristic of igneous rocks is that the minerals in them may form crystals. This is because, when **magma** cools, crystallisation occurs. Below Earth's surface, magma takes a long time to cool, and the crystals formed in it are large. Magma that reaches Earth's surface is called **lava**. Because lava cools more quickly, the crystals formed are small and may even be microscopic. You will learn more about igneous rocks in Section 8.2.

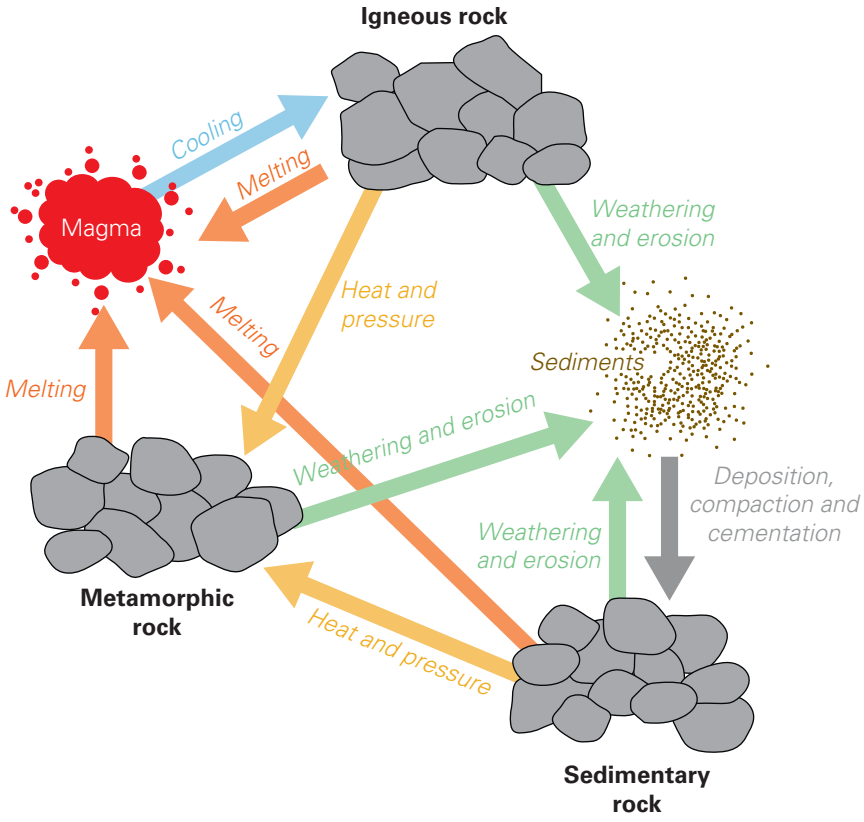

Figure 8.7 In the rock cycle, the three types of rock can change, through the action of weathering and erosion, deposition, compaction and cementation, melting and cooling, and heat and pressure.

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Did you know? 8.2

'Igneous' and 'ignite' come from the same Latin word, *ignis*, which means 'fire'. This is an easy way to remember that igneous rocks are formed from hot magma.

Figure 8.8 'Igneous' comes from a Latin word meaning 'fire'.

Explore! 8.1

What is a meteorite?

From time to time, rocks arrive on Earth from space, in the form of **meteorites** that land on the surface. Conduct research to answer the following questions.

meteorite
a rock from space (meteor) that has entered the atmosphere as a 'shooting star' and reached the ground

Figure 8.9 An iron meteorite that landed on Earth from space

1. What is the composition of meteorites?
2. How does a meteorite end up on Earth?
3. Propose whether or not meteorites pose a threat to life on Earth. Justify your argument using examples of meteorites that have landed on Earth, and their impact.

Try this 8.1

Making crystals

You will need the following materials:

- soluble crystals such as copper sulfate, sugar or salt
- beaker
- warm water
- 2 Petri dishes.

Figure 8.10 Copper sulfate crystals

Stir the crystals in the water until they dissolve. Keep adding crystals until no more can be dissolved – this will give you a concentrated solution. Filter the solution to remove any solids. Put the resulting liquid into two Petri dishes and place one in a hot sunny place and the other in a dark cupboard at room temperature. Leave for a few days. The water will evaporate and you should see crystals form. The liquid placed in direct sunlight will evaporate quickly, leading to small crystals being formed. The liquid placed in the cupboard will evaporate more slowly and the crystals should be larger. This same process takes place if a liquid solidifies to form crystals – the slower it cools, the larger the crystals that form.

Use your observations to explain how the process of melting and cooling forms rocks. Draw on the similarities between this activity and the process of igneous rock formation.

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Quick check 8.2

1 What are the three types of rocks formed in the rock cycle?
2 What roles do melting and cooling play in the rock cycle?

Weathering

Weathering occurs when exposed rocks are broken down – for example, by ocean waves hitting a cliff face. Weathering breaks up large rocks into small particles called **sediments**. It includes physical weathering, chemical weathering and biological weathering.

Physical weathering is the breaking down of rocks into smaller particles by temperature, pressure or weather – for example, by extreme temperatures, high wind, snow, hail, rain and flooding. Ice is a very powerful agent in the weathering process, because of a process known as 'freeze–thaw action' (Figure 8.11). In this process, water enters a crack in a rock and freezes. As it freezes, it expands with great force and widens the crack. This can happen many times, widening the crack slowly until eventually the rock breaks apart.

sediments
small particles, such as sand or stones, that slowly form a layer of rock

physical weathering
the breaking down of rocks into smaller particles by contact with other rocks, wind, water or ice

chemical weathering
the disintegration of rocks caused by acidic rainwater

karst
an area of land formed of rock such as limestone that is worn away by water to make caves and other formations

Chemical weathering occurs when rocks are slowly dissolved by rainwater that contains substances that make it slightly acidic. Chemical weathering is more effective on limestone and silicon compounds, as these will react with the acid in the water. Over millions of years, rainwater that seeps underground in a limestone area can form vast underground caves, as well as long underground rivers. Limestone caves often contain stalactites hanging from the roof and stalagmites on the ground; when these meet, they form columns. Limestone caves such as the Lake Cave in Margaret River (see Figure 8.12) are often developed as tourist attractions because of the beautiful limestone features they contain.

When limestone contains underground rivers, it can give a very characteristic landform called a **karst** landscape (see Figure 8.13 on the following page), which has caves, sinkholes, limestone outcrops and dry valleys with no water because the river that formed them has gone underground. The Nullarbor Plain between South Australia and Western Australia is the world's largest karst landscape.

Figure 8.11 A rock split in two by freeze–thaw action

Figure 8.12 Stalactites in Lake Cave, Margaret River, Western Australia

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Figure 8.13 The entrance to a cave in a typical karst landscape. Rainwater enters the cave and can travel underground for many kilometres.

Did you know? 8.3

A scientist who studies caves is called a speleologist, but a person who explores caves as a pastime is called a 'caver' or a 'spelunker'.

Figure 8.14 Cavers explore underground cave systems, looking for amazing rock formations like this.

Science as a human endeavour 8.1

Fremantle Round House

The Fremantle Round House was the first permanent building constructed in Western Australia under European settlement in 1830–31. It was built for use as a prison and constructed from locally sourced sedimentary rock, limestone. This sedimentary rock is natural to the Western Australian coastline, as a result of millions of years of coastal erosion.

Figure 8.15 The Fremantle Round House

biological weathering the disintegration of rocks that is caused by living things

Biological weathering occurs when rock is broken down into smaller particles by living things. For example, human feet can wear dips into the tops of stone steps (see Figure 8.16), plant roots grow into small cracks in rocks and make the cracks bigger, and people who do not stay on pathways in national parks damage the vegetation, which can eventually lead to erosion. Moreover, microorganisms often consume minerals from rocks, which weakens the host material and can lead to further erosion by wind and water.

Figure 8.16 These steps have been 'weathered' by people walking on them. The particles of stone have been washed away or eroded by the rain.

Quick check 8.3

Distinguish between the three types of weathering: physical, chemical and biological.

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VIDEO
Australian landmarks

Erosion

Erosion occurs when rock that has been broken loose by weathering is transported or moved to a new location. It includes rocks or rock particles falling due to gravity, being carried away in the wind, or moved by waves, ocean currents, running water or even ice in a glacier.

erosion
the transport of rocks from one place to another as a result of weathering

The size of particle that can be carried is highly dependent on the way it is transported. Only small particles, such as sand, can be blown by the wind, but pebbles and even boulders can be transported in rivers and oceans. The size of particle that can be moved depends on the speed of the wind or water – for example, mud can be carried by slow-moving rivers, sand requires faster water, and stones and boulders can only be transported by a river in flood. Glaciers can carry giant boulders trapped in the ice for many kilometres. They are also powerful weathering agents, because the ice leaves a smooth surface as it passes over the bedrock.

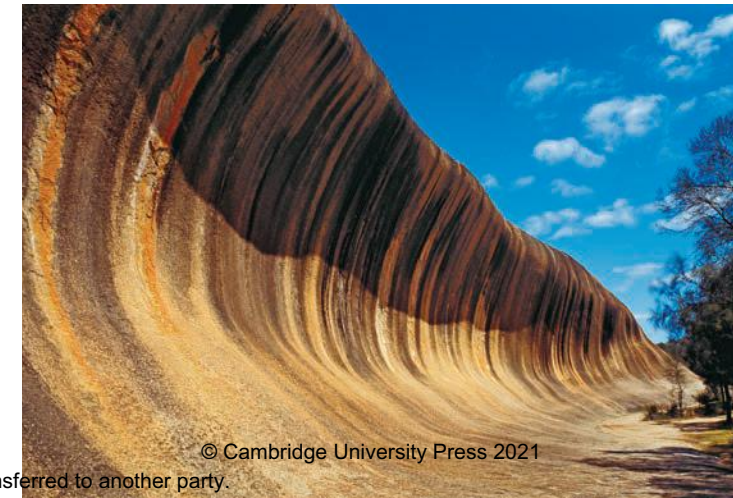
During the ice age, the world, including Australia, was very different. Large quantities of water were trapped in giant ice sheets that spread out from the poles and covered much of Europe and North America. Because of this, the sea level was much lower and it was possible to walk on land from Victoria to Tasmania and even from Perth to Rottnest Island. Although neither Australia nor Tasmania was covered in an ice sheet, glaciers formed on Cradle Mountain in Tasmania and the surrounding areas. The landscape was transformed by the ice moving over the rocks, leaving the characteristic smooth surface.

Figure 8.17 The Twelve Apostles, off the shore of the Port Campbell National Park in Victoria. These limestone stacks were formed on the seabed. Today the seabed has been raised and the limestone is being weathered and eroded by the ocean waves.

Figure 8.18 Dove Lake on Cradle Mountain in Tasmania. The smooth appearance of the rocks is due to the action of glaciers 20 000 years ago.

The profile of Wave Rock in Western Australia (see Figure 8.19) demonstrates the erosive power of wind. Sand grains carried by wind have worn down this rock and carried away the debris. Initially, it was chemical weathering (vegetation breaking down) that weakened the rock, and then the wind-borne sand started its work at the weakened lower levels of rock. Eventually a wave-like shape formed.

Figure 8.19 Wave Rock in Western Australia is made of granite that is more than two billion years old.



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Try this 8.2

Erosion by wind

You will need the following materials:

- Petri dish
- water
- dry sand
- 5 pebbles of various sizes
- drinking straw
- newspaper.

Place the Petri dish on the edge of the newspaper. Moisten the bottom of the Petri dish with just a little bit of water, before filling it with sand. Place five pebbles on top of the sand and spread them out evenly. Gently blow through the straw, away from the edge of the newspaper, so the sand lands on the newspaper and does not make a mess.

What do you observe? Does the sand blow away more from under the pebbles or around the pebbles?

Deposition, compaction and cementation

deposition
a process that occurs when eroded particles stop moving and build up to form sedimentary rocks

compaction
the process of parts becoming closer together, taking up very little space

cementation
the sticking together of sediment

Particles or sediments that are eroded come to rest when the wind or water moves more slowly or the ice melts. Eventually, the particles are dropped, in a process called **deposition**. Often deposition occurs on ocean beds or lake beds. The particles are often deposited in visible layers, which become **compacted** or compressed by the weight of the layers above, and **cemented** together. These processes finally form sedimentary rocks. Sometimes animal and plant remains are mixed in with the sediments and preserved as **fossils**. On the seabed, this process can continue in the same place for millions of years and can create layers of sediment many metres high.

fossil
the remains, shape or trace of a bone, shell, microbe, plant or animal that has been preserved in rock for a very long time

Figure 8.20 Sedimentary rocks are very common, covering more than 70% of Earth's surface. Some contain fossils that are billions of years old. Note the different layers of sediment, all cemented together.

Quick check 8.4

1. Distinguish between weathering and erosion.
2. Explain the processes of deposition, compaction and cementation.

Practical 8.1

Deposits on a riverbed

Aim

To model and observe how sediments are deposited on a riverbed

Materials

- soil
- sand
- gravel
- water
- jar with lid

Method

1. Add soil, sand and gravel to a jar, and mix them. Fill the jar to halfway.
2. Add water. Fill the jar ¾ full and put the lid on.
3. Make sure the lid is tight, and shake the jar for one minute. Predict how the particles will settle.
4. Observe how the particles settle. Time how long it takes for each layer to form.

Results

Draw a diagram representing the different layers, and label them.

Discussion

1. Do the larger particles end up on the top layer or the bottom layer?
2. How long does each layer take to settle? Can you explain why this occurred?

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Heat and pressure

Rocks that are deep underground may be exposed to extreme pressure, high temperature or both. This can change the nature of the rock, often making it harder and denser. These processes form metamorphic rocks. Mudstone is a sedimentary rock made from mud. When it is exposed to high pressure and temperature it turns into slate, a metamorphic rock. If the temperature and pressure are increased again, it turns into schist (Figure 8.22), another type of metamorphic rock.

Figure 8.21 Slate is a metamorphic rock formed when mudstone is subjected to high pressure and temperature.

Figure 8.22 Pieces of schist, formed when slate is subjected to high temperature and pressure

Try this 8.3

Metamorphic pasta

You will need the following materials:

- 2 textbooks
- penne pasta (or any long type of pasta).

Scatter the pasta around in a random manner on a flat surface, between the two books, as shown in Figure 8.23. Keeping the book spines parallel to each other, slowly bring the books together, with the pasta pieces in between. As the pasta pieces are compressed, they should align. How does this demonstrate the way in which metamorphic rock is formed?

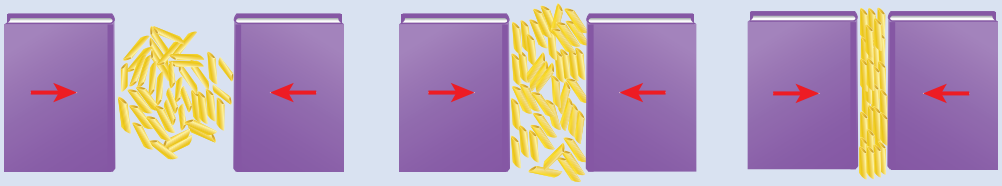

Figure 8.23 As you compress the pasta, the pieces align.

Quick check 8.5

1 List the three different types of rock.
2 Distinguish between the three kinds of rock in terms of how they are formed.

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Energy sources for the rock cycle

It takes a lot of energy to move rocks around, break them up, heat them until they melt or change them physically or chemically.

Type of rock	Source of energy	Details
Igneous Metamorphic	Earth's formation and elements that are **radioactive**	When Earth was formed, it contained radioactive atoms left over from a supernova. This radioactive energy has been released ever since and is what keeps the centre of Earth at a high temperature.
Sedimentary	Sun	The energy of the Sun indirectly influences weathering by heating the land and oceans, which affects formation of rain and wind as well as waves. It also provides an energy source for plants, which contribute to biological weathering.

radioactivity energy released from the nucleus of an atom when the atom decays; the age of rocks can be determined by measuring the number of radioactive atoms remaining

Table 8.2 The sources of energy required for the formation of the different rock types

Did you know? 8.4

Radiometric dating

Scientists can measure the amounts of different types of radioactive elements in a metamorphic or igneous rock. They compare them to calculate the age of the rock. So far, the oldest rock to be discovered on Earth is a piece of gneiss from Canada that is estimated to be between 3.8 and 4.3 billion years old. It was formed long before there was life on Earth, and it is almost as old as Earth itself.

Figure 8.24 This piece of rock is a sample of Acasta gneiss from Canada, the oldest body of rock yet discovered on Earth.

Try this 8.4

Rock cycle poster

Make a poster of the rock cycle and annotate it with details of the different processes you have learned about in this section. You will add to this poster in the next section, so make sure you leave space around the outside for extra information about the types of rocks.

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Section 8.1 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **Recall** the name of the layer on Earth in which rocks are formed and re-formed

2 In Scotland, James Hutton saw igneous rock with millions of years' worth of sedimentary rock lying on top of it. **Recall** two conclusions that Hutton published after seeing this.

3 **Name** the most common type of rock on Earth's surface.

Understanding

4 Copy the image of the rock cycle in Figure 8.25 and label the missing processes. Then **explain** each of the processes.

5 **Summarise** how the different types of rock in Question **4** are formed.

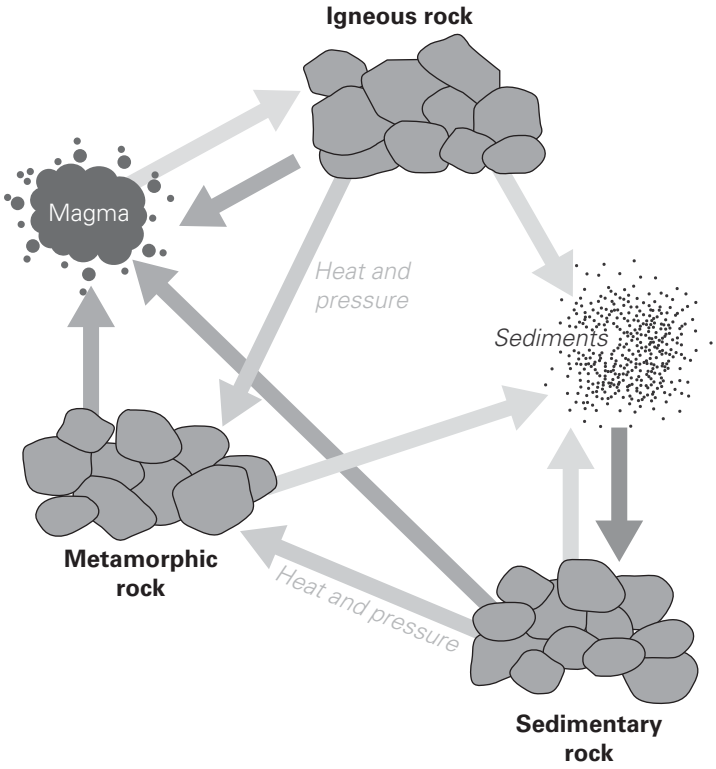

Figure 8.25 The rock cycle

Applying

6 **Contrast** rocks, minerals and crystals.

7 Make use of what you have learned about weathering to **identify** one reason why weathering is important to the rock cycle, and one reason why we might want to stop weathering.

8 Imagine that Earth's core suddenly lost its thermal energy. **Identify** which type(s) of rock formation would be affected and why.

Analysing

9 Examine Figure 8.26 and **decide** whether it is a mineral or a rock. Justify your answer.

Figure 8.26 Is this a mineral or a rock?

Evaluating

10 'Once igneous rocks are formed, the only physical change they can experience is being broken down into smaller pieces until they are melted again.' **Discuss** whether you agree with this statement and provide your reasoning.

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8.2 Types of rocks

Learning goal

1 To explore the formation of igneous, sedimentary and metamorphic rocks.

Igneous rocks

Beneath Earth's thin outer crust is molten and semi-molten rock, called magma. When the surface crust becomes fractured, thin or weakened, molten magma can reach the surface and a volcano is formed. You may recall from Section 8.1 that igneous rocks are formed when lava cools quickly after a volcanic eruption, sometimes within minutes, or when magma cools and solidifies slowly underground in a magma chamber after it has been pushed close to the surface.

Figure 8.27 Igneous rock and lava in Hawaii

The crystals within igneous rocks can be used to identify those rocks. The crystals may be anything from several centimetres long to visible only with a microscope. The size of the crystal is a clue to how long the igneous rock took to cool and, hence, how close to the surface the rock was formed. When magma breaks through the crust and flows on the surface, it is called lava. The lava solidifies to form **extrusive** igneous rocks. Basalt, an igneous rock, has the interesting property of forming large hexagonal structures as it cools. Pumice, also an extrusive igneous rock, floats on water!

extrusive
describes igneous rocks formed on Earth's surface; also called volcanic rocks

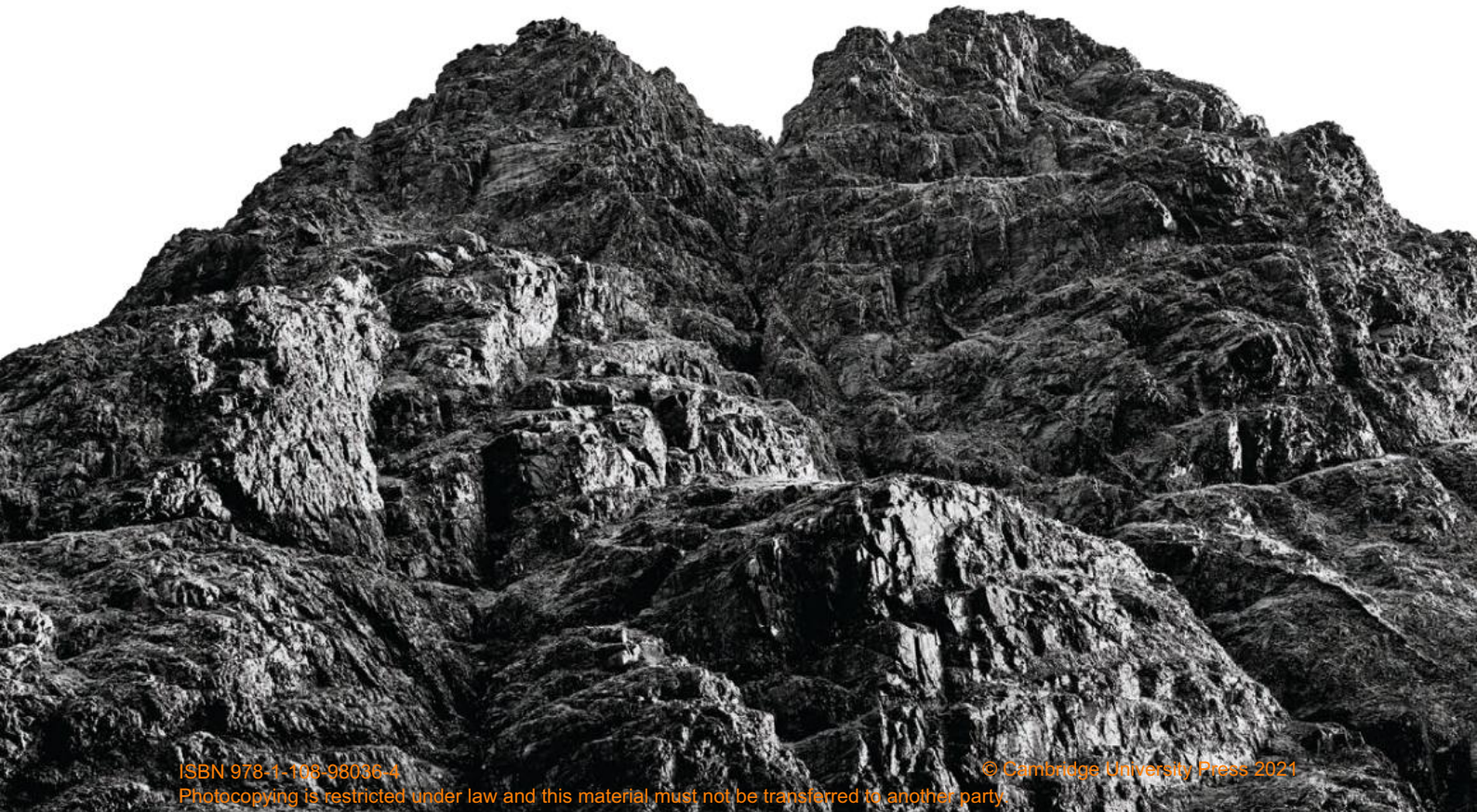

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Figure 8.28 The Bunbury basalt hexagonal pillars are an example of magma flowing onto the surface, solidifying and forming igneous rock more than 130 million years ago.

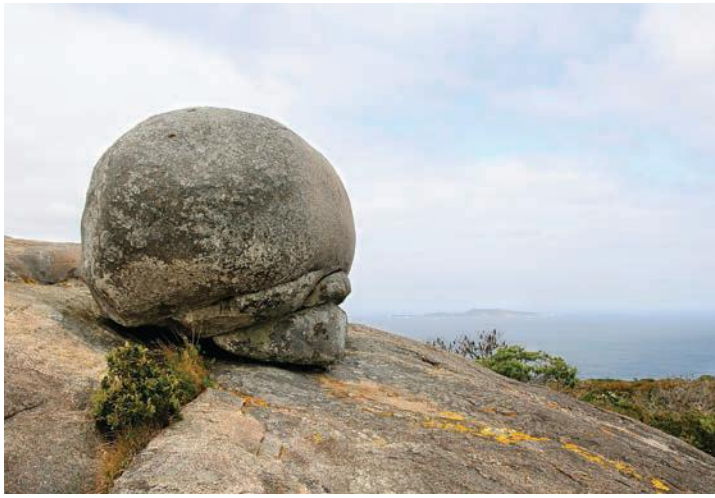

Figure 8.29 Bowl Rock at Stony Hill in the Torndirrup National Park, Western Australia. The rock is made of granite, an intrusive igneous rock.

Another way for molten magma to form rocks is if it stops and cools before it gets to the surface, and solidifies underground. This rock will cool more slowly and so there is more time for crystals to grow, which means the individual crystals are bigger. Igneous rock formed in this way is called **intrusive** or plutonic. Although this rock is hidden when it is formed, it can be exposed later when the layers above have been eroded. Granite is an example of a plutonic igneous rock formed beneath the surface of a volcano. This stone is often used to make kitchen benchtops.

intrusive
describes igneous rocks formed underground; also called plutonic rocks

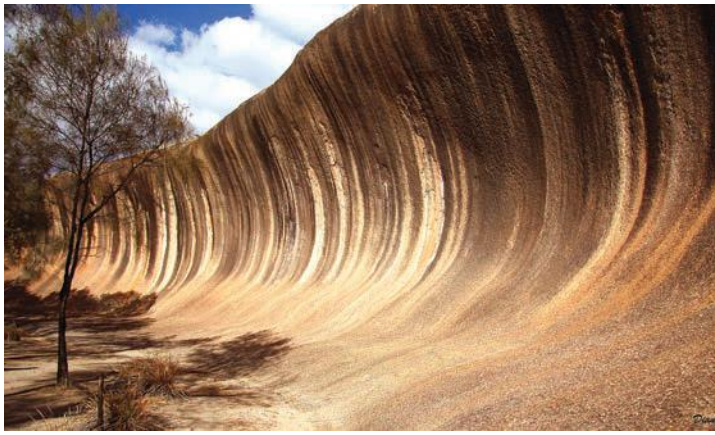

Figure 8.30 Granite has a distinctive mosaic of crystals as can be seen in the granite outcrop of Wave Rock, near Hyden, Western Australia.

Did you know? 8.5

The Darling Range

The Darling Range is an escarpment containing underlying plutonic igneous rock, granite. After years of erosion, this granite is now exposed in parts of the range, particularly where water flows. An example is the exposed granite around Serpentine Falls shown in Figure 8.31.

Figure 8.31 Water falling down granite rocks at Serpentine National Park, Western Australia

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Quick check 8.6

1 List some examples of igneous rocks.
2 Describe how intrusive and extrusive igneous rocks are formed.
3 Describe the relationship between crystal size and the time the crystal takes to form.

Practical 8.2: Investigation

Crystals and cooling rate

Aim

To determine the effect that cooling rate has on crystal size formation

Planning

1 Write a summary of the background information about crystal growth and the factors that can affect it.
2 Write a specific and relevant research question for your investigation.
3 Identify the independent, dependent and controlled variables.
4 Write a hypothesis for your investigation.
5 Write a risk assessment for your investigation.

Materials

- saturated potassium nitrate or magnesium sulfate
- water
- test tubes
- beakers
- ice
- hand lens

Method

Using the materials provided, design an experiment to investigate how cooling rate affects the size of crystals of saturated potassium nitrate or magnesium sulfate.

Hint: To produce crystals, you need to use a saturated solution of potassium nitrate or magnesium sulfate.

Results

Record your results. Consider different ways to present your results.

Discussion

1 Describe any patterns, trends or relationships in your results.
2 Explain any trends you have identified.
3 Identify any limitations in your investigation.
4 Suggest some improvements for this experiment.

Conclusion

Draw a conclusion from this experiment, using data to support your statement.

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Sedimentary rocks

Earth's surface is covered partly by water and partly by land. As described in Section 8.1, weathering from waves, flowing water, wind, frost, rain, ice, chemicals and even living organisms, can break down the surface of exposed rocks. The particles of weathered rock are eroded: carried away by water, gravity, wind or ice. Eventually the particles or sediments are deposited, compacted and cemented together, and sedimentary rocks are formed. Sedimentary rocks take thousands to millions of years to form.

Uluru is an example of sedimentary rock that you are probably very familiar with. Uluru is made of sandstone, but the sedimentary layers are almost vertical (Figure 8.32). This is evidence that Earth is very old. The rock that forms Uluru would originally have been horizontal, but over time the movement of Earth's crust tilted it. The top of the rock has been weathered and eroded, until today just the end is showing.

Figure 8.32 Uluru is an ancient sedimentary rock tilted by nearly 90 degrees by the movement of Earth's crust.

The type of sedimentary rock formed depends on the particles that are deposited. Chalk is a common sedimentary rock and is formed from the remains of sea creatures whose bodies fell to the ocean floor. Chalk is made of calcium carbonate and can be identified by a simple test: when acid is placed on the surface, bubbles form. Chalk often contains fossils, and the age of the chalk can be determined from the fossils it contains.

Sea creatures that had tiny skeletons made of carbonates formed beds of chalk. Often gaps in the chalk filled with dissolved silica (also from sea creatures) formed flint nodules. Flint is a type of chert and was one of the first substances used to make tools (Figure 8.33).

Figure 8.33 A chert nodule, found in chalk. Chert is also a sedimentary rock.

Sand made of quartz is another familiar material that forms sedimentary rocks. Sand is commonly found all over the world on beaches, and at the bottom of rivers, lakes and the sea. The sedimentary rock formed from sand is called sandstone. It is a common building material because it is relatively easy to cut and is strong.

Mud sediment forms mudstone and shale. It is not used extensively for building because it breaks easily. However, mudstone turns into slate at high

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Figure 8.34 The Pinnacles are weathered rock spires made of the sedimentary rock limestone. These strange rock formations are a main attraction of the Nambung National Park near Cervantes.

Figure 8.35 Fossilised leaves in mudstone

temperature and pressure, and slate is used as a roofing material in some parts of the world. Half of the sedimentary rocks on Earth are made of mudstone or similar.

Sedimentary rock formed from small stones is called either **conglomerate** or **breccia**. Conglomerate is formed from rounded stones, whereas breccia consists of angular stones.

conglomerate
sedimentary rock composed of rounded rock fragments larger than 2 millimetres

breccia
sedimentary rock composed of angular broken pieces of rock larger than 2 millimetres

Figure 8.36 Sedimentary rock made from rounded pebbles is called conglomerate.

Explore! 8.2

How coal is made

Organic material from living creatures can also form sedimentary layers. Layers of plant material form coal, while oil was formed mostly from plankton. Although oil is a liquid, it is still sedimentary.

Use your preferred search engine to research the following questions.

1 List three different uses for coal.
2 Coal is a non-renewable resource. Are there any alternatives to coal for the uses you listed in Question **1**?

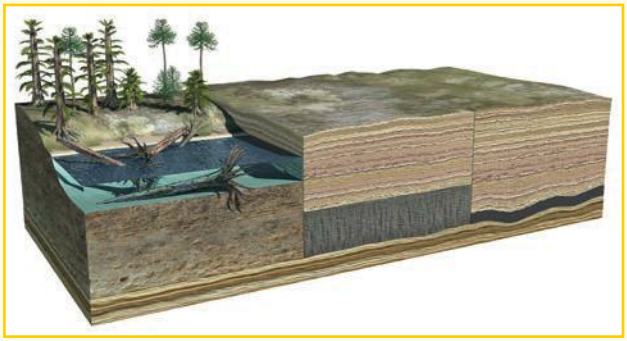

Figure 8.37 How coal is formed. Left: In the Carboniferous Period, trees died and formed a layer of wood. Middle: The wood was compressed by the layers of sediment above. Right: The compressed wood was transformed by heat and pressure into coal.

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Did you know? 8.6

Shell Beach

While most beaches are made of quartz sand, Shell Beach, south of Denham in Western Australia's Shark Bay, consists entirely of shells. This extremely rare type of beach is due to the booming population of molluscs, which have no known predators in the highly saline waters of the beach. When the molluscs die, their shells wash ashore, and over thousands of years the shells have accumulated!

Figure 8.38 Shell Beach, Denham, Western Australia

Fossils

The bodies of different organisms may be deposited in sediment and form part of the sedimentary rock – this is how they become fossils. Fossils can include footprints of animals or faeces (coprolites). Generally, fossils are only formed in rocks that start as sedimentary rocks. But rocks are always changing, and if the rock is later subjected to intense temperature or pressure, it may become metamorphic without the fossil being destroyed.

Fossils can be used to trace the history of life on Earth. Because sedimentary rocks form slowly, the passage of time is traced in their layers, with the oldest rocks at the bottom. Fossils found in the same layer must have lived at the same time in the same location, and so were part of the same ecosystem. Fossils found in different layers must have lived at different times, with newer fossils being found above older fossils. Evidence of extinction events can be seen when a certain type of fossil suddenly disappears. For example, by studying sedimentary rocks, it is known that all the dinosaurs became extinct at the same time, about 60 million years ago.

Explore! 8.3

Fossil formation

Conduct research to find out about the process of fossilisation.

1. Not all living things become fossils. Describe the conditions necessary for fossils to form.
2. Evaluate some things that scientists have learned from fossils.

Types of fossils

There are various types of fossils, depending on how the impression was formed. Some common types are listed in Table 8.3.

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Fossil type	Details	Image
Mould	When a plant or animal decays in sediment, it may leave a hollow impression of itself.	The mould of an ammonite
Cast	When an animal or plant dies, its body creates a space in the sediment. This gap fills with minerals, such as silica, over time and the shape of the animal is preserved as rock.	A fossilised trilobite, an extinct creature that once dominated life on Earth
Imprint	These fossils leave behind a two-dimensional (flat) print.	Leaves are pressed flat by the pressure in the sedimentary layers and all that is left is a dark area, like a shadow.
Whole body	This is the most common type of fossil. It consists of parts of the remains of living things, mainly the hard parts, e.g. teeth, shells, bones.	Whole body fossils are also found intact in a medium such as amber (tree resin that has become fossilised).
Indirect or trace	These fossils do not consist of part of the organism. They are indirect records of biological activities, such as footprints, teeth marks or burrow marks.	From a set of footprints, scientists can tell how fast the animal was moving, whether it was solitary or moved in groups, and how heavy it was. One of the most famous examples of this is at Lark Quarry, near Winton, Queensland.

Table 8.3 Five common types of fossils

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Quick check 8.7

1 Recall how sedimentary rocks are formed.
2 List some examples of sedimentary rocks.
3 Distinguish between the five types of fossils discussed in this section.

Science as a human endeavour 8.2

How did it become extinct?

The fossil record is the history of life as it is seen from fossils. It can tell us about groups of animals that are extinct, such as dinosaurs, and how animals and plants relate to each other. Unfortunately, the fossil record is incomplete because, as you investigated in Explore! 8.3, specific conditions are required for fossilisation to take place. Not all dead things become fossils.

Interpretation of the fossil record has always presented difficulties for paleontologists (scientists who study fossils). For example, for many years it was believed that the extinction of dinosaurs was gradual, but in 1980 evidence was found of a meteor impact that is now thought to have caused the mass extinction. Also, disappearance from the fossil record does not always mean that a species is extinct; there may be many other reasons for its absence from the record.

Figure 8.39 Dinosaur tracks fossilised on the ground on the edge overlooking Bull Canyon. 66 million years ago, a huge celestial object struck off the coast of what is now Mexico, triggering a catastrophic cooling period that eventually wiped out three-quarters of life on Earth, including the dinosaurs.

Paleontologists Steven Holland and Mark Patzkowsky designed computer models to aid the study of mass extinction, and are using the models to more accurately decipher the fossil record. Their work is still in progress; however, it provides an initial guideline for analysis and assessment of extinction events.

Metamorphic rocks

The third type of rock in the rock cycle is metamorphic rock. Recall that metamorphic rocks are either igneous or sedimentary rocks that have been irreversibly changed by being subjected to high temperature or pressure. Earth's crust is very thin compared to Earth's size, and rocks that lie beneath the surface can be subject to high pressure and temperature. The crystals inside these rocks may become deformed and the chemical nature of the rock may change. Rocks that have been changed into metamorphic rock tend to be denser and harder than before. Layers may become twisted when rocks are metamorphosed.

Figure 8.40 Folded layers are a feature of metamorphic rock.

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Over millions of years, buried metamorphic rocks can eventually make their way to the surface again. These rocks are found all over the world and they constitute about 10% of Earth's surface. Because of their toughness, they are often used for building materials. For example, if limestone (sedimentary) is subjected to high pressure and temperature, it turns into marble (metamorphic). Marble is slightly denser and harder than limestone. Can you think of what marble is used for? Other common metamorphic rocks are slate, which is metamorphosed shale (sedimentary), and quartzite, which is metamorphosed sandstone (sedimentary).

VIDEO
Describe the three rock types

Figure 8.41 Left: Limestone is a sedimentary rock. Right: Marble is a metamorphic form of limestone.

Explore! 8.4

Stone tools

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples have developed techniques of crafting stone tools for various purposes. Stone tools are used in day-to-day life for activities such as hunting, harvesting and preparing. The techniques involved in creating stone tools require knowledge from the various disciplines of science. Conduct research to investigate the following questions.

1. Explain how having a knowledge of the geological, biological, chemical and physical sciences helps to create stone tools that are fit for the intended purpose.
2. Determine the rock type for the following rock uses in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures.
   a. The use of basalt as a stone tool
   b. The use of slate as a food grinding tool
3. Examples of techniques and methods are knapping, lithic reduction, percussion flaking, pressure flaking and grinding. Describe what each of these processes involves and how they help create stone tools from the raw material.

Figure 8.42 A young girl from Bow River, in the Kimberley region, grinds stone to a powder that will be used for art works.

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Try this 8.5

Heat, changes and pizza

The same level of heat affects different foods to various extents. For example, in the pizza in Figure 8.43, the base mostly appears the same before and after heating. The meat is caramelised. The grated cheese has undergone major physical and chemical change, as it has melted and joined. What does this tell you about the effects of heat on different materials? How can this apply to rock formation?

Figure 8.43 The same level of heat affects different substances differently.

Quick check 8.8

1 Describe how metamorphic rock is formed.
2 Recall some examples of a metamorphic rock and what components make up each one.

Try this 8.6

Summing up

Using the poster you began in Section 8.1, annotate it with information about the three different rock types you have learned about, and their characteristics and examples.

Explore! 8.5

Stone pigments

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples use paints, dyes and pigments originating from plant, animal and mineral sources.

1 Investigate one of these pigments and what rock (sedimentary, metamorphic or igneous) or mineral is used, as well as the chemical and/or physical processes involved:
   - red pigment
   - black pigment
   - white pigment.
2 Fixatives can be applied to paints, enabling the pigment to bind to surfaces and increase the durability of the paintings. Name some fixatives historically used by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.

Figure 8.44 Rock art in the Kimberley region of Western Australia

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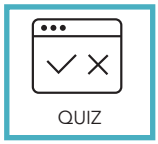
Section 8.2 questions



Remembering

1 **Recall** the name given to rocks formed during a volcanic eruption.
2 **Recall** the name given to rocks formed when sedimentary rocks change due to high temperature and pressure.
3 **Recall** the name of sedimentary rocks formed from small rounded rocks.
4 **Name** five common fossil types.

Understanding

5 **Summarise** how marble is formed and what type of rocks are involved.
6 **Explain** how the vertical layering of the rock forming Uluru indicates that Earth is old.

Figure 8.45 A set of basalt columns at Organ Pipes National Park in Victoria

Applying

7 Figure 8.45 shows the Organ Pipes rock formation at the Organ Pipes National Park in Victoria. Use what you have learned about igneous rocks to **explain** how this formation came to be.
8 Look at igneous rocks in Figure 8.46. Identify which one is intrusive and which is extrusive. **Explain** your reasoning by first recalling the difference between intrusive and extrusive.

Figure 8.46 Which rock is intrusive and which is extrusive?

Analysing

9 **Classify** the types of fossils shown in Figure 8.47.

Figure 8.47 Types of fossils

Evaluating

10 'This rock is clearly seen to be made of distinct and different layers. Therefore, it must be a rock, not a mineral.' **Evaluate** this statement and explain your reasoning.

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8.3 Classifying rocks

WORKSHEET

Learning goal

1 To be able to describe the tests available to classify rocks.

Classifying rocks is a skilled job, but it can be simplified by knowing some of the key characteristics of the different rock types, as well as the tests that can be done on rocks, and by using a dichotomous key.

Figure 8.48 Painite, the world's rarest gem

Are all rocks harmless?

Most rocks are harmless. However, some can pose a hazard and need to be handled with care. Beware of handling some metal **ores**, especially those containing mercury, lead, copper or uranium, and always wash your hands after handling rocks. Asbestos, which contains crystals in the form of fibres, is dangerous and should be avoided.

ore
a rock that can be mined and smelted to produce a metal

Figure 8.49 Asbestos is a dangerous mineral and should not be handled.

Characteristics of the different rock types

Recall that rocks are made of one or more minerals and can be classified into three groups according to how they have been formed.

1 Igneous rocks – formed from cooling magma, either intrusive or extrusive. They can differ in colour and texture. Some have holes because of gas that is trapped as the lava cools. Some are characterised by visible crystals.

Figure 8.50 Examples of igneous rock: pumice (left) and diorite (right)

2 Sedimentary rocks – formed from layers of sediment being compacted and cemented together. They often appear grainy, and may contain fossils. They may be easy to crumble.

Figure 8.51 Examples of sedimentary rock: rock salt (left) and limestone (right)

3 Metamorphic rocks – igneous or sedimentary rocks that have been subjected to high pressure and/or temperature. They often appear layered, and may have crystals arranged in bands.

Figure 8.52 Examples of metamorphic rock: gneiss (left) and granulite (right)

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Explore! 8.6

Classifying rocks

You now know that rocks are made of minerals, there are three groups of rocks, and that rocks come in various shapes, sizes, colours and other characteristics. Research how a rock's characteristics can be used to determine whether the rock is igneous, sedimentary or metamorphic.

1 What are the characteristics of igneous rock?
2 What are the characteristics of sedimentary rock?
3 What are the characteristics of metamorphic rock?

Try this 8.7

Describing rocks

In groups of three or four, look carefully at the rocks your teacher has supplied, and try to separate the rocks into groups. Some characteristics by which you may want to classify your rocks are size, colour, hardness, crystal size and shape.

What tests can help us classify rocks?

Some common types of rocks are easy to identify, but others can be challenging. There are many different tests geologists use to help classify a rock. Each test allows you to identify the presence or absence of a chemical or the physical property of the rock, and this then allows you to classify the rock and name it.

Crystal size and shape

Does the rock contain crystals? Crystals are a feature of rocks, especially igneous rocks. Some rocks, such as quartz or diamond, are one giant crystal. These are known as crystalline rocks. Other rocks are made of tiny crystals or have crystals that can only be seen with a microscope. The shape and size of the crystals can help in identifying the rock. Earlier you learned that fast-cooling magma can produce small crystals in extrusive igneous rock, while slow-cooling magma can produce larger crystals in intrusive igneous rock.

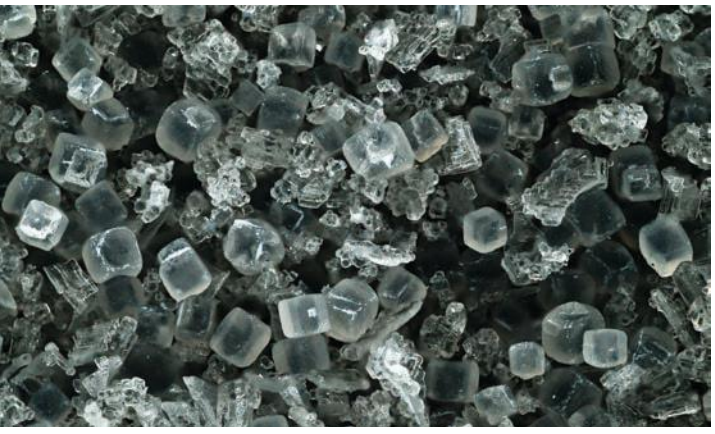

Figure 8.53 Table salt contains tiny crystals that are cubic in shape.

Hardness

How hard is the rock? A useful method to help identify rocks is to determine how hard the rock surface is. In 1812, Friedrich Mohs classified all minerals according to their ability to scratch each other, on a scale from 1 to 10.

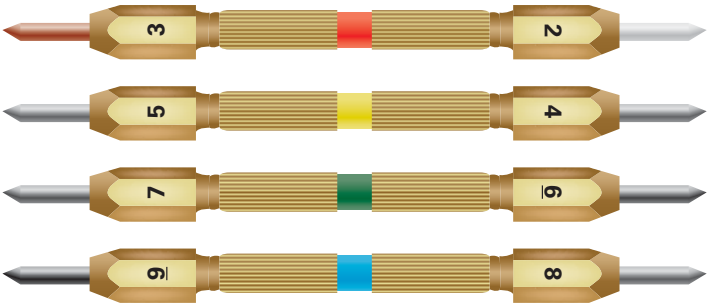

Figure 8.54 A set of Mohs hardness picks, which can be used to help identify a rock by its hardness

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Mohs scale
a scale from 1 to 10 that indicates the hardness of a rock

opaque
blocking light completely

translucent
allowing some light through, but no clear image can be seen through the substance

transparent
allowing light to pass through, and a clear image can be seen through the substance

cleavage
the tendency of a mineral or a rock to break in a particular way because of its structure

Any mineral with a high **Mohs scale** number can scratch any mineral with a lower number. The softest mineral, with a 1 on the Mohs scale, is talc (metamorphic), and the hardest is diamond (metamorphic) with a 10. Your fingernail is about 2.5 and a steel knife is about 5.5. A set of tools called Mohs picks can be used to determine where on the Mohs scale a mineral in an unknown rock lies. For example, if a mineral can be scratched by pick number 6 and not by pick number 7, then it has a hardness of 6 (Figure 8.54).

Behaviour in light

Most rocks are **opaque**, which means no light can pass through them. Some are **translucent**, which means light can pass through the rock but no clear image is visible through it. **Transparent** rock, such as diamond (metamorphic) and quartz (igneous), allow light to pass through and images are visible through them.

Figure 8.55 Amethyst (mineral) is a translucent crystal and can be found inside all three types of rocks, igneous, metamorphic and, less commonly, sedimentary.

Behaviour in acid

Weak hydrochloric acid can be used to test for carbonates. Bubbles form on the surface of marble (metamorphic), limestone (sedimentary) and chalk (sedimentary) when acid is dropped onto their surface. Rocks that do not contain carbonates will not fizz or bubble in acid.

Behaviour when struck

Some rocks break more easily in some directions than others. This feature is called **cleavage** and can help identify rock (such as slate, which is a metamorphic rock containing mica) (Figure 8.56).

Figure 8.56 Slate (top) can be split into thin sheets for building. Slate is composed mostly of quartz and mica (middle). Galena (bottom) is another mineral which, like mica, has an identifiable cleavage plane.

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Behaviour with magnets

Some iron-bearing rocks are attracted to magnets, and others are naturally occurring magnets themselves. One of the most common magnetic minerals in rocks is magnetite, named for its magnetic properties (Figure 8.57).

Figure 8.57 Magnetite is a mineral found in igneous, metamorphic and sedimentary rocks. It is also found in meteorites.

Streak test

When a rock is scratched onto a hard, ceramic surface, it can leave behind a coloured streak, which is a more reliable indicator of its colour than the colour of its surface (Figure 8.58). For example, gold and chalcopyrite have a similar surface colour, so a **streak test** is useful to distinguish between them.

Figure 8.58 Examples of a streak test

Figure 8.59 The streak test for gold (left) shows up as gold, while the streak test for chalcopyrite (right) – also known as 'fool's gold' – shows up as dark green-grey.

Quick check 8.9

1. Describe ores and why some of them are harmful.
2. Explain the seven characteristics that can be used to help classify rocks.
3. Identify which of the characteristics from Question **2** involves a chemical property.

Classifying and identifying rocks

WIDGET
A key to identify rocks

In order to classify and identify types of sedimentary, igneous and metamorphic rocks, you need to use a magnifying glass and work your way through the different tests. A dichotomous key, will also help.

Table 8.4 gives the general characteristics of the three different rock types.

streak test
a test used to help identify a mineral by scratching a rock on a hard ceramic tile

Igneous rock	Sedimentary rock	Metamorphic rock
• May contain holes • Crystals can be small or large • Usually hard	• Grains are cemented together • Can be soft	• Sometimes has a layered look • Can often be cleaved to a straight plane • Ranges from soft to hard

Table 8.4 Some characteristics of rocks

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Practical 8.3

Identifying 12 common rocks

Aim

To practise identifying and finding patterns, by classifying 12 of the most common rocks found in Earth's crust

Materials

- hydrochloric acid 0.1 mol L^{-1}
- dropper
- beaker of water
- hand lens
- disposable gloves
- 12 Petri dishes for the hydrochloric acid test
- two of each of the following rocks: basalt, chalk, gneiss, granite, limestone, mica, pumice, quartz, quartzite, sandstone, schist, slate

Figure 8.60 Twelve common rocks found on Earth's crust

continued...

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...continued

Method

1 Use the dichotomous chart in Figure 8.61 to identify the rock and the rock type. You can work in 12 groups, each group being responsible for one rock (each group will hold two rocks: one for the general test, and one for the hydrochloric acid test).
Rocks are composed of one or more minerals. For this practical, if a rock is made up of only one type of mineral, identify the rock as a 'mineral'.

1	Is the rock composed of crystals?	Yes	Go to 2
		No	Go to 5
2	Are the crystals flat and silvery?	Yes	Mica (igneous, metamorphic)
		No	Go to 3
3	Are the crystals large and transparent?	Yes	Quartz (igneous)
		No	Go to 4
4	Are the crystals small, easily removed by rubbing, and layered?	Yes	Sandstone (sedimentary)
		No	Granite (igneous)
5	Do bubbles appear when acid is placed on the rock? You will need to place the rock in the Petri dish and use the dropper to place 1–2 drops of hydrochloric acid on the rock. Do not handle the rock after hydrochloric acid has been added to it.	Yes	Go to 6
		No	Go to 7
6	Using a fresh rock, can the rock be scratched easily with a finger nail?	Yes	Chalk (sedimentary)
		No	Limestone (sedimentary)
7	Place the rock in a beaker of water. Does the rock float on the water?	Yes	Pumice (igneous)
		No	Go to 8
8	Is the rock translucent (allows some light to pass through)?	Yes	Quartzite (metamorphic)
		No	Go to 9
9	Does the rock have visible layers that may be curved or bent?	Yes	Gneiss (metamorphic)
		No	Go to 10
10	Does the surface of the rock appear to be made up of plates?	Yes	Schist (metamorphic)
		No	Go to 11
11	Does the rock break to form layers with a flat surface?	Yes	Slate (metamorphic)
		No	Basalt (igneous)

Figure 8.61 A dichotomous key for rock identification

2 Once you have identified your rock, label it. When all the rocks have been identified, sort them into the four groups: igneous rocks, metamorphic rocks, sedimentary rocks and rocks made up of only one type of mineral. Copy and complete the results table.

continued...

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...continued

Results

Copy and complete the following table to identify common characteristics of the different types of rocks.

	Rocks made up of only one type of mineral	Igneous rocks	Sedimentary rocks	Metamorphic rocks
Common characteristics				

Discussion

1 Recall what the hydrochloric acid test reveals about the rock material.
2 Discuss why you think pumice floats in water.
3 Design some rules and a different dichotomous key or chart to classify rocks as minerals, or igneous, sedimentary or metamorphic rocks. Identify any difficulties you encounter in doing this.

Science as a human endeavour 8.3

It used to be hotter

Studying the first billion years of Earth's evolution has always been uncertain. It is difficult to compare ancient rocks with modern rocks, as the original rocks have often been destroyed or changed over time. Researchers at Louisiana State University, USA, have shown that komatiites (three-billion-year-old volcanic rocks) were formed from the hottest lava that ever erupted on Earth. Temperatures were close to 1600°C, which is about 400°C hotter than the volcanic eruptions in modern-day Hawaii!

Figure 8.62 Komatiite

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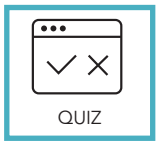
Section 8.3 questions



Remembering

1 **Name** seven characteristics that can be used to help classify rocks.

Understanding

2 Igneous rocks may contain holes. **Explain** why this is the case.

3 Sedimentary rocks often look like the grains are cemented together, and they are often soft. **Explain** why this is the case.

4 Metamorphic rocks sometimes have a layered look. **Explain** why this is the case.

Applying

5 **Identify** the following rocks, using the dichotomous key in Practical 8.3.

a The rock in Figure 8.63 does not bubble when acid is placed on it.

Figure 8.63

b The rock in Figure 8.64 does not bubble when acid is placed on it.

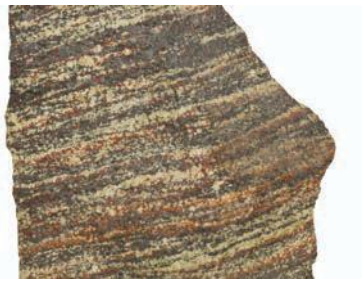


Figure 8.64

c The rock in Figure 8.65 bubbles when acid is placed on it. It cannot be scratched easily with a fingernail.

Figure 8.65

d The rock in Figure 8.66 does not bubble when acid is placed on it. The crystals are not easily removed.

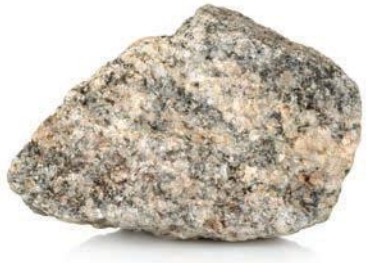


Figure 8.66

Analysing

6 Using the rocks in Question **5** and the dichotomous key in Practical 8.3, **determine** the rock type of each example, and explain how the appearance of each rock links to the rock type.

Evaluating

7 'All types of rock can be classified according to their physical characteristics only.' **Discuss** whether or not you agree with this statement.

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8.4 The mining process

WORKSHEET

VIDEO
The mining process

Learning goal

1 To explore the six stages of the mining lifecycle.

Some minerals are useful to humans and can be mined. Mining is the process by which minerals and other useful materials are extracted from Earth. Salt, slate, gold, marble and coal can be used as they are found. Other minerals need to be processed to make useful products such as metals, or building materials such as cement.

The mining process has several stages: exploration, planning and design, construction, mining, processing and closure.

1 Exploration

Before any mining project begins, mining companies enlist the expertise of geologists to scout areas and search for mineral deposits. It is important that they find out the quality of the mineral and the size of the deposit. This is to determine whether it would be cost effective to mine the mineral because a mining project is extremely expensive once it has started.

Mining companies should also communicate with the traditional owners of the land to ensure that any important cultural sites are protected. In 2020, Rio Tinto blasted a 46 000-year-old Aboriginal sacred site in the Pilbara region, Western Australia. This led to an unreserved apology to the Puutu Kunti Kurrama and Pinikura traditional owners, and a call for legislative change to protect Aboriginal heritage sites at risk of demolition.

Figure 8.67 Geologists sampling rocks during iron ore exploration in the outback (Pilbara, Western Australia)

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Science as a human endeavour 8.4

PMI guns

In modern mining, new technology is available to confirm a geologist's identification of a rock in just a few seconds. A positive material identification (PMI) gun uses high-energy radiation (X-rays) to excite the material in a rock, and records the response. Each different material has a unique response, like a fingerprint. By analysing the signal given out by the rock, the percentage of each element can be found.

reflection seismology the use of shockwaves to investigate the structure of rocks underground

Geologists and geophysicists use a technique called **reflection seismology** to determine the structure of the rocks that lie beneath the surface. An explosive charge, or other methods, is used to make a loud sound and, as the sound travels down, it is reflected from the layers beneath the surface. Once an area has been identified, a thin cylinder of rock, called a core sample, is extracted to positively identify any minerals found.

Figure 8.68 Miners can use a PMI gun to determine the composition of a rock.

Figure 8.69 Core samples taken from a diamond mine

2 Planning and design

If the results of the exploration strongly suggest that mining in a certain area would yield good results, then the project moves into the planning stage. Project managers, mining engineers, finance consultants and other experts work together to design safe, sound, economically viable and socially responsible plans.

Figure 8.70 Social responsibility in planning includes considering how a new mine will affect society and the natural environment.

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3 Construction

After research is carried out, planning is completed and permits are approved, the project moves to the construction stage. This may involve building roads, mining facilities and housing.

Figure 8.71 Constructing a mining site involves many people, such as construction workers, builders, landscape architects and engineers.

4 Mining

Mining is the process by which the minerals are recovered, using various tools and machines. Most people imagine mining as an underground tunnel, which is a technique of mining that goes back to Roman times. **Underground mining** is highly skilled and can also be dangerous. The advantages of underground mining are that there is generally little impact on the environment, and minerals can be extracted from much deeper depths then surface mining.

underground mining
a traditional method of mining by digging tunnels underground to extract ore

surface mining
a method of mining that extracts a mineral from the surface, such as by digging an open pit

Figure 8.72 An underground coal mine

Another method of mining is **surface mining**, such as strip mining and open-cut mining. Large quantities of a mineral can be extracted by this technique. Surface mining can only be used if the mineral is close to the surface. This method has become much more common in recent years, especially for the extraction of metal ores. It is relatively safe compared with underground mining, but there is a significant impact on the environment. Gold and iron ore are metals that can be mined in this way in Australia.

There has been interest in mining deep sea deposits such as manganese–cobalt nodules in the Pacific Ocean; however, there are strong environmental concerns associated with deep sea mining and to date, it is too difficult and expensive.

Figure 8.73 The Kalgoorlie Super Pit is one of the largest open cut gold mines in Australia.

Explore! 8.7

Mining extraction processes

There are different types of mining. Underground mining and surface mining are two of these; another two methods are *placer mining* and *in-situ leach* mining. Conduct some research to answer the following questions.

1. What is involved in placer mining and in-situ leach mining?
2. List some advantages and disadvantages of the types of mining.
3. Which of the mining types are most environmentally friendly? Justify your answer.
4. Describe some of the ethical issues that need to be considered with regards to mining.

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Explore! 8.8

World's first fully automated mine

Conduct some research about the 'Syama automated mine' and advances in mining technology and automation to answer the following questions.

1 Identify the advantages of fully automated mining technology.
2 Assess the concerns that have been raised for fully automated mining. Do you think these concerns are justified?

Quick check 8.10

Copy and complete the following table to summarise what you have learned about the mining process so far. Remember, there are still two stages to go, so leave space in your table for these stages.

Mining process	Details	Examples of people involved
1 Exploration		
2 Planning and designing		
3 Construction		
4 Mining		
5		
6		

5 Processing

Recall that ore is rock that contains the metal being mined. There are several ways to process the ore so that only the intended metal is extracted.

Grinding

The ore is usually first crushed and ground so that the pieces are smaller and easier to process.

Smelting

One process of extracting a metal from its ore is called **smelting**. Basically, the metal ore consists of the metal combined with oxygen in the rock. The ore is heated in the presence of carbon (charcoal) and a chemical reaction takes place:

$$\text{metal oxide} + \text{carbon} \longrightarrow \text{metal} + \text{carbon dioxide}$$

The extraction of metals, ores and other materials from Earth has a very long history. Archaeologists have named two periods of human history, the Bronze Age and the Iron Age, according to the metals that people were producing at that time.

smelting
the process of getting a metal from rock by heating it to a very high temperature

electrolysis
a method of extracting a metal from its ore or purifying it using electricity

Purifying

One method of purifying an impure sample of metal is to use electricity, in a process called **electrolysis**. (Figure 8.74). The sample is connected to a positive terminal,

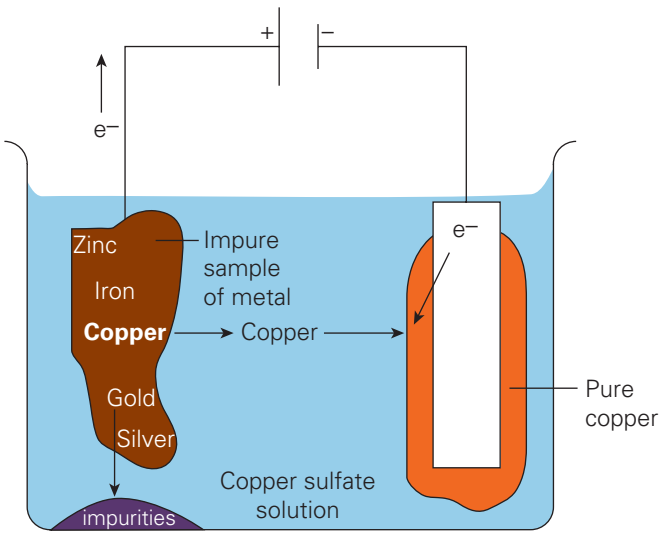

Figure 8.74 The use of electrolysis in purifying copper

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and a pure piece of the metal is connected to the negative terminal. The terminals are placed in a solution containing the metal and, when the circuit is connected, the metal in the impure sample slowly moves through the solution from positive to negative. Any impurities are deposited near the positive terminal. When this is done with copper ore, the impurities may contain valuable metals such as gold.

Practical 8.4

Electrolysis of copper

Aim

To see how metals can be purified using electricity, and to demonstrate electroplating

Materials

- 2 copper plates to act as electrodes
- 2 alligator leads
- an old metal fork or spoon
- 0.5 mol L^{-1} copper sulfate solution
- beaker
- 3 V DC power supply

Be careful

Wear personal protective equipment. All materials and solutions are to be collected. Electrical shocks may occur. Do not exceed the voltage output. Turn off the power supply when changing the circuit.

Method

Part 1

1. Place two copper electrodes in a beaker containing a solution of copper sulfate.
2. Connect the electrodes to a battery or low-power direct current supply (make sure it is switched off when you do this) using alligator leads.
3. Switch on the power supply and leave it for a while (it may take 20–40 minutes). The cathode will slowly get bigger, and the anode will become smaller.
4. Switch off the power supply.

Part 2

1. Replace the copper plate connected to the negative terminal with a fork (or spoon).
2. Switch on the power supply. Copper will move from the other plate to the fork. When it reaches the fork, it will be deposited on the surface and a thin layer of copper will appear. This is called electroplating.

Results

Record your observations for each part of the experiment.

Discussion

1. Describe what you think happened when the power supply was switched on in Part 1 of the experiment.
2. Deduce some uses for electroplating, which you saw in Part 2 of the experiment.
3. Distinguish between electrolysis and electroplating.

6 Closure and rehabilitation

The final step in mining is closure and rehabilitation. When the resources in a mining site have been exhausted, the site is closed down, all facilities are packed up and often removed, and a rehabilitation plan is developed. The purpose of this is to return the land to the state it was in before the mine was built. For example, if it was agricultural land, then the plan would involve trying to restore the land to its original level of productivity. Rehabilitation involves scientists, government personnel, bush regenerators and local wildlife experts, among others.

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Did you know? 8.7

Rehabilitation and biodiversity

Rehabilitation of the land also takes into consideration the native plants and animals that were in the site before it was mined. Disturbed areas are reshaped to reflect their original state as closely as possible, and care is taken to preserve plant species. An example of mining rehabilitation is the Woodcutters lead–zinc mine in the Northern Territory, which was closed in 1999. In 2002 it was acquired by Newmont, a mining corporation, which has rehabilitated and monitored the site as part of its commitment to sustainable business, in partnership with the Kungarakan and Warai people, who are the traditional owners of the land. The rehabilitation process has several stages, and the latest stage started in 2018, with the planting of wetland vegetation. The final goal is to hand back the land to the traditional owners.

Figure 8.75 Another example of rehabilitation is the Westside Mine, a coal mine near Lake Macquarie in New South Wales The rehabilitation was completed in 2012, two months after operations stopped.

The mining industry in Australia

The mining industry is one of the most important industries in Australia. Table 8.5 shows a summary of some of the metal resources mined in this country.

It is not just metals that are mined or quarried. Stones are used to make roads. Coal (sedimentary) is mined as a source of energy; Australia is ranked fourth in the world in terms of coal supply. Limestone (sedimentary) is used to make cement; also, when sand is combined with small amounts of limestone and sodium carbonate, heated until it melts and allowed to cool, it becomes glass.

Resource	Details
Iron	Australia is the world's largest exporter of iron ore.
Uranium	The worldwide nuclear power industry needs uranium ore as fuel. There are no nuclear power stations in Australia, but about 10% of the world's uranium is mined here.
Gold	Australia's early history was highly influenced by gold, as many immigrants came during the gold rush days. Gold mining is still a large industry, and ore containing even a small amount of gold is mined, due to the high value of the gold. Gold mines in Australia account for 9% of the world's production and some of these mines are huge operations, occupying many hectares.

Table 8.5 Some important metals mined in Australia

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Gemstones such as diamonds and opals (Figure 8.76) are mined in Australia, and gemstone mining is a major source of income for some Australian towns. For example, Coober Pedy in South Australia is the largest opal mining area in the world.

Figure 8.76 An Australian opal. Australia produces around 95% of the world's opals.

Explore! 8.9

Coal mining in Australia

Coal mining makes up a significant portion of Australia's mining industry, but coal mine sites often face community concerns over the environmental impact of mining and burning coal. Conduct some research and answer the following questions.

1 Name the type of rock that coal is sourced from.
2 Describe the cost and energy advantages of coal.
3 Describe the environmental impacts of mining and burning coal.

Quick check 8.11

1 Add the last two mining processes to your table from Quick check 8.10.

Mining process	Details	Examples of people involved
5 Processing		
6 Closure and rehabilitation		

2 List some of the metals, rocks and minerals mined in Australia.

Section 8.4 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **Recall** the steps of the mining process, in chronological order.
2 **Name** three processes that can be used in the processing stage of mining to obtain the intended metal.
3 **Recall** some metals and resources that are significant for the Australian mining industry.

Understanding

4 **State** an example of technological progress in the mining industry and explain how it helps the mining process.

Applying

5 **Explain** the importance of performing the exploration stage before designing a mine.
6 **Summarise** how geologists determine the content and structure of the rocks under the surface.

Analysing

7 **Compare** surface mining with underground mining, giving one advantage and disadvantage of each.

Evaluating

8 **Propose** why electroplating with silver or gold is a very popular technique in jewellery making.

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Chapter review

Chapter checklist

In the Interactive Textbook, the success criteria are linked to the review questions and will be automatically ticked when answers are correct. Alternatively, you can download this checklist from the Interactive Textbook to complete it.

Success criteria		Linked question	Check
8.1	I can recall the names of the three types of rock.	1	
8.1	I can name the different layers of Earth.	7	
8.1	I can describe the rock cycle.	4	
8.1	I can describe the following processes: weathering, erosion, deposition, cementation and compaction.	8	
8.2	I can discuss the formation of sedimentary, igneous and metamorphic rocks.	3	
8.3	I can classify rocks by their different features.	6	
8.4	I can discuss the process of mining.	2	

Review questions

SCORCHER

Remembering

1 **Name** the two types of igneous rock.
2 **Name** the six stages of the mining process.
3 **Recall** the stages in the formation of sedimentary rock.
4 **Name** the two conditions that are required for metamorphic rocks to form.

Understanding

5 Figure 8.77 shows limestone in the Ngilgi Cave of Yallingup, Western Australia.
   a **Identify** the property of the limestone that allows the caves to form.
   b **Name** the geological name for this type of weathering.

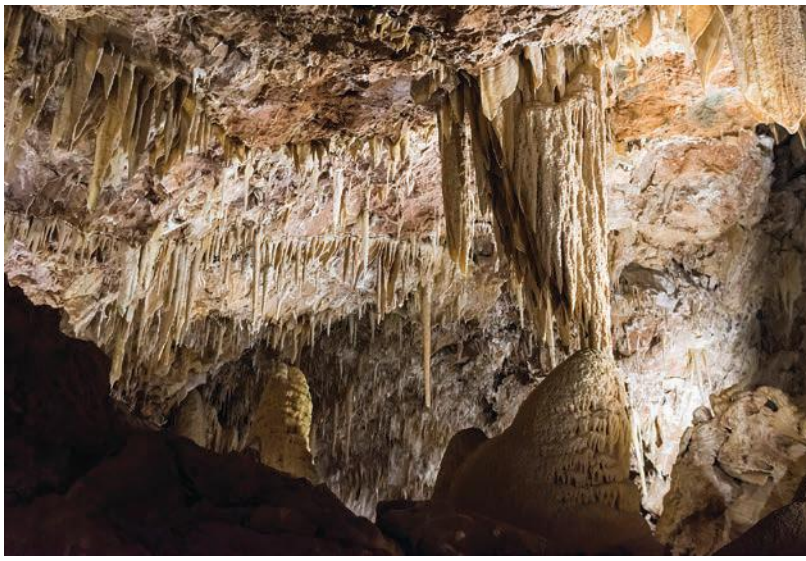

Figure 8.77 Ngilgi Cave, Western Australia

Applying

6 **Describe** the use of Mohs scale in distinguishing between different rocks.
7 **Explain** in which layer of Earth intrusive igneous rocks, such as granite, would likely form.

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Analysing

8 a **Infer** the geological process that occurred to produce the formation shown in Figure 8.78.

Figure 8.78

b One feature of metamorphic rock is that it can appear layered. The rock shown in Figure 8.79 is layered. However, it is sedimentary rock. **Evaluate** why this might be the case.

Figure 8.79

Evaluating

9 Examine the image in Figure 8.80 and **determine** whether it is a rock or a mineral.

10 A rock is made of a single crystal. **Deduce** whether or not this rock is a mineral, and explain your reasoning.

Figure 8.80

11 a The sedimentary rocks in Figure 8.81 are lying at an angle. **Determine** the geological event that might have caused this to happen.

Figure 8.81

b Figure 8.82 shows a fossil lying on a beach. **Deduce** where the sedimentary rock would have come from.

Figure 8.82

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Data questions

Iron ore is a key Australian export, and an Australian iron ore deposit commonly contains the minerals hematite, magnetite and pyrite, among others. The iron content of these minerals is presented in Table 8.6, and an example of the percentage of mineral components at different depths of an iron ore deposit drill sample is shown in Figure 8.83.

Mineral	Formula	Iron content	Colour
Hematite	Fe_2O_3	70%	red
Magnetite	Fe_3O_4	72%	black
Pyrite	FeS_2	47%	yellow

Table 8.6 Some minerals found in Australian iron ores.

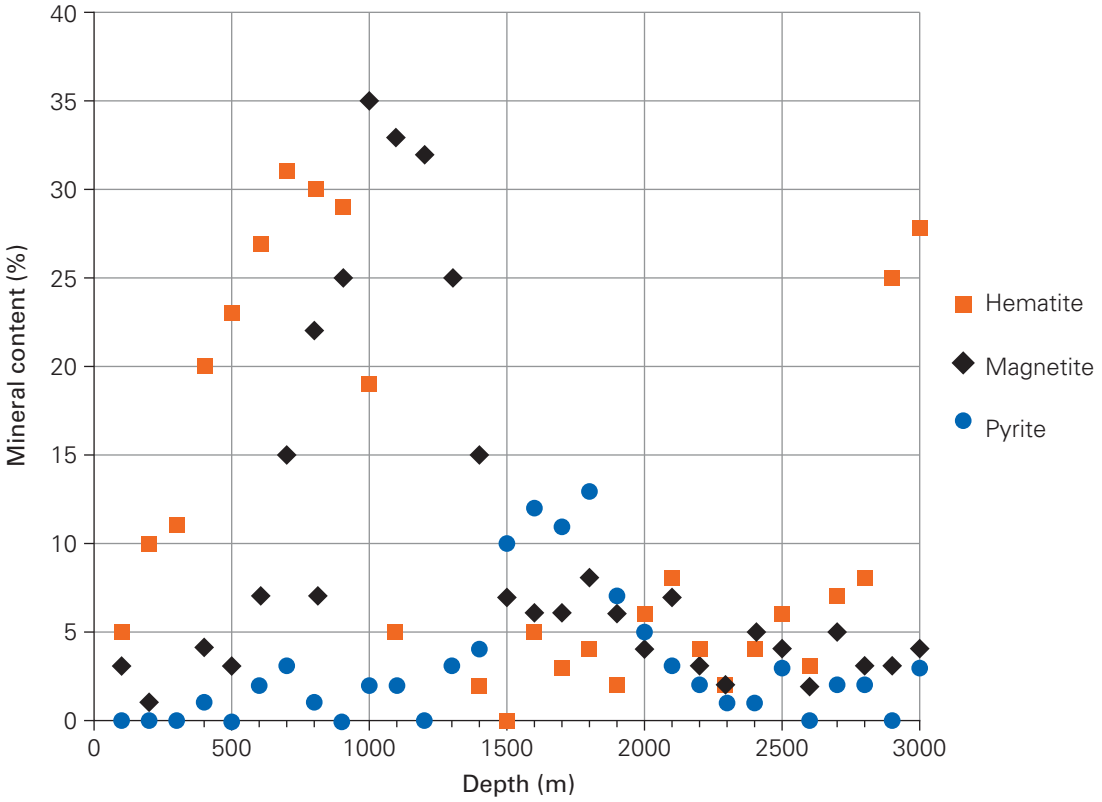

Figure 8.83 The mineral content of an iron ore exploration extract, depending on the depth of drilling

1 **Identify** which mineral described in Table 8.6 has the highest iron content.
2 **Identify** the mineral present in the highest amounts in the ore at 400, 1100 and 1800 m.
3 **Classify** the minerals hematite, magnetite and pyrite as 'oxides' or 'sulfides'.
4 **Contrast** the iron content in hematite, magnetite and pyrite and suggest which of these minerals is the least sought after.
5 **Deduce** which mineral is present in the lowest overall amounts in the ore at depths of 0–3000 m.
6 Given your response to Question **5**, **infer** a reason why the mining company has concerns about mining beyond 1500 m in depth.
7 Some miners had thought that they had found gold at a depth of 1800 m, but analysis revealed an iron-based mineral. **Justify** their observation with respect to the colours of iron-containing minerals.
8 At close to 3000 m depth, the amount of hematite is raised again. **Predict** the percentage of hematite content at 3100 m in this drill sample.
9 **Predict** the colour of the rock sample taken at 1200 m depth.

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STEM activity: Underground bunkers and asteroids

Background information

A bunker is a structure built underground for people to shelter or live in, protecting them from dangers on the surface of Earth. For example, many homes in parts of the world that are prone to tornados have a bunker to protect the home owners. During World War II, many major cities had huge bunkers built beneath them to protect residents from bombs.

When designing a bunker, engineers need to think about how people live and what requirements exist for people to be able to live underground for a period of time. They obviously do not need to include luxury items, but people will still need to have access to food, fresh water and toilets, and somewhere to sleep. Engineers calculate the amount of space that will be required for the number of people intending to use the bunker.

Engineers also need to consider the type of rock and soil that the bunker will be built beneath. They work alongside geologists to determine suitable locations, with rock that is not too soft, so it will support the structure of the bunker, and not too hard, so it is not too difficult to cut into.

Figure 8.84 A bunker provides protection from dangers above.

Design brief: Design an underground bunker to survive the imminent impact of an asteroid.

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Activity instructions

BREAKING NEWS: AN ASTEROID IS HEADING FOR EARTH!

Scientists have calculated that the asteroid will collide with Earth in 20 days. The impact will be so destructive that all humans will need to stay in bunkers underground for at least three months. Your team of engineers has been tasked with building an underground bunker for the people in your local suburb.

Figure 8.85 Only 20 days to find cover!

Suggested materials/presentation formats

- large plastic container
- soil and crushed rock
- cardboard
- icy pole sticks
- scissors
- sticky tape
- glue
- slotted masses/weights

Research and feasibility

1 Research how many people are in your local suburb and decide as a group if multiple bunkers will have to be built. Decide as a group how many people you will build a bunker for.

2 Research the local rock formations in your area. Decide whether your bunker needs to be built underground or into local rock formations. You will need to research the common types of rock and the difficulty in excavating or drilling by using the hardness scale for the rock type. You may need to consider other factors of the rock type that may be important when considering strength.

Design and sustainability

3 Decide as a group the volume of your bunker based on the number of people, and what your group believes are space requirements, then sketch proposed local area locations and a design for your bunker. Include annotations on your sketch for the bunker design, giving additional information on the thought processes behind it.

4 Discuss as a group how you can build a model of your proposed bunker for testing. Think about the type of local rock, your bunker shape, and how to make an effective model. Include in your discussion how you are planning to test your bunker to show its durability.

Create

5 Build the model of your bunker, and then test it using varying weights or methods.

Evaluate and modify

6 Describe some of the difficulties you encountered while calculating and estimating the amount of space people will need to live in.

7 Did you need to make compromises about quality of life for the people living in your bunker, to save space? Explain how you came to your decisions.

8 Describe some modifications you could make to your bunker to withstand more force.

9 Evaluate the feasibility of constructing a bunker located within the rock type you have chosen.

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Chapter 9
Energy

Chapter introduction

This chapter provides an introduction to the different forms of energy that we encounter in our everyday lives. Your senses can detect several types of energy – your eyes detect light, your ears detect sound, and your skin can feel hot and cold. You use your muscles to move, gaining kinetic energy, or to lift things, giving them gravitational potential energy. The food you eat contains chemical energy, which allows you to move and keep warm. The cells in your brain are constantly exchanging electrical energy, and your nervous system uses electrical energy to send messages between your brain and the rest of your body.

You will learn about how energy can be converted from one form to another, always leaving the total amount of energy the same. In the final section you will learn how the energy we use in our homes is generated and investigate whether the methods used are renewable and sustainable.

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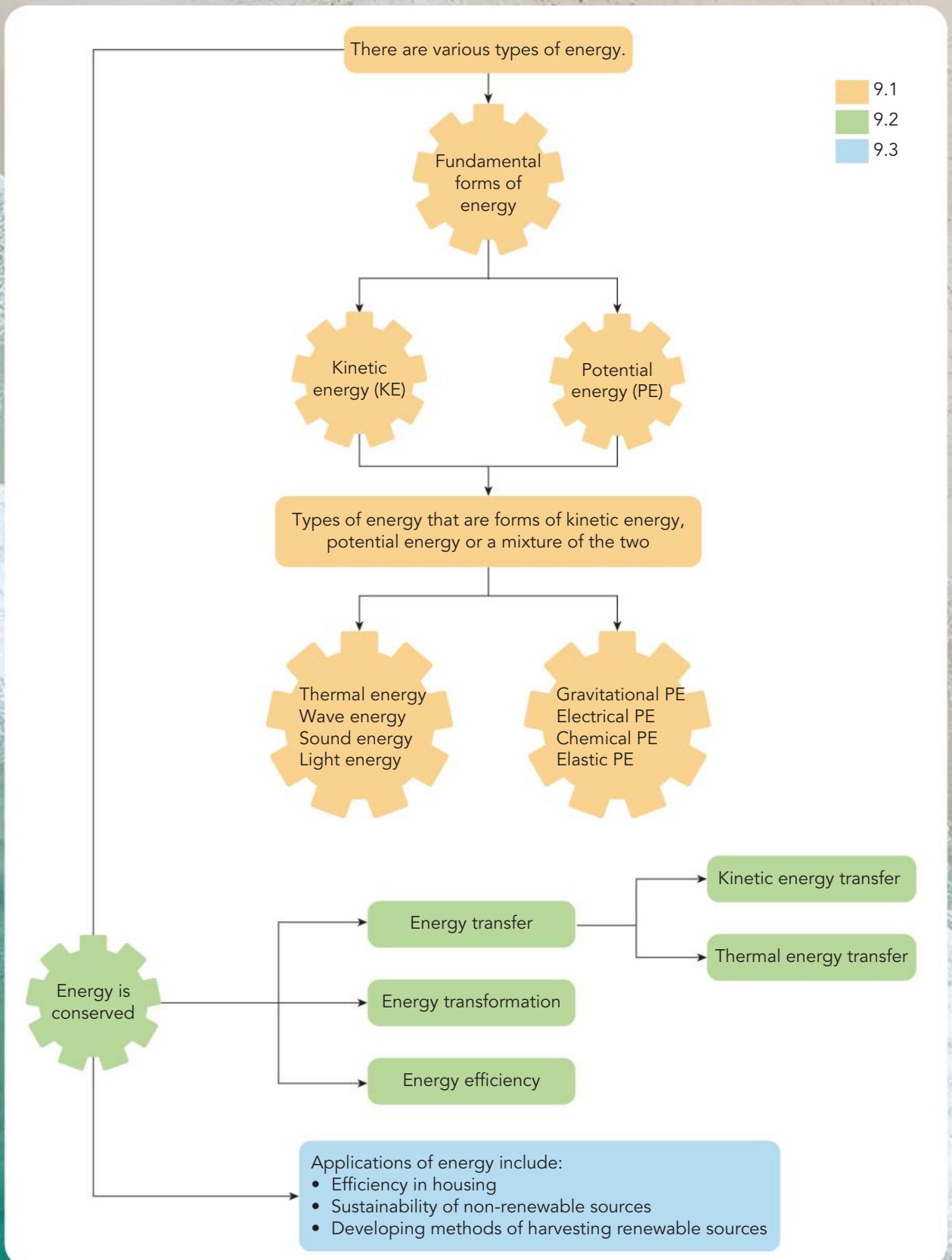
Chapter map



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9.1 What is energy?

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to define energy.
2 To be able to provide examples of different forms of kinetic and potential energy.
3 To be able to distinguish between heat, thermal energy and temperature.

energy
the capacity to do work; the total amount of energy is conserved in any process

joule
the unit of energy or work done

kinetic energy
the energy of moving matter

rotational kinetic energy
the energy an object has because it is rotating

potential energy
the energy stored in something because of its height above the ground, or because it is stretched or compressed, or in chemical form

VIDEO
Types of stored energy

Energy is the ability to do work. Energy cannot be created or destroyed; that is, the amount of energy in the universe is always the same. However, energy can change form, be transferred from one object to another, or it can be stored for later use. For all the different types of energy, the unit of measurement is the **joule** (J).

Our senses enable us to experience energy in different ways such as heat, light and movement. There are several ways to classify these different types, but actually there are only two fundamental forms of energy: kinetic energy and potential energy. All forms can be classified as one of these types or a mixture of the two.

Kinetic energy

The energy an object has when it is moving is called **kinetic energy** (KE). The amount of energy depends on the mass of the object and its speed.

Figure 9.1 Fast-moving cars have a lot of kinetic energy.

Objects that are spinning also have kinetic energy, but this energy is called **rotational kinetic energy**.

Potential energy

Some objects can store energy until it is ready to be used. This stored energy is called **potential energy**, because it has the potential to do work or make things happen. For example, a stretched rubber band has stored elastic potential energy. The energy is not being used at that point, but it has the potential to make something happen. Some forms of stored energy are summarised in Table 9.1.

Form of potential energy	Description
Gravitational potential energy (GPE)	Energy stored when an object is lifted off the ground; energy released when the object falls
Electrical energy	Energy stored in electrostatic situations (e.g. thunderclouds, capacitors); energy released when current flows (includes sparks like lightning)
Chemical potential energy	Energy stored in chemicals such as fuel and in batteries (when connected to an electric circuit, the chemical energy is converted to electrical energy)
Elastic potential energy	Energy stored when an object is stretched or compressed; energy released when an object returns to original size and shape
Nuclear energy	Energy stored in unstable (radioactive) atoms; energy released when atoms decay or undergo fission or fusion in unstable (radioactive) atoms

Table 9.1 Types of potential energy

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Forms of energy we can detect with our senses

Some different types of energy that we can sense are in Table 9.2. They are all either a type of kinetic energy or are a combination of kinetic energy and potential energy.

Form of energy	Description
Thermal energy	The energy in an object due to the random motion of its particles
Wave energy	The energy carried by a wave
Sound energy	The energy carried by a sound wave
Light energy	The energy carried by light waves (electromagnetic energy)

Table 9.2 Different types of energy that we can sense.

Forms of energy

Thermal energy

In Chapter 5 you learned in particle theory that **heat** is related to the vibration and movement of the particles of matter. So heat is related to the kinetic energy of particles of matter. In this chapter, we will use the more technical term for 'heat', which is **thermal energy**. To change an object's **temperature**, thermal energy needs to be either added (to raise it, i.e. heating) or removed (to lower it, i.e. cooling). The amount of thermal energy in an object depends on:

- temperature – objects with higher temperature have more thermal energy than identical cold objects
- mass – heavier objects have more thermal energy than lighter ones of the same material and temperature
- material – some materials are better at storing thermal energy than others.

heat
thermal energy that is in transit due to differences in temperature

thermal energy
the energy contained within a material that is responsible for its temperature

temperature
a measure of the average random kinetic energy of the particles in a substance

The total thermal energy depends on all three factors. For example, a warm bath contains a lot more thermal energy than a burning match. This is because, even though the match has a higher temperature, the hot bath is much bigger, and water is very good at storing thermal energy.

Increasing the temperature of water is one of the most expensive energy costs in the home, because heating water requires a lot of energy.

Figure 9.2 A warm bath contains more thermal energy than a burning match.

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Practical 9.1: Investigation

Investigating thermal energy

Be careful
Wear personal protective equipment. Do not stand over the beaker once it has been heated.

Aim
To investigate the thermal energy of different volumes of water

Planning
1 Summarise the background information about thermal energy.
2 Write a specific and relevant research question for your investigation.
3 Identify the independent, dependent and controlled variables.
4 Write a hypothesis for your investigation.
5 Write a risk assessment for your investigation.

Materials
- Bunsen burner
- gauze
- tripod
- heatproof mat
- large glass beaker
- thermometer

Method
1 Put 200 mL of water in the beaker and measure the temperature. Record this in your results table.
2 Heat this water using a Bunsen burner for one minute.
3 Stir the water and measure the final temperature after it has been heated. Record in your results table.
4 Repeat steps **1–3** using 300 mL, 400 mL and 500 mL of water. Make sure the glass beaker is cooled between experiments, so that the initial temperature is the same. It might save time to start with four identical beakers with water at room temperature.

Results
1 Copy and complete the following table.

Volume (mL)	Initial temperature (°C)	Final temperature (°C)	Change in temperature (°C)	Energy (J)
200				
300				
400				
500				

2 Calculate the change in thermal energy in each volume of water by using the equation:
Change in thermal energy = Mass in kg × specific heat capacity × change in temperature
The specific heat capacity of water is 4200 $J^{-1}\,kg^{-1}\,°C^{-1}$.

Discussion
1 Describe any patterns, trends or relationships in your results.
2 Explain any trends you have identified.
3 How did the change in temperature differ between volumes of water?
4 Complete some research regarding specific heat capacity. What do you think would happen if a different liquid was used? Explain the reasoning behind your prediction.
5 Identify any limitations in your investigation.
6 Propose another independent variable that could have been tested, to expand on your results.
7 Suggest some improvements for this experiment.

Conclusion
Draw a conclusion from this experiment, using data to support your statement.

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Quick check 9.1

1 Recall the unit for energy.
2 Look at Figure 9.3 and identify some of the different forms of energy you can see.

Figure 9.3 Birthday parties always involve energy!

3 Define the term 'thermal energy' of an object.
4 Recall three factors that the total thermal energy of any object depends on.
5 Explain why a warm bath contains more thermal energy than a burning match.

Wave energy

Water waves carry **wave energy** as the waves move on the surface of the water. The waves can vary in size from small ripples – formed when a stone is thrown into water – to ocean swell – long waves that travel along the surface of the ocean. Because waves in water can generally move from place to place, they are called **travelling waves**.

Figure 9.4 These water waves at Margaret River have a lot of energy.

Water waves are not the only type of waves that can carry energy. Waves can travel through Earth after an earthquake. These are also an example of a travelling wave. They occur when the ground suddenly moves, and can transmit a huge amount of energy.

wave energy
the energy carried by a travelling wave (e.g. an ocean swell) or trapped in a standing wave (e.g. a guitar string when being played)

travelling wave
a wave that can carry energy from one place to another

Figure 9.5 Major earthquakes can cause severe damage to infrastructure, as with this road in New Zealand.

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Science as a human endeavour 9.1

Printing using sound

Researchers at Harvard University in the USA have developed a method of printing using sound waves. The researchers used sound to control the size of the droplet being ejected from the printer nozzle, regardless of the viscosity (thickness) of the liquid. A higher amplitude of sound wave makes a smaller droplet. A wide range of liquids can be used, which means this technology has applications in many different industries, from pharmaceuticals to food.

Figure 9.6 Using sound waves in printing

sound energy
a form of travelling wave; sound consists of particle vibrations in the air

light energy
a form of energy that we can see with our eyes; also called visible light; a part of the electromagnetic spectrum

electromagnetic spectrum
a way of organising electromagnetic waves according to their energy

gravitational potential energy
a type of potential/stored energy; the energy an object has because of its height; GPE = *mgh*, where *m* is the mass of the object (kg), *h* is its height (m) and *g* is the acceleration due to Earth's gravity

Sound energy

Sound energy is a form of wave energy; it consists of particle vibrations in the air.

Light energy

Light energy is a kind of wave that makes up the visible part of the **electromagnetic spectrum**. Electromagnetic radiation, such as light, can travel through air or through a vacuum (such as space).

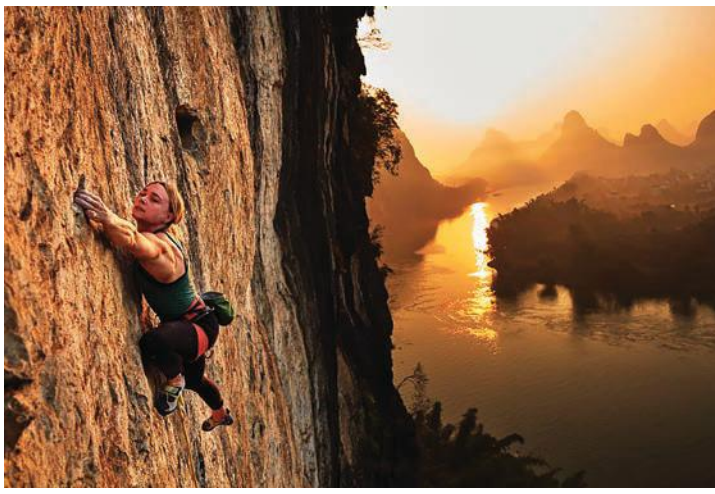
Quick check 9.2

1 Provide five examples of objects that could have kinetic energy.
2 Give two types of wave energy.

Gravitational potential energy

When an object is lifted, it gains **gravitational potential energy** (GPE). 'Gravitational' means related to the pull of Earth, and 'potential' means the energy is stored for later. GPE depends on three things: the strength of gravity, the mass of the object, and the height the object is lifted.

Figure 9.7 Rock climbers gain gravitational potential energy as they climb.



Did you know? 9.1

The electromagnetic spectrum

The electromagnetic spectrum includes various kinds of waves based on their relative energy. Notice that relatively lower energy waves are often used in communications.

Relative energy	Examples
Very high	Gamma rays, X-rays, ultraviolet (UV) light
Middle	Visible light – all colours of the rainbow, infrared, microwaves
Low	Radar, radio, 3G, 4G, 5G

Table 9.3 All of these waves in the electromagnetic spectrum travel at the speed of light!

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Try this 9.1

Investigating energy with a bouncy ball

Hold a bouncy ball higher than your head. Allow the ball to fall onto the floor and continue bouncing until it comes to rest.

Describe the transformations involved as GPE changes to KE until the ball stops. Explain where elastic potential energy fits in.

Did you know? 9.2

Tiny charges

An electron is so small that the unit we use for charge represents 6.24 million million million electrons.

Electrical energy

Electrical energy is carried by tiny, negatively charged particles, called *electrons*, that can move from one atom in a wire to the next, carrying energy as they do. Voltage (V) is related to the amount of electrical energy each electron carries. For example, AAA batteries supply 1.5 joules of electrical energy per unit of charge, so they have a voltage of 1.5 volts; mobile phones operate at 5 volts; car batteries are 12 volts; in Australia, electricity in the home is 230 volts.

electrical energy
energy carried by electricity moving in a wire; voltage is used to measure how much energy is carried by each unit of electricity

Did you know? 9.3

Lightning strikes

Electrical energy can be very dangerous when it causes a large electric current to flow through the body. The highest voltages on Earth are in lightning strikes, which can be hundreds of millions of volts. Think about thunderstorms: what other forms of energy are released when lightning strikes?

Figure 9.8 Lake Maracaibo in Venezuela holds the Guinness World Record for the highest concentration of lightning strikes. The phenomenon is called 'Catatumbo lightning', named after the river which empties into the lake.

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Quick check 9.3

1 State some types of energy that can be stored.
2 Look at the playground in Figure 9.9. Explain where you would stand to have the greatest GPE.

Figure 9.9 Where is GPE greatest?

3 Figure 9.10 shows a roller coaster. Roller coasters are a great example of GPE. Answer the following questions, remembering that as an object loses GPE, it gains KE (kinetic energy).

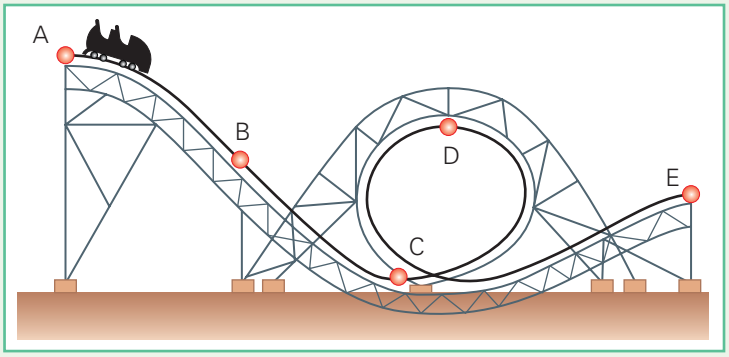

Figure 9.10 A roller coaster

a Identify the step (A, B, C, D or E) where the cart would have the greatest GPE.
b Identify the step where the cart would have the greatest KE.

Chemical potential energy (chemical energy)

chemical potential energy the energy stored in the bonds between atoms

Many substances contain stored **chemical potential energy**, which can be released in a chemical reaction. For example:

- When fireworks are lit, chemical potential energy is released as heat, sound and light.
- Trees store chemical potential energy in their wood, which is released when the wood is burned.
- The food we eat contains chemical potential energy, which is released in our bodies, giving us the energy we need to keep warm and move around.
- Car engines convert the chemical energy in petrol to kinetic energy, heat and sound.

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Explore! 9.1

Car evolution

The car has come a long way since the invention of the first true automobile in 1886 by Austrian Karl Benz. Starting off then as a three-wheeled vehicle with a simple internal combustion engine, cars have evolved all the way to self-driving models powered by the Sun.

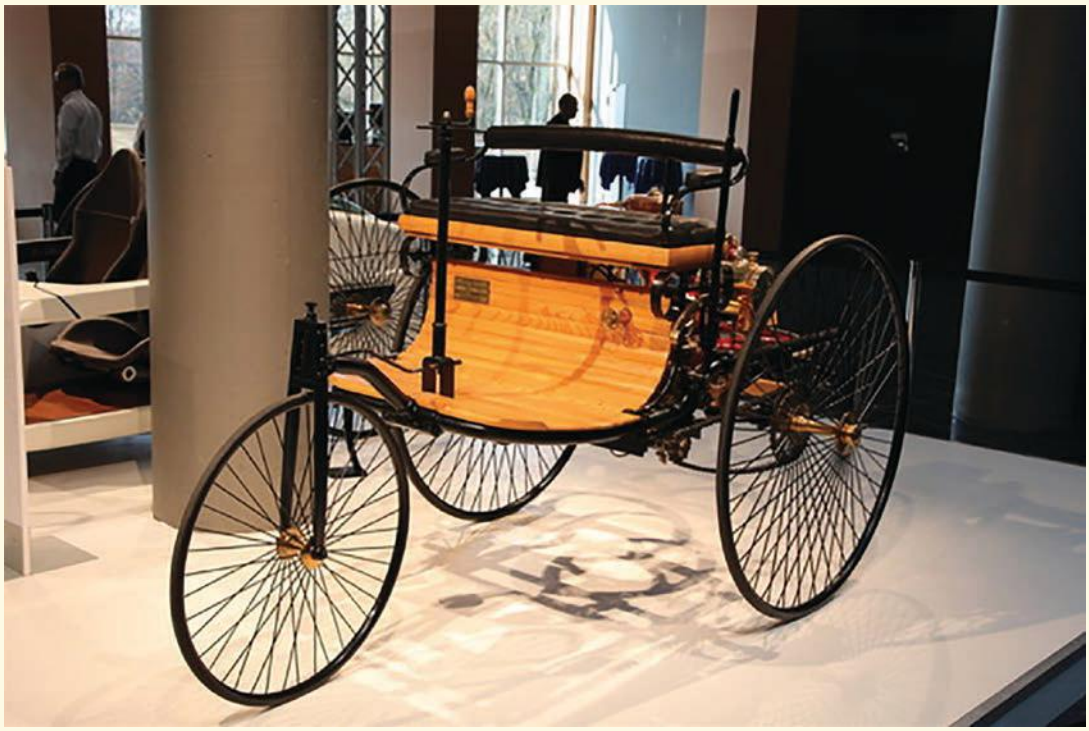

Figure 9.11 Karl Benz's Model 3 patent motor car

1 Research the development of the car and identify key models throughout its more than 100-year history.
2 Describe the technological or scientific discoveries that were required for the development of each of the key models identified in Question **1**.
3 How is car manufacturing important to the economies of countries in the Asia–Pacific region?

Figure 9.12 Fireworks at Optus Stadium in Perth. Fireworks contain chemical potential energy, which is released when the fireworks are lit.

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Elastic potential energy

Elastic potential energy is energy that is stored whenever an elastic material is either stretched or compressed by a force. For example, energy is stored in a rubber band when it is stretched, and in a rubber ball when it is compressed. Trampolines, bungee cords (Figure 9.14) and metal springs are all examples of objects that can store elastic energy. Another name for elastic potential energy is 'spring energy'.

Figure 9.13 A giant rubber band stores energy when it is stretched.

Figure 9.14 A bungee cord stores elastic potential energy when it is stretched.

Try this 9.2

Exploring elastic potential energy

Stretch a rubber band as tightly as possible. Explain how the stretched rubber band is an example of potential energy. Point the rubber band at the wall and let it go. Explain how the potential energy stored in the band was converted to a different form of energy.

elastic potential energy the energy stored when an elastic material is compressed or stretched

nuclear energy a non-renewable source of energy that uses the energy released by the nucleus of radioactive atoms

radioactive having or producing the energy that comes from the breaking up of atoms

radiation the emission of energy from unstable nuclei

Nuclear energy

The *nucleus* (plural *nuclei*) of an atom contains **nuclear energy**, a form of potential energy. Most nuclei are stable and do not release energy, but the **radioactive** nuclei of some elements break down, emitting high-energy electromagnetic radiation (such as gamma rays) or particles with kinetic energy, or both. The energy released can cause a change in temperature when absorbed by the surrounding material. One kind of radioactivity is called fission ('splitting'). Nuclear power stations use *fission* reactions in radioactive material such as uranium to produce thermal energy, which in turn is used to generate electricity.

Unfortunately, such **radiation** can be hazardous to human health. Great care has to be taken to prevent people being exposed to radiation in nuclear power stations.

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Did you know? 9.4

Nuclear energy and the Sun

Energy can also be released when two smaller atoms join to make a bigger atom, in a process called *fusion*. The Sun generates all its energy from this process. In fact, it is not just the Sun – the whole universe is full of stars that are fusing hydrogen into helium, releasing light and thermal energy as they do so. Two atoms of hydrogen are fused to make one atom of helium, and a small amount of mass is turned into a large amount of thermal energy.

In its core, the Sun fuses about 600 billion kilograms of hydrogen to produce about 600 billion kilograms of helium each second.

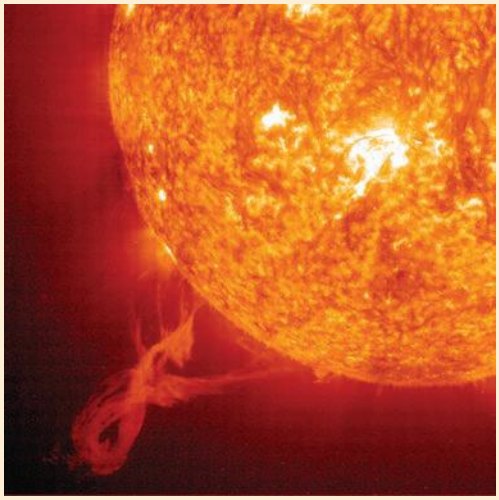

Figure 9.15 Nuclear energy has allowed the Sun to keep shining for at least 4 billion years, and it will take a further 5 billion years before it runs out of hydrogen.

For years, researchers have been trying to replicate this process on Earth with a plan to take a type of hydrogen gas, heat it to more than 100 million degrees Celsius until it forms a plasma. Scientists then want to fuse the atoms using powerful magnets. If this is successful, it would solve every energy problem on the planet.

An international collaboration of 35 countries called the Iter Project is constructing a huge test reactor in France and the scientists hope to have the first plasma by 2025.

Quick check 9.4

1 State three examples of chemical potential energy.
2 Explain what is happening to a material if elastic potential energy is being stored.
3 State the name of the process in which energy is released from the nucleus when it breaks apart or releases a particle.

Try this 9.3

A world without energy

Think about a world in which there is no electrical energy. Suppose there was no light or sound energy either. Write a few sentences to say if you think life could exist in such a world, and what it would be like. Now imagine that there is no potential or kinetic energy of any type. What would that world be like? Discuss and collate your ideas as a class and see if you agree.

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Section 9.1 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 **Recall** the correct energy forms and definitions to complete the table below.

Form of energy	Definition	Is this an example of potential energy?
Kinetic		
	Energy an object possesses when it is lifted	
Chemical		Yes

2 **Recall** the three factors that determine how much thermal energy could flow from an object.

3 **State** the form of energy contained in a piece of wood.

4 **State** the form of energy a piece of wood gives out when it burns (Figure 9.16).

Understanding

5 **Identify** the form of energy other than thermal gained when a person climbs stairs (Figure 9.17).

6 **Identify** the forms of energy emitted by lightning (Figure 9.18).

7 **Identify** a form of energy that is *not* a form of wave energy.

8 **Identify** the forms of energy possessed by a hot air balloon when it is up in the air (Figure 9.19).

Figure 9.16 Wood stores energy that can be released in a form of useful energy when burned.

Figure 9.17 What energy does the man gain as he climbs the stairs?

Figure 9.18 Lightning emits energy.

Figure 9.19 What forms of energy does this hot air balloon have?

9 **Identify** the main form of energy that peanuts contain.

10 Use the diagram in Figure 9.20 to answer the following questions.

- a **Identify** which letter represents the position where the ball has the most GPE.
- b If the ball moved from C to A, **state** if there would there be an overall gain or loss of GPE.

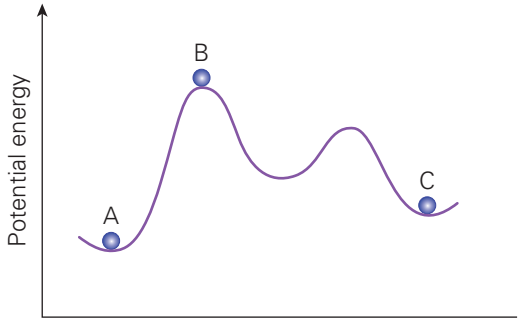

Figure 9.20 Gravitational potential energy

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Applying

11 **Describe** a situation that involves elastic potential energy.

12 **Describe** how sound energy travels.

13 **Explain** what is meant by the term 'potential energy'.

14 **Explain** which balloon in Figure 9.21 has the most elastic potential energy.

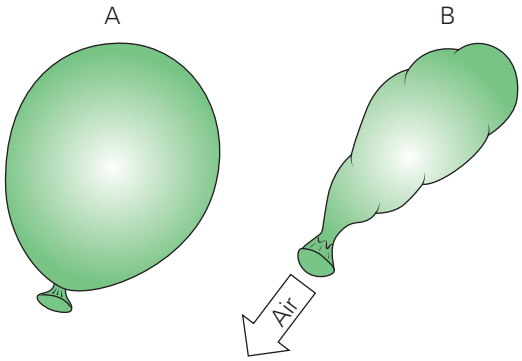

Figure 9.21 The elastic potential energy of balloons

Analysing

15 **Organise** the following list of energy sources from most used to least used in your household:

- electrical energy
- chemical energy
- sound energy
- light energy
- thermal energy.

16 Examine Figure 9.22 and **identify** all the different forms of energy that you can see evidence of.

Figure 9.22 A kitchen contains many different forms of energy.

Evaluating

17 List the devices in your home that use energy. Include at least two that don't use electricity, at least one of which should be a manual (unpowered) device. For each device in the list, **determine** the form of energy used as the input (that operates them) and the forms of energy that they output (include the 'useful' output as well as the outputs that represent wasted energy).

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9.2 Energy is conserved

WORKSHEET

Learning goals

1 To be able to define the law of conservation of energy.
2 To be able to draw and interpret energy transformation diagrams.
3 To be able to calculate the energy efficiency using energy of inputs and outputs.

Objects possess energy, and energy can be changed from one form to another. When energy changes from one form to another, it obeys the **law of conservation of energy**: energy can neither be created nor destroyed. In any process, the amount of energy present at the beginning must equal the amount of energy present at the end. In everyday life this law always holds. However, early in the last century, Einstein made a significant discovery: mass is directly related to energy and can be converted into one another!

law of conservation of energy
the law that states that energy cannot be created or destroyed

energy transfer
the movement of energy from one place or object to another

Energy transfer

Kinetic transfer

Energy is the ability of an object to do work, and this energy can be transferred from one object to another. This is known as an **energy transfer**. For example, a golf club has kinetic energy when it swings through the air. When the club hits a golf ball, this kinetic energy is transferred to the ball, making it move.

Figure 9.23 City lights in Perth. The law of conservation of energy means the amount of electrical energy used by each light is exactly the same as the sum of the amounts of thermal energy and light energy given out.

Figure 9.24 When a golfer hits a golf ball, they transfer kinetic energy from the golf club to the ball.

Quick check 9.5

1 State the law of conservation of energy.
2 Explain the meaning of the law of conservation of energy.

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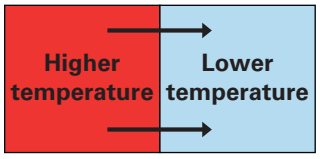
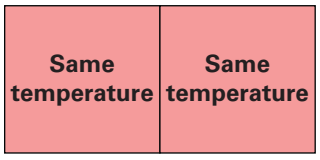
Heat transfer

Thermal energy is another type of energy that can be transferred. If an object of high temperature is placed next to an object of lower temperature, thermal energy will flow from the hotter object to the cooler object. This will continue until the objects are the same temperature. This flow of energy is always from high to low temperature, not the other way around.



Before
Thermal energy flow



After
The objects are the same temperature.

Figure 9.25 Heat (thermal energy in transit) flows from an object of higher temperature to one of lower temperature, until the objects are at the same temperature.

Energy transformations

generator
a device that converts rotational kinetic energy into electrical energy, i.e. the opposite of a motor

turbine
a device that converts the kinetic energy of a fluid into useful work, e.g. a windmill

input energy
the energy that a machine or device uses as its source of energy

output energy
the energy that a machine or device provides or wastes

There are many ways in which energy can be converted from one form to another. Combustion involves burning, and converts chemical energy into thermal energy and light. Machines use fuel or electrical energy and convert it into kinetic energy. **Generators**, powered by steam **turbines**, can convert kinetic energy into electrical energy. In leaves, the biological processes in photosynthesis convert light energy from the Sun into chemical energy in the form of carbohydrates, such as sugars. Thermal energy is often produced as a by-product of energy transfers.

Energy transformations can be represented in a flow diagram (see Figure 9.26). On the left-hand side of the flow diagram are the energy **inputs**. On the right-hand side are the energy **outputs**. Waste energy may be included as an energy output, but is sometimes omitted. A brief description of how the machine works may be placed between them, and arrows can be added to show the flow of energy.

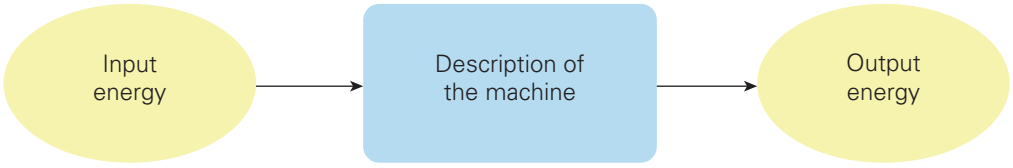


Figure 9.26 A simple energy flow diagram

For example, Figure 9.27 shows the energy flow diagram for a candle that has been lit.

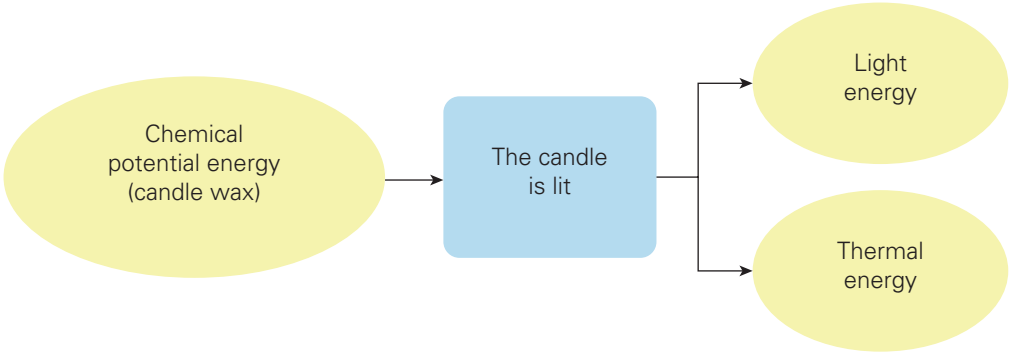


Figure 9.27 An energy flow diagram for a burning candle

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Some energy flow diagrams may have intermediate steps involving another form of energy. For example, a battery-powered torch has a more complex energy flow diagram (see Figure 9.28).

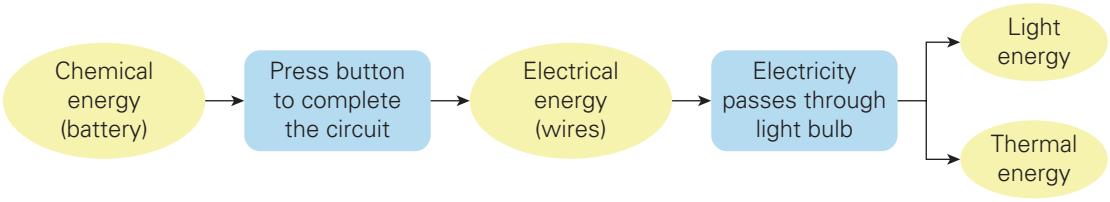

Figure 9.28 An energy flow diagram for a battery-powered torch

Investigating an electric kettle

An electric kettle uses electrical energy to boil water. It contains a heating element that converts electrical energy to thermal energy when electricity passes through it. The heating element then heats the water in the kettle to 100°C, at which point the water boils.

Figure 9.29 An electric kettle converts electrical energy into thermal energy.

Figure 9.30 shows a flow diagram representing the changes in energy in the example of the kettle.

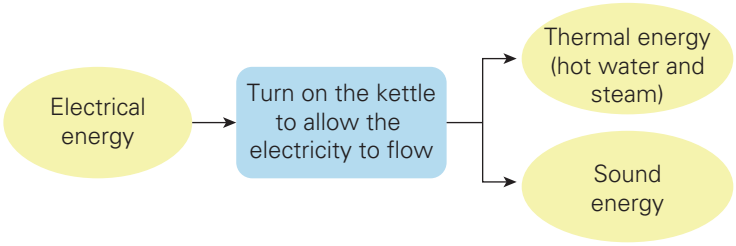

Figure 9.30 An energy flow diagram for an electric kettle

Quick check 9.6

1 Explain what occurs during an energy transformation.
2 Provide two examples of an appliance that transforms energy.

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Explore! 9.2

Fire starting

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples traditionally use several different methods to light fires. The most common are called the *fire drill* and *fire saw* methods (Figure 9.31)

For the fire (or hand) drill method, a v-shaped notch is cut into a flat piece of wood (called the hearth). Bark or dried grass is placed under the hearth to catch embers and a thin, long stick (called the drill stick) is pushed into the notch and twirled vigorously by rubbing it between the hands. The friction between the two pieces of wood causes the end of the drill stick to glow red and embers are formed. The hearth is tapped to move the embers to the bark or dried grass, and then blown on until a flame forms.

The fire saw method works by rubbing two pieces of wood together in a sawing motion. One piece of wood has a notch at the end of it (or a split branch can be used), while the other is a piece of hardwood with sharp edge (for example, a boomerang). The hardwood saws the notched piece until embers form, which ignite flammable material placed beneath it.

Figure 9.31 Can you identify the drill method and the saw method in this illustration?

Two other methods used less commonly were the *fire plough* and *percussion* methods. The first method was mainly used by people in the north-west of Australia. It involves rapidly rubbing a stick back and forth within a trough or groove cut into the base timber to create embers. Groups in south-central Australia used percussion methods of fire starting, which involved striking stones together to create sparks that would ignite dried grass.

1 Which method do you predict is the most efficient to start a fire?
2 Conduct some research to find out whether your prediction was correct or not.
3 Draw an energy flow diagram for the fire stick method.

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Investigating a car accelerating from rest

A petrol-powered car accelerating on a flat road uses its engine to convert the chemical potential energy of the fuel into kinetic energy as the car increases its speed.

Figure 9.32 An accelerating car is gaining kinetic energy.

Figure 9.33 shows a flow diagram for a petrol-driven car accelerating from rest.

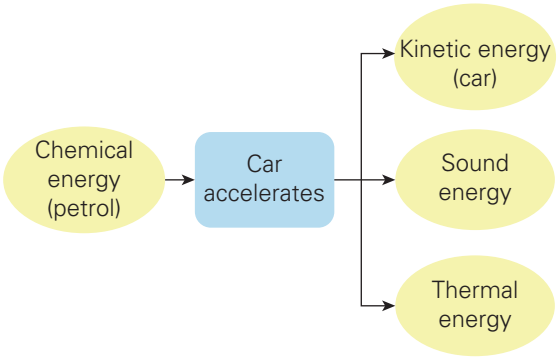

Figure 9.33 An energy flow diagram for a petrol-driven car accelerating from rest

If the car were powered by an electric battery, then the energy flow diagram would be slightly different (Figure 9.34).

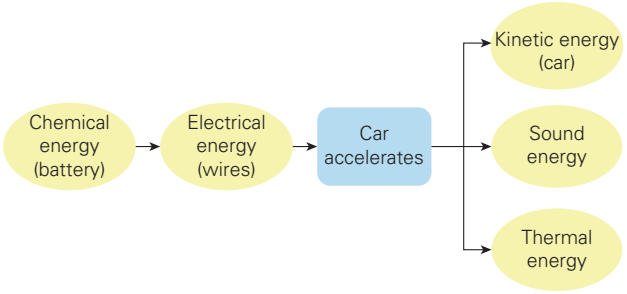

Figure 9.34 An energy flow diagram for a battery-powered car accelerating from rest

Try this 9.4

Transforming potential energy into kinetic energy

Stand with your legs far apart and your arms above your head, in a star-jump position. Discuss what type of energy you are storing as you hold this position. As you complete a star-jump, think about what type of energy your stored energy is being transformed into. With your classmates, discuss which parts of your star-jump contain stored energy and which parts use kinetic energy.

Investigating a bow and arrow

When a bow is stretched to shoot an arrow, the wood bends with an elastic force, and this stores energy. The further the bow is pulled, the more energy is stored. When the arrow is released, the elastic potential energy is converted to kinetic energy as the arrow increases its speed.

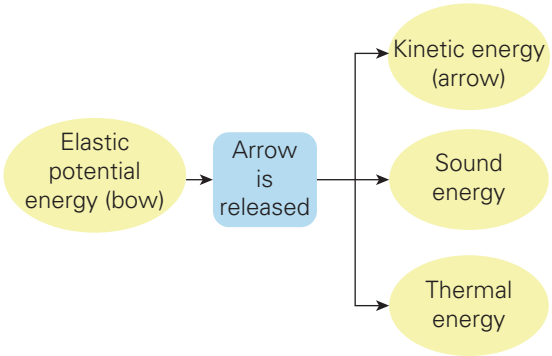

Figure 9.35 An energy flow diagram for an arrow being shot from a bow

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Investigating a hot air balloon

The operation of a hot air balloon involves two energy changes. When the hot air balloon first takes off, chemical potential energy is stored in the form of natural gas (in the gas cylinder in the basket of the balloon). When the gas is burned, it releases thermal energy, which heats the air in the balloon. The air in the balloon expands as it warms up, and this makes the air inside the balloon lighter than the air around the balloon. The balloon then rises, due to buoyancy forces, gaining kinetic energy and gravitational potential energy as it gains altitude.

Investigating an aircraft taking off

Sometimes a machine can convert a source of energy into two forms at the same time. When an aircraft takes off, it starts moving slowly from one end of the runway and then accelerates under full power until it leaves the ground at the other end. When it first starts its take-off, the jet has chemical potential energy stored in the form of aviation fuel in its tanks. The fuel is ignited in the jet engines to produce a force that accelerates the aircraft along the runway, gaining kinetic energy as it does so. When the aircraft reaches sufficient speed, it lifts off and gains gravitational potential energy as it rises into the air.

VIDEO
Energy transformations in a hot air balloon

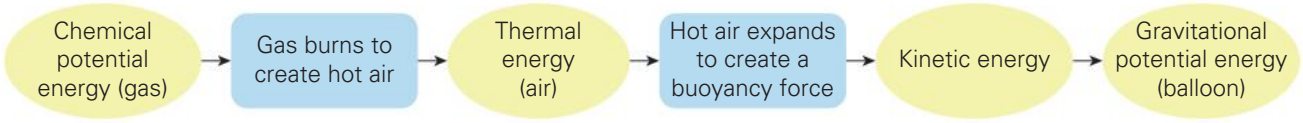

Figure 9.36 An energy flow diagram for a hot air balloon

Figure 9.37 A hot air balloon converts chemical energy to thermal energy, then kinetic energy as it moves, then gravitational potential energy as it gets higher.

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Figure 9.38 An aircraft converts chemical potential energy to kinetic energy and gravitational potential energy.

Aircraft engines also convert chemical energy to heat and sound; therefore, thermal energy and sound energy should also be added to the energy flow diagram.

In Figure 9.39, the approximate percentages of the two forms of waste energy have been added to the flow diagram for an aircraft. These can be included if they are known. Remember, the total amount of input energy must exactly equal the total output energy when waste energy is included.

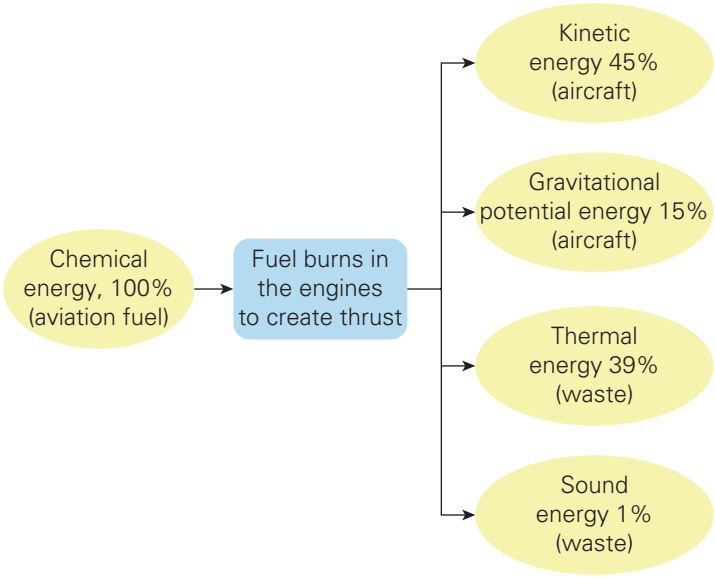

Figure 9.39 An energy flow diagram for an aircraft taking off

In this example, the useful energy is kinetic energy (45%) and gravitational potential energy (15%), which adds up to 60%. This means that 60% of the energy input is converted to useful energy and the efficiency rating of the aircraft's engines is 60%. The other 40% is wasted through thermal and sound energy.

WIDGET
Energy forms and transformations

Quick check 9.7

1 Draw flow diagrams for the following energy transformations.
   a A television converting electrical energy to sound, thermal and light energy
   b A light bulb converting electrical energy to light and thermal energy
   c A human converting chemical potential energy from food into kinetic energy when moving

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Waste energy

An electric light uses electrical energy to produce light as useful energy; any thermal energy produced is **waste energy**. A petrol-driven lawnmower converts chemical energy in the petrol into kinetic energy and rotational kinetic energy, with thermal energy and sound as waste forms of energy.

Figure 9.40 The chemical energy in petrol is converted into kinetic energy to move the lawnmower.

When a candle burns, chemical potential energy is converted by combustion into light, with thermal energy released as waste energy. A television converts electrical energy to light and sound, which are useful, and thermal energy, which is waste.

A two-step example is a battery-powered torch. The input energy source is chemical potential energy in the battery. This is converted first to electrical energy and then to light energy in the bulb, with some waste thermal energy also. In the same way, a battery-powered radio converts chemical energy (in the batteries) to electrical energy, then to sound.

Useful energy is the output energy the process is designed to produce. Waste energy is any other form of energy, usually thermal energy or sound, that is not wanted.

Figure 9.41 A battery radio converts chemical energy in the batteries into sound energy.

Energy efficiency

The **efficiency** of a machine is a measure of how good the machine is at converting the input energy to **useful energy**. The percentage of input energy that is converted to useful energy is used to give the machine an efficiency rating.

waste energy
the output energy that a machine produces that is not useful; waste energy is often in the form of thermal energy and sound

efficiency
the percentage of input energy that is converted to useful energy by a machine

useful energy
the output energy that a machine is designed to produce; an efficient machine will maximise the useful energy it creates

The formula used to calculate the efficiency rating of a machine is:

$$\text{Efficiency (\%)} = \frac{\text{useful output energy}}{\text{input energy}} \times 100$$

Figure 9.42 Running upstairs converts chemical energy into KE. Once the women reach the top of the stairs, energy has been converted to GPE.

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Examples of efficiency calculations

Example 1

A kettle uses 261 500 J of electrical energy to heat 500 mL of water. If the thermal energy of the water is 209 200 J, calculate the efficiency of the kettle.

$$\text{Efficiency (\%)} = \frac{\text{useful output energy}}{\text{input energy}} \times 100$$
$$= \frac{209\,200}{261\,500} \times 100$$
$$= 80\%$$

Example 2

A girl runs upstairs and uses up 4000 J of energy from food she has eaten. If she gains 1000 J of gravitational potential energy, calculate the efficiency of her muscles.

$$\text{Efficiency (\%)} = \frac{\text{useful output energy}}{\text{input energy}} \times 100$$
$$= \frac{1000}{4000} \times 100$$
$$= 25\%$$

The other 75% would be waste energy, lost mainly as thermal energy as she climbs.

Try this 9.5

Calculating energy efficiency

Calculate the energy efficiency of each of the globes shown below. State which globe is no longer recommended for household use, and justify your choice.

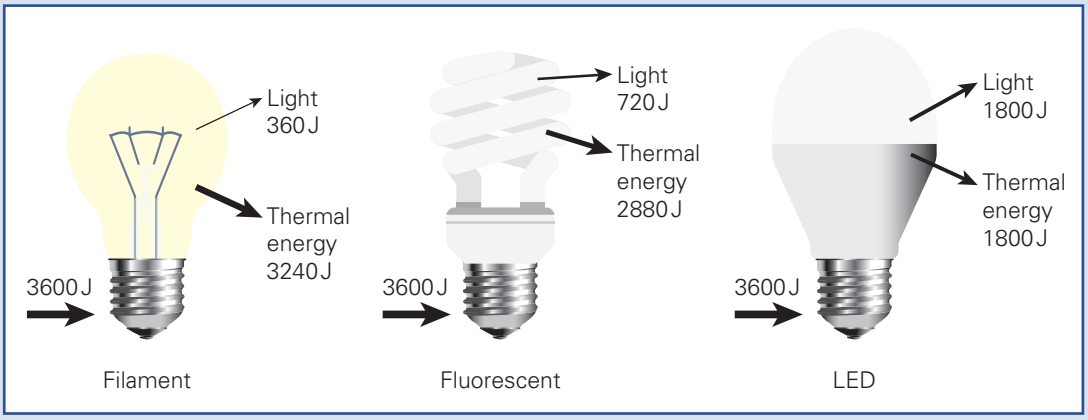

Figure 9.43 How efficient is each type of globe?

Did you know? 9.5

Efficient light globes

Old-fashioned incandescent light bulbs work by passing electricity through a thin metal filament, which glows white hot. However, about 90% of that electrical energy is transformed into thermal energy. These days, compact fluorescent lights (CFLs) and light-emitting diodes (LEDs) are more efficient. About 50% of the electrical energy is wasted as thermal energy.

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Quick check 9.8

1 Define 'energy efficiency'.
2 State an example of the useful and waste energy produced by each of the following devices. You may do so in a table as shown.

Device	Useful energy output	Waste energy output
Light bulb		
Car		
Lawnmower		

3 A light bulb uses 3000 J of electrical energy. Of this, 600 J is transformed into light energy and 2400 J is transformed into thermal energy. Calculate the energy efficiency of this globe.

Practical 9.2

Energy efficiency of bouncy balls

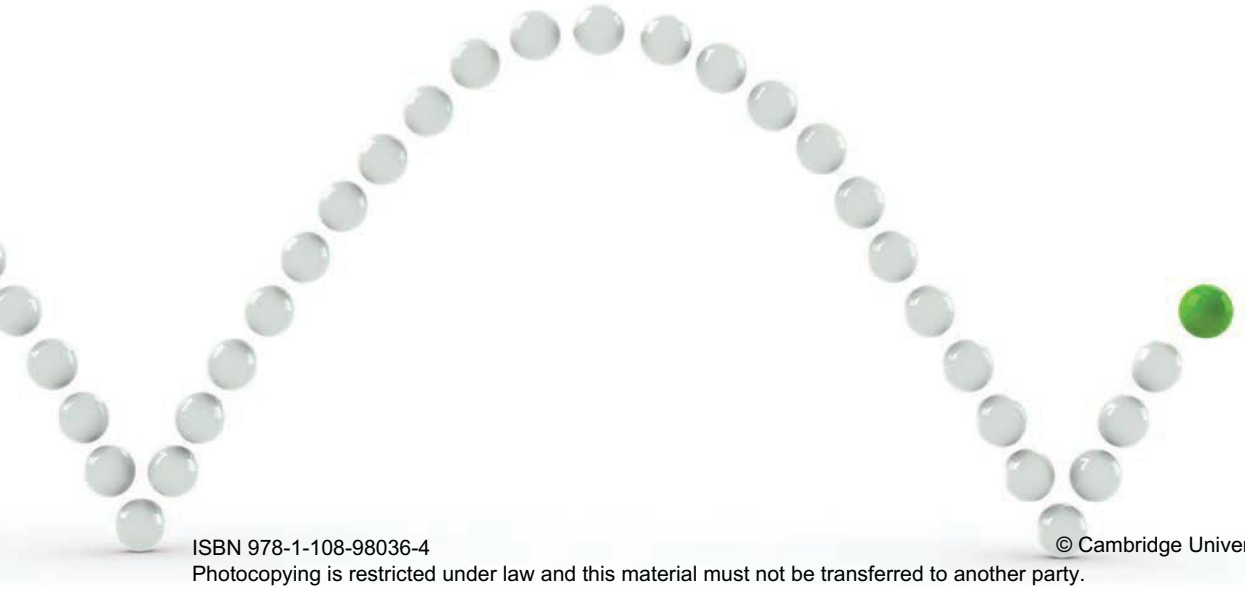
Aim
To investigate which type of bouncy ball is most energy efficient

Materials
- a range of bouncy balls
- metre rulers

Method
Design an experiment that will test the rebound height of a range of bouncy balls. In a group, discuss how you will carry out this experiment, and write a step-by-step method.

Results
Draw a results table for your experiment.
Produce a suitable graph for your experiment.

Discussion
1 By using the energy efficiency equation, calculate the efficiency of each type of ball. Use the drop height and the rebound height in your calculations.
2 Identify sources of uncertainty in your experiment.
3 Suggest how your experiment may be improved.



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Section 9.2 questions

QUIZ

Remembering

1 Look closely at Figure 9.44.
   a **Identify** the components of the playground that involve gravitational potential energy.
   b **State** a way in which elastic potential energy could be incorporated into this playground setting.

Figure 9.44 A playground

Understanding

2 **Describe** the difference between an energy transfer and an energy transformation.
3 **Describe** the energy transformation that occurs in the Sun.
4 **Describe** four situations that involve potential energy.

Applying

5 **Draw** an energy flow diagram for each of the following situations.
   a A stone is dropped from the top of a building.
   b A car is slowing down as it moves up a hill.
   c A charcoal fire is burning in a barbecue.
   d A bungee jumper jumps from the top of the jump to the bottom.

Figure 9.45 A charcoal barbecue

Figure 9.46 An electric passenger train

Figure 9.47 People riding escalators

Figure 9.48 A dog in action

   e An electric passenger train starts from rest and builds up to full speed.
   f A person rides on an escalator from the bottom to the top.
   g A sheepdog runs up a hill.

Analysing

6 Think about all the different types of energy we encounter every day, such as being driven in a car. Pick another example and **consider** how you can make the process more energy efficient.

Evaluating

7 Cars are energy inefficient.
   a **Determine** the input form of energy, and the useful and wasted forms of energy output.
   b **Propose** some other forms of transport that are more energy efficient.

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9.3 Applications of energy

Learning goals

1 To be able to define renewable and non-renewable sources of energy.
2 To be able to provide examples of renewable and non-renewable sources of energy.

WORKSHEET

Energy in housing

In our homes, we use machines and appliances every day. Some appliances use little energy, others use a lot, some are very efficient and some are inefficient. The energy source for most appliances in the typical home is electricity, although gas and **solar energy** are also widely used. Items that use little energy, such as radios and torches, can use batteries as the source of energy.

One of the big expenses in maintaining a home is the cost of energy. Electricity and gas are both expensive; however, solar energy is free once you have paid for the solar panels and their installation. Electricity can be generated by solar panels on the roofs of houses (Figure 9.49). Energy from the Sun can also be used to heat water directly using solar water heaters.

Figure 9.49 This house has solar panels on the roof to generate electricity. It also has two panels (at the top right-hand side of the picture) for generating hot water.

Energy ratings

Most appliances have an energy rating label. This is to help people make an informed decision about an appliance they are thinking of buying, by giving them information about its energy efficiency.

The star rating of an appliance allows you to compare the energy efficiency of similar models (Figure 9.50). The more stars an appliance has, the more energy efficient it is. The label also informs you of the energy consumption of the appliance. The lower this number, the less it will cost to run the machine.

solar energy
a renewable source of energy obtained from converting sunlight directly into electrical or thermal energy

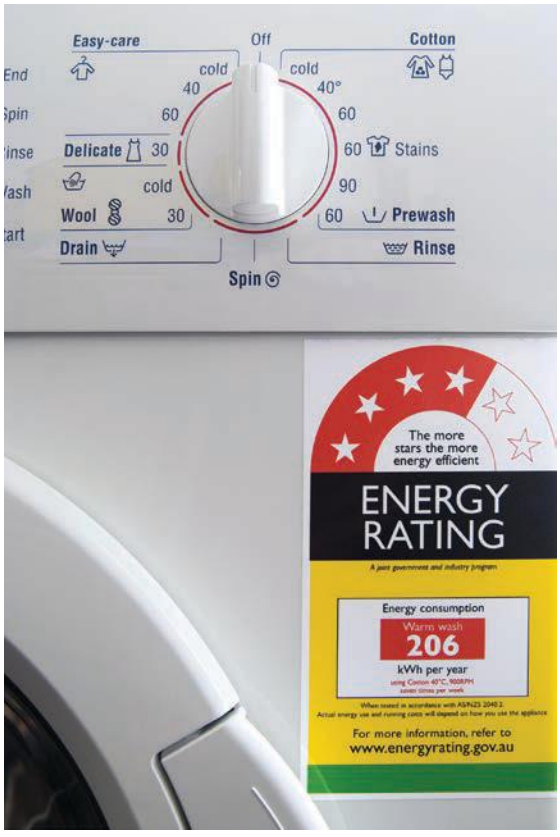

Figure 9.50 The energy rating labels on washing machines help consumers compare the energy efficiency of different models.

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Try this 9.6

Home electricity audit

Use the Australian Government's 'Energy rating calculator' website to audit the energy efficiency of appliances around your house. You may choose to investigate your TV, washing machine, dishwasher or fridge. Compare how much it costs to run each appliance for a year.

Which appliance costs the most to use? Choose one appliance and compare its yearly running costs with one from a classmate. Who has the more cost-saving model?

Explore! 9.3

Homes of the future

Imagine it is the year 2100. The way homes are designed and constructed has changed as we have been tackling energy-efficiency problems. Passive housing has become commonplace. Passive housing means designing houses so they are as efficient as possible without having to rely on technology such as heaters and air conditioners. Go online to research the following questions.

1 What is passive housing?
2 What are the benefits of passive housing?
3 Which parts of a house lose and gain the most thermal energy?
4 Explain the five design principles of passive housing.

Science as a human endeavour 9.2

Net zero home

Leading climate scientist Mark Z. Jacobson is helping the world transition to renewable energy sources. To show us how it can be done, he has built a 'net zero' home, which uses only renewable energy sources.

The house features a thermal shell, which acts as an insulating layer and reduces heating requirements, and is equipped with solar panels. Battery packs store any extra energy generated by the solar panels. This alone is enough to not only meet the energy needs of the home, but to put power back into the grid.

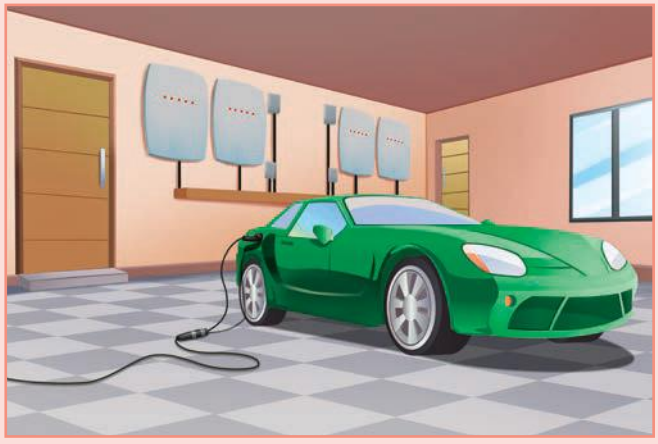

Figure 9.51 The net zero house has battery packs to store solar energy.

Quick check 9.9

1 Name one type of renewable energy that can be easily used in households.
2 Explain how you can easily compare the energy efficiency of two models of a washing machine.
3 Explain why it is beneficial to buy energy-efficient appliances, even though they can be more expensive than other models.

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Energy problems

Some energy sources, such as wind and solar, will not run out unless wind on Earth stops blowing and the Sun stops shining. Methods of energy production that do not use up natural resources are called **renewable**. Other energy sources, such as coal, oil and gas, are not renewable. Once these sources run out, they are gone forever.

Another major consideration in choosing an energy source is the effect it has on the environment. Some methods of energy production, such as burning coal, create pollution that damages the environment. In addition, when wood, oil, gas or coal is burned, greenhouse gases, which have the potential to cause climate change, are produced. Methods of energy production that are non-polluting or have a small effect on the environment are called **sustainable**.

The demand for energy has increased steadily since the Industrial Revolution almost 300 years ago, and it is still increasing today as more countries become industrialised. Scientists are constantly looking for ways to make the production of energy more efficient and to reduce its effect on the environment. Some of the main methods of generating energy are summarised in the following pages.

Figure 9.53 A wind-energy turbine (foreground) provides renewable energy, while a coal-fired power station (background) is an example of a non-renewable energy source.

renewable
can be produced as quickly as it is used

sustainable
causing little or no damage to the environment and therefore able to continue for a long time

fossil fuel
a non-renewable energy source such as oil, coal or natural gas

non-renewable
existing in limited quantities that cannot be replaced after they have all been used

Non-renewable sources of energy

Coal

Fossil fuels are a **non-renewable** source of energy. Most deposits of coal formed 300 million years ago during the Carboniferous Period. This was 100 million years before the dinosaurs, when Earth was warm,

Figure 9.52 The production of greenhouse gas from burning fossil fuels is leading to habitat loss for many animals, including polar bears in the Arctic.

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Figure 9.54 Open-cut coal mines show how coal is formed in layers.

Figure 9.55 The Loy Yang power station, in Victoria, converts the chemical potential energy in coal into electrical energy.

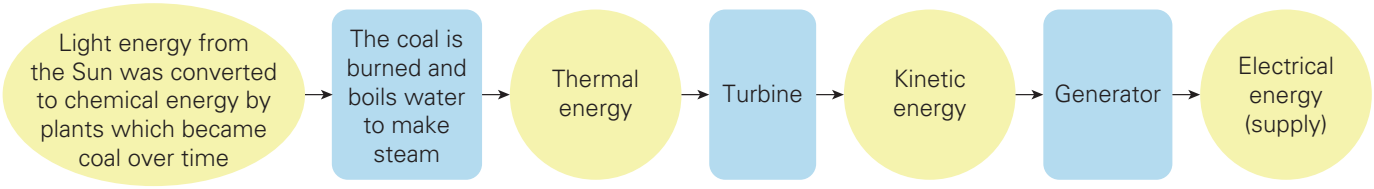

Figure 9.56 An energy flow diagram for a coal-fired power station

wet and covered with giant forests. Eventually the forests died and layers of sand and mud, which later turned into rock, covered the dead trees. Deep underground and under high temperature and pressure, the remains of the forest trees changed into coal.

Coal is mined and then transported to a power station where it is used to generate electricity (Figure 9.55). When all the coal has been used up, there will be no more left. That is why coal is considered non-renewable.

The energy flow diagram for a coal-fired power station is shown in Figure 9.56.

Nuclear energy

Nuclear energy is an option for countries that have the technology to build nuclear power stations. Unlike all other forms of energy production, nuclear energy does not rely ultimately on the Sun. Instead, the fuel comes from radioactive materials, mainly uranium, found within Earth's crust. These materials were inside Earth when it formed, around 4.5 billion years ago. The mass of fuel required is a tiny fraction of that required to run a coal-burning power station. Although the materials used in nuclear power generation are not renewable, it is unlikely that the world will ever run out of nuclear fuel.

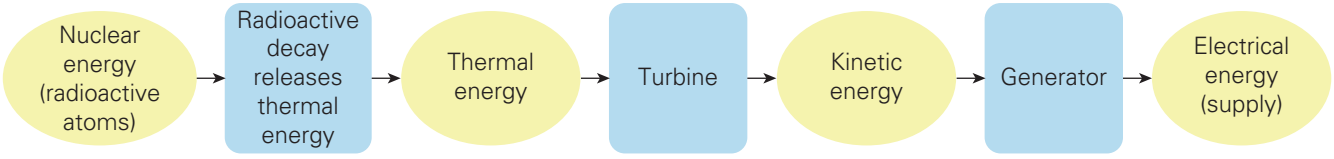

Figure 9.57 An energy flow diagram for a nuclear power station.

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Although nuclear energy has the potential to supply the world's energy needs when fossil fuels start to run out, there are some problems with nuclear energy that need to be taken into account, including the risk of nuclear meltdown and the disposal of nuclear waste.

The energy flow diagram for a nuclear power station is shown in Figure 9.57.

Did you know? 9.6

Australian uranium

Australia is the world's third-largest uranium producer, after Kazakhstan and Canada. All the uranium mined in Australia is exported because there is no nuclear power plant here to use it. However, there is a nuclear reactor at Lucas Heights on the outskirts of Sydney, operated by the Australian Nuclear Science and Technology Organisation (ANSTO). It is used for research and nuclear medicine purposes. It generates 20 megawatts. One megawatt of capacity will produce electricity that is approximately the same amount of electricity consumed by 400–600 homes in a year.

Quick check 9.10

1. Define 'non-renewable'.
2. Recall the types of non-renewable energy sources used in Australia.
3. Define 'sustainable' with respect to energy production.
4. State how and why the demand for energy has changed over the years.

Figure 9.58 The striking sight of a wind turbine at the Emu Downs wind farm at Badgingarra, Western Australia

Renewable energy sources

VIDEO Australian renewables

Most people recognise that our current use of fossil fuels cannot be sustained indefinitely, because eventually these fuels will run out. This has led to a great deal of research into finding and implementing renewable energy sources.

Wind energy

Wind energy is a renewable energy source in which electrical energy is generated using large wind turbines, usually built in groups called wind farms. The advantage of wind energy is that, once the wind turbine has been built, wind energy is free, non-polluting and available at night. The main disadvantage is that it depends on the availability of the wind. For this reason, the energy that wind turbines produce is intermittent and must be combined with a storage capability, such as a battery, to provide a continuous energy supply.

The energy flow diagram for a wind turbine is shown in Figure 9.59.

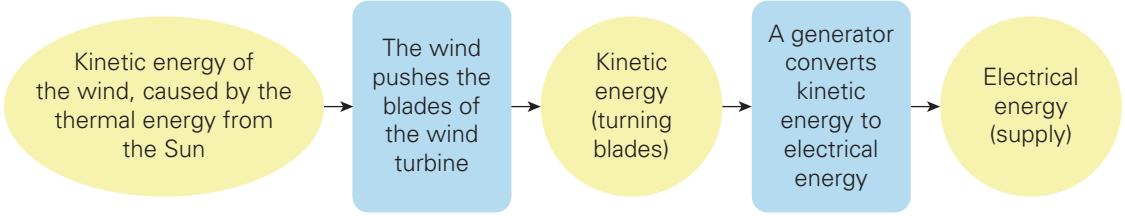

Figure 9.59 An energy flow diagram for a wind turbine

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Solar energy

Solar energy is a renewable energy source. Solar panels convert the energy in sunlight directly into electrical energy and can also supply energy to provide hot water. The advantages of solar panels are that the energy they produce is free once the initial cost is met, and they are non-polluting to use. When solar panels are combined with storage batteries, they can provide a constant supply of energy, as the batteries store energy during the day and release it at night.

Figure 9.60 Solar panels convert sunlight into electricity.

The energy flow diagram for a solar panel is shown in Figure 9.61.

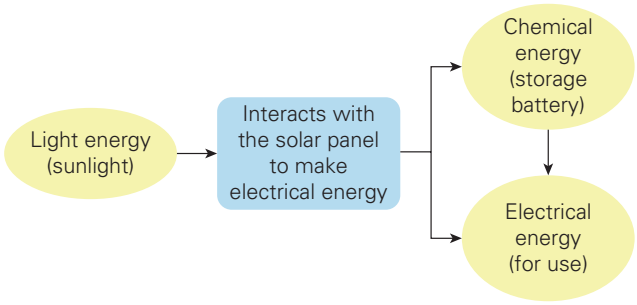

Figure 9.61 An energy flow diagram for a photovoltaic solar panel with a storage battery

Hydroelectric power

hydroelectric power
a renewable source of energy harnessing the gravitational potential energy of water to generate electrical energy

Hydroelectric power is generated by using the gravitational potential energy of water held in dams to drive turbines that generate electricity. The dams are designed so that the water surface is as high above the turbines and generators as possible. The water's gravitational potential energy is converted to kinetic energy by turbines at the base of the dam or as far below it as possible. These turbines turn generators that convert this kinetic energy into electrical energy.

Mountainous countries are well suited to hydroelectric energy generation. For example, Norway generates around 95% of its energy in this way. In Australia, hydroelectric energy accounts for around 6% of total energy production. Western Australia's largest hydroelectric plant is the Ord River Hydro Power station, which provides electricity to the northern Western Australian towns of Kununarra and Wyndham.

Figure 9.62 Lake Argyle is shown above the Ord River Dam. Water is carried by gravity through pipes from Lake Argyle down to turbines and generators in the power station at the bottom of the dam, converting gravitational potential energy into electrical energy.

The energy flow diagram for hydroelectricity generation is shown in Figure 9.63.

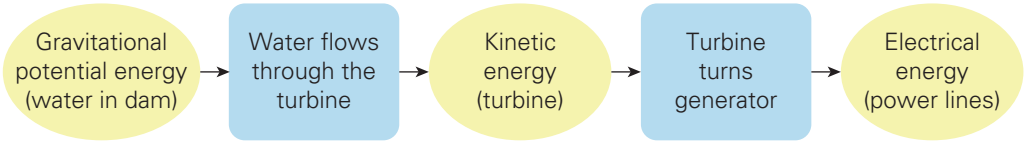

Figure 9.63 An energy flow diagram for hydroelectricity generation

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Geothermal energy

Geothermal energy is both sustainable and renewable. It is thermal energy left over from Earth's formation, as well as radioactive decay. Where Earth's crust is fractured or thin, it is possible to drill down to find rocks hot enough to boil water. Cold water is pumped down to this hot rock. The water boils, producing steam, which is brought to the surface and used to generate electrical energy.

geothermal energy
thermal energy that originates from inside Earth

The energy flow diagram for geothermal energy is shown in Figure 9.64.

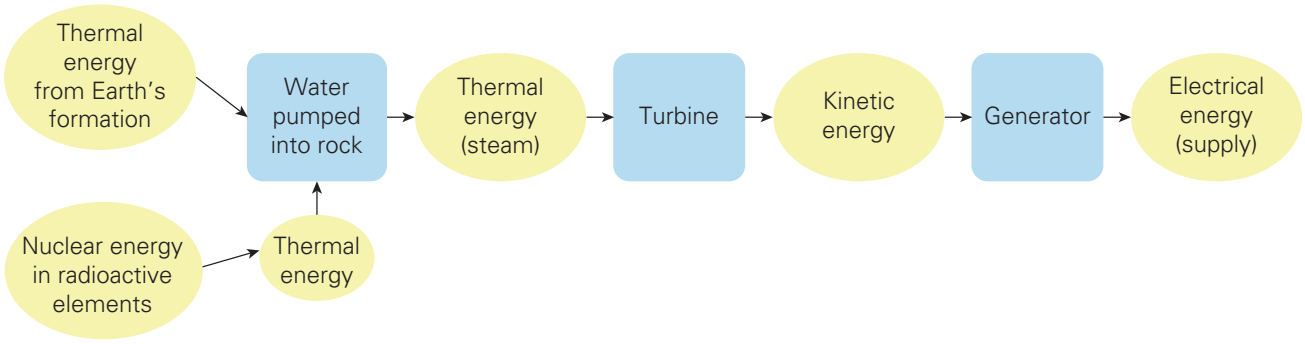

Figure 9.64 An energy flow diagram for geothermal energy

Figure 9.65 The Wairakei Power Station in New Zealand uses geothermal energy to produce electricity.

Quick check 9.11

1 Define 'renewable energy source'.
2 Recall some different types of renewable energy.
3 Draw a flow diagram to show the energy transformations that occur while producing electricity from wind turbines.

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Explore! 9.4

Providing technology to remote communities

Around 7 million people (28% of the population) live in rural and remote areas of Australia. Providing basic services such as electricity and clean water to remote or isolated areas can be very difficult, let alone modern technology such as mobile phone and internet coverage. Despite these difficulties, people remain in these areas because of their connection to the land.

1 Research what is being done to provide basic modern services to remote communities, including any new technology such as solar thermal collectors and battery banks.
2 What are the economic and ethical considerations in providing services to smaller groups of people in remote locations?

Figure 9.66 About 10% of Alice Spring's energy is generated from renewables. The challenge is serving communities that are as far as 130 km from the town.

Explore! 9.5

Turning waste into energy

A lot of energy in modern life goes unused in the form of food scraps and animal wastes. A UK-based company is trying to change that by harnessing the power of detritus (waste material). Use the website of SEaB Energy (a UK company that converts organic waste into energy) to answer the following questions.

1 Why is food and animal waste such an issue for the world and the environment?
2 Explain how SEaB Energy's two main products, the Muckbuster™ and the Flexibuster®, work.
3 Draw a flow diagram showing the energy transformations that would occur in harnessing energy from food and animal waste.

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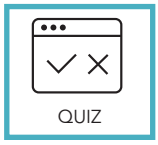
Section 9.3 questions



Remembering

1 **State** the fossil fuels used to provide energy in Australia.
2 **Recall** approximately how many years ago most coal deposits were formed.
3 **State** some sources of energy that harness water.
4 A cyclist used 1000 kJ of energy riding to work. Of this, 250 kJ was transformed into kinetic energy to move his muscles. The other 750 kJ was transformed into thermal energy. **Calculate** the energy efficiency of the cyclist.

Understanding

5 **Describe** the main reason behind switching to renewable energy sources.
6 **Explain** how energy is produced using thermal energy from Earth.
7 **Draw** an energy flow diagram for a hydroelectric power station.
8 **Explain** the difference between 'renewable' and 'sustainable'.
9 **Explain** why nuclear energy is not considered renewable.
10 **Explain** how non-renewable energy sources are causing global warming.
11 **Explain** why each of the renewable sources of energy is considered 'renewable'.

Applying

12 **Draw** an energy flow diagram for a petrol engine car travelling at a constant speed on a flat road.
13 **Summarise** ways in which you can make your house more energy efficient. For each suggestion, explain how it works.

Analysing

14 The following information applies to two different models of fridge. Note that the cost of electricity in Western Australia is about $0.39 per kilowatt hour (kWh).

	Model 1	Model 2
Energy star rating	4	3
Energy consumption per year (kWh)	185	240
Price of fridge ($)	550	499

Compare the fridges and decide which one you would buy. Give reasons for your choice.

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15 **Consider** what the man is doing in Figure 9.67. Explain why the homeowners have hired him to do this job.

Figure 9.67 What is this man doing?

Evaluating

16 **Propose** one drawback of using solar energy as an energy source.

17 **Propose** two reasons why coal may not be suitable as a long-term energy source.

18 **Discuss** why inner city trains and trams are powered by electrical energy.

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Chapter review

Chapter checklist

In the Interactive Textbook, the success criteria are linked to the review questions and will be automatically ticked when answers are correct. Alternatively, you can download this checklist from the Interactive Textbook to complete it.

Success criteria		Linked question	Check
9.1	I can define energy.	1	
9.1	I can describe the different types of kinetic and potential energy.	4	
9.1	I can distinguish between temperature, thermal energy and heat.	9	
9.2	I can recall the law of conservation of energy.	13	
9.2	I can describe how energy is transferred and transformed using a flow diagram.	15	
9.2	I can calculate the energy efficiency of different machines.	5	
9.3	I can describe examples of renewable and non-renewable energy sources.	18	

Review questions

Remembering

1 **Define** 'energy' and its units.
2 **State** the kind of energy you increase if you climb a mountain.
3 **Recall** the term for energy that is stored when a spring is compressed.
4 **Select** the correct description for each term.

Term	Description
Sound energy	The energy that moving objects have
Kinetic energy	A form of wave energy that can travel through space
Wave energy	A form of wave energy consisting of vibrations in the air
Thermal energy	Energy carried by a wave travelling on or through a substance
Light energy	The energy that moves between two objects of differing temperatures

5 **Recall** what is meant by 'energy efficiency'.
6 **State** the energy transformations that occur when someone climbs a set of stairs.
7 **State** whether each of the following sentences is true or false.
   a When bouncing a ball, elastic potential energy is involved.
   b An object can have energy even when it is stationary.
   c An object must be moving to transform energy from one form to another.
   d When driving a car, chemical potential, gravitational potential and kinetic energy are involved.

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Understanding

8 **Name** an object that transforms:
   a electrical energy into thermal energy
   b elastic energy into kinetic energy
   c chemical potential energy into kinetic energy
   d chemical potential energy into thermal energy.

9 **Describe** the difference between heat and temperature.

10 Look around your environment and **identify** as many examples of energy as you can see.

11 As you go about your day, **identify** all the different types of energy transformations that occur.

Applying

12 **Draw** a flow diagram showing the energy transformation that occurs in a gas stove.

13 **Explain** why a light globe with an input energy of 1200 J cannot produce 1500 J of light energy.

Analysing

14 **Explain** the difference between an energy-efficient light globe and a less efficient light globe.

15 Use the diagram of a waterwheel in Figure 9.68 to **draw** an energy flow diagram for this process.

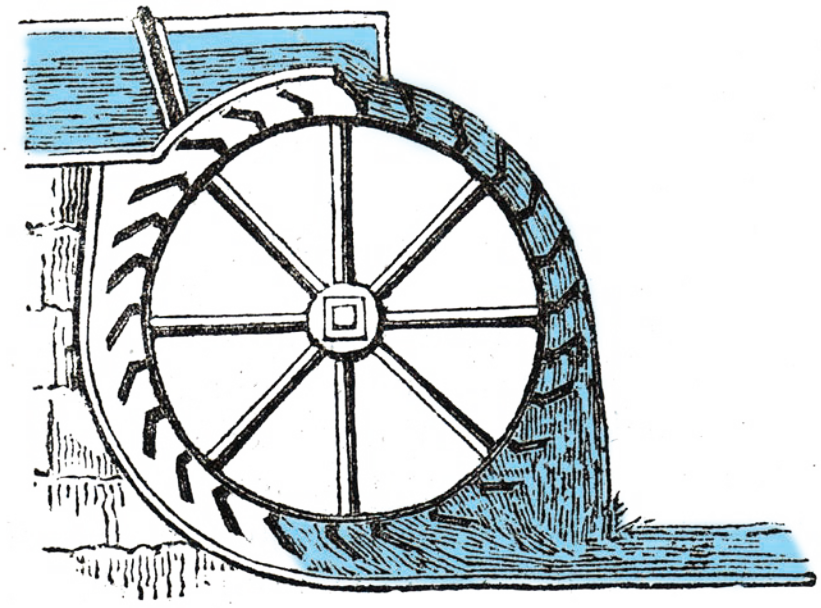

Figure 9.68 A waterwheel

16 Some people use wood-burning stoves to heat their homes. **Consider** whether or not this source of energy is renewable and/or sustainable. Explain your answer.

Evaluating

17 Heavy items of freight are often sent by cargo ships. These boats are powered by diesel, which has replaced coal during the past 100 years.
Evaluate the alternative modern sources of energy and determine whether you think diesel is likely to be replaced soon. Possible alternatives to consider are wind turbines, solar panels and nuclear power.

18 **Discuss** the pros and cons of using nuclear energy.

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Data questions

Solar panels are used across Australia to convert the energy provided by sunlight into electricity. The electricity produced by a typical commercial solar panel in Western Australia throughout a sunny day is shown in Figure 9.69. The efficiency and price of six different solar panel models is also shown in Table 9.4.

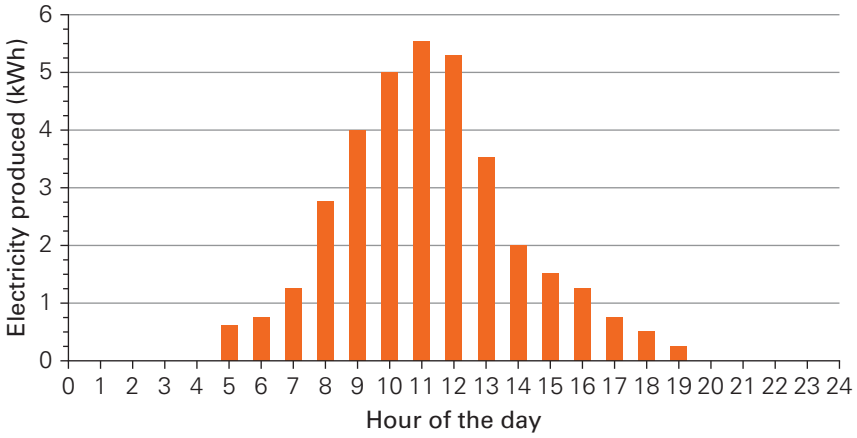

Figure 9.69 Electricity produced, in kilowatt hours, by a typical commercial solar panel throughout a sunny day

Solar panel model	Efficiency (%)	Estimated price ($/m²)
A	46	> 2 000 000
B	44	> 1 000 000
C	37	> 100 000
D	22	120
E	17	80
F	15	70

Table 9.4 Efficiency and cost of different solar panel models

1 **Identify** the time of the day the solar panel presented in Figure 9.69 produces the most electricity.
2 **Calculate** how many hours per day the solar panel can produce electricity.
3 **Identify** the pattern of electricity production throughout a sunny day.
4 Refer to Table 9.4 and **identify** the trend between the efficiency of a solar panel and the price per square metre.
5 **Infer** whether the cost of a solar panel is directly proportional to the efficiency.
6 **Deduce** why electricity is not produced between midnight and 4 a.m. and again between 8 p.m. and midnight.
7 **Predict** the effect on the data in Figure 9.69 if the weather was an overcast and rainy.
8 A homeowner in Western Australia would like to install solar panels on the roof of their home. The owner would like a solar panel with an efficiency above 20% to cover 3 m^2. **Deduce** the type of solar panel and the lowest price that the homeowner could pay for these requirements.
9 Based on the general shape of the data presented in Figure 9.69, **justify** why the angle at which the solar panel is oriented on a roof is important for a higher electricity production.

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STEM activity: Wind power

Background information

Wind power has been used for generations as a method of generating usable energy. Wind turns the turbine and generates mechanical energy. From providing energy to pump water from a reservoir to electricity generation, wind power has many uses, and a major benefit is its ability to be generated in remote areas.

Figure 9.70 Different types of wind turbines

Design brief: Design a wind turbine capable of lifting an object.

Activity instructions

In groups you will design and construct a simple wind turbine capable of lifting weights from the floor up to bench height. Your turbine must be efficient at converting energy and sustainable in its design.

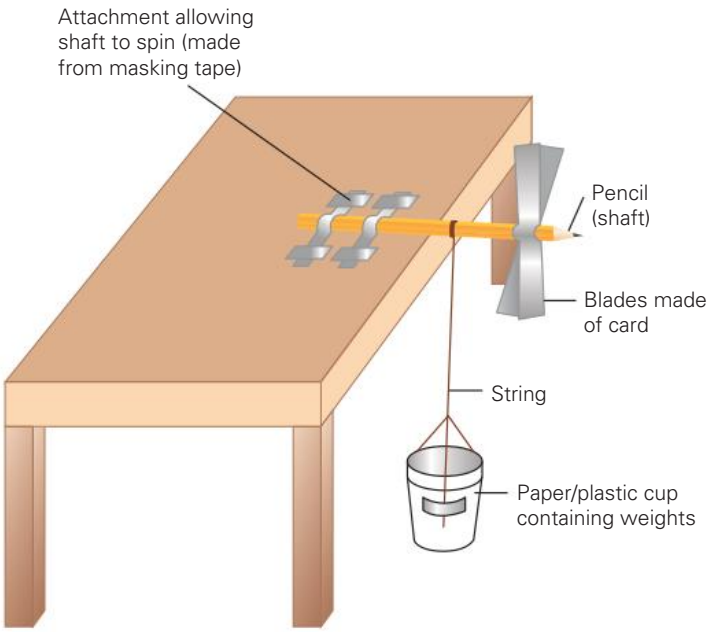

Figure 9.71 You can build ideas around this basic design.

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Suggested materials

- a medium-sized fan (to simulate a constant flow of wind)
- cardboard (different thicknesses if possible)
- masking tape (optional)
- string
- pencils
- scissors
- paper or plastic cup for carrying the load
- weights (you can use Lego® characters as well)
- electronic scale (optional)

Research and feasibility

1 Research and discuss in your group how wind turbine blades are shaped to capture the maximum amount of wind. Consider the materials used in construction, different shaped turbines, and their use in high/low wind areas.

2 Discuss in your group the constraints of your building materials and testing area.

Design and sustainability

3 Sketch and label multiple turbine designs within your group and discuss the effectiveness of the design features based on research.

4 Propose a measure of design efficiency. Think about how you can quantitatively compare the effectiveness of different designs/prototypes. This may include measuring sturdiness, speed of lift, and maximum capacity. Discuss in your group the relationship between blade shape and blade spin for your design.

5 Design a table you can use to test different designs and to find the optimal shape for the wind conditions you are testing for. Trial different fan speeds to see their effect.

6 Discuss how sustainable your design is, and its effect on the environment. Does blade design affect this?

Create

7 Build your design and test it using the weights.

Blade length	Blade width	Blade thickness	Blade angle	Fan speed	Weight being lifted	Time to lift weight

Evaluate and modify

8 Discuss and suggest three possible solutions to the problems you encounter.

9 Predict what would happen to the cup if you turn the fan (wind) off when the cup is halfway between the floor and the tabletop. Now test this scenario and write down your observations. Does it match your prediction?

10 Evaluate and present the most effective design to the class, and discuss why you believed this to be the most effective wind turbine design in this situation.

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Glossary

Chapter 1

accuracy how well a measuring instrument determines the variable it is measuring. It refers to how close a measurement is to the true value. You can increase the accuracy by choosing more appropriate equipment, or by ensuring it is properly calibrated.

bar graph a type of graph used to display the frequency of a qualitative variable (category)

bias when a source of information is influenced by personal opinion or judgement

continuous data quantitative (numerical) data points that have a value within a range; this type of data is usually measured

controlled variable a variable in an experiment that must be kept constant, so it does not affect the dependent variable

dependent variable the variable in an experiment that you measure

discrete data quantitative (numerical) data points that have whole numbers; this type of data is usually counted

exponential a population that grows at a rate proportional to its size

extrapolation using existing data (such as a line of best fit) outside the original data set to make a prediction

hypothesis a prediction, or educated guess, about the effect that the independent variable will have on the dependent variable; a prediction of the outcome of an experiment

independent variable the variable in an experiment that you manipulate, change or test

interpolation using existing data (such as a line of best fit) within the original data set to make a reliable prediction

line graph a type of graph used to display how a continuous quantitative variable changes over time or in reference to another variable

nominal data qualitative (categorical) data where the categories have no order, e.g. male, female

ordinal data qualitative (categorical) data where the categories have an order, e.g. small, medium, large

origin the point (0, 0) where the *x*-axis and *y*-axis intercept

outlier an extreme data value that is very different from the other data and could be the result of faulty procedure

precision how close repeated measurements are to each other

primary source a source of information that comes from your own findings or experiments

qualitative data data values that are worded, descriptive or categorical in nature

quantitative data data values that are numerical in nature

relevant connected to the topic being investigated

reliability the degree of consistency of your experimental measurements. A test is reliable if it gives the same result when it is repeated under the same conditions.

secondary source a source of information that comes from someone else's research or findings

specific clearly defined or identified

trend a pattern in a graph that shows the general direction/shape of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables

trendline/line of best fit a line drawn to show an average of plotted points

validity a measure of how closely the results of an experiment reflect what they should

Chapter 2

antibiotic a medicine or chemical that can destroy harmful bacteria in the body or limit their growth

bacteria very small prokaryotic organisms that have cell walls, but lack membrane-bound organelles and a nucleus

biconcave concave on both sides

binary fission a mode of asexual reproduction by bacteria, where genetic information is copied and the cell splits in half

cell membrane the barrier that separates the inside of the cell from the external environment

cell wall a rigid structure that surrounds each cell, shaping and supporting the cell

chloroplast a structure in a plant cell that contains chlorophyll and conducts photosynthesis

cytosol the water-based mixture that fills the cell, containing different molecules, large and small; many chemical processes that happen within a cell occur in the cytosol

differentiation the process by which stem cells become more specialised

disease any condition that negatively affects the normal functioning of any part of a living thing

double helix a description of the structure of DNA where two strands wind around each other like a twisted ladder

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embryo a fertilised egg cell in the early stages of growth and differentiation

endoplasmic reticulum a network of tubes within a cell that are involved in protein and lipid synthesis

eukaryote any cell or organism that possesses membrane-bound organelles and a nucleus

genetic material the material containing the code that allows the cell to produce copies of itself and to regulate the functions within the cell

Golgi body a structure in a cell involved in the modification, packaging and transport of proteins and lipids

macroscopic visible to the naked eye

microscopic anything that can only be seen clearly with the use of a microscope

mitochondrion a structure in a cell that converts the energy from food into the form needed by the cell during cellular respiration

mitosis the type of cell division in which one cell divides into two cells that are exactly the same

multicellular made of many cells

nucleus the part of a cell that contains the genetic material

organelle a specialised structure in a cell, which has a specific function or job

pathogen an organism that causes disease

prokaryote unicellular organisms that lack membrane-bound organelles and a nucleus

protist a eukaryotic organism that is part of the kingdom Protista

ribosome a structure in a cell that reads genetic information to produce protein from amino acids

stem cell a cell that is able to develop into many different types of cell

steroid a compound made by cells that is used in cell membrane stability and for cell signalling

unicellular made of just one cell

vacuole a structure in a cell that stores water and nutrients

virus a microscopic particle containing a nucleic acid (like DNA) capable of infecting host cells

zygote a fertilised egg cell

Chapter 3

alveoli the tiny sacs at the end of bronchioles in the lungs; the site of gas exchange with the capillaries

anus the opening at the end of the digestive tract, through which solid waste leaves the body

aorta the largest vessel leaving the heart, from the left ventricle, carrying oxygenated blood to the body

artery a thick, muscular elastic vessel that carries blood away from the heart

atrioventricular node a natural pacemaker that controls the heartbeat and is located in between the atria and the ventricles

atrium one of the two upper chambers of the heart, the left atrium and right atrium

biconcave concave on both sides

bile a substance produced in the liver and stored in the gall bladder, which helps emulsify fats

bolus a lump of partially digested food

bronchi the two branches of the airways that split off the trachea, one main left bronchus to the left lung and one main right bronchus to the right lung

bronchioles small branching tubes that branch off the two large bronchi and lead to the alveoli

caecum a pouch that forms the first part of the large intestine

capillaries the smallest blood vessels, one cell thick, and the site of gas exchange with cells

carnivore a consumer (heterotroph) that feeds on animal matter

cellular respiration a process that occurs inside the mitochondria, where oxygen and glucose react to form carbon dioxide and water, producing useable energy

chemical digestion a series of chemical reactions in which enzymes break food into simpler chemical substances that can be used by the body

chyme a partially digested mass of food after it leaves the stomach

diaphragm a dome-shaped muscle that separates the chest and abdominal cavities; it contracts to cause us to inhale

differentiation the process by which cells become specialised

duodenum the first section of the small intestine

enzyme a protein that can help speed up chemical reactions

ethical relating to ethics, the field of considering what is right and wrong

filaments red, fleshy part of the gills with thousands of fine branches that take oxygen from water into the blood

function the job that an object does

gall bladder a small gland near the liver that stores bile and secretes it into the duodenum

guard cells cells on either side of a plant stoma that control gas exchange by opening and closing the stoma

haemoglobin the red pigment in blood that binds to oxygen, allowing red blood cells to carry oxygen

herbivore a consumer (heterotroph) that feeds on plant matter

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heterotroph any organism that obtains its nutrients by consuming other organisms

ileum the third section of the small intestine, where further food breakdown and nutrient absorption occur

intercostal muscles many different muscle groups that run between the ribs, and help form and move the chest wall

intolerance an inability to eat a food without undergoing adverse effects

jejunum the second section of the small intestine, where food breakdown and nutrient absorption occur

large intestine the organ that is connected to the small intestine at one end and the anus at the other

lenticels small slits on trunks or branches of trees that allow gas exchange

liver a large organ that has many metabolic and secretory functions, including the production of bile

mechanical digestion a series of mechanical processes that breaks food down, such as chewing with teeth, mixing in the stomach and emulsification with bile

neuron a nerve cell

omnivore an organism that eats a variety of plant and animal matter

organ a group of tissues working together to perform a function

organism a living creature, such as a plant or an animal, with a group of organ systems working together

organ rejection when an organ transplant recipient's immune system recognises the organ as foreign and attacks it

organ transplantation the process of removing a donor organ and then surgically implanting it into a recipient, to improve their organ function or replace a diseased organ

pancreas an organ that secretes pancreatic juices containing enzymes into the duodenum to assist with the digestion of food

peristalsis a wave-like contraction of the muscles of the digestive tract that pushes the food along

pharynx the throat region where the nasal cavity and oral cavity meet, leading into the trachea

plasma the yellow liquid component that makes up 55% of the blood; carries water, dissolved gases and hormones

platelets tiny cells that assist with blood clotting

rectum the second-last section of the large intestine; stores faeces

saliva a liquid secreted by the digestive system to lubricate a bolus of food; also contains enzymes to assist chemical digestion

sinoatrial node a natural pacemaker that controls the heartbeat and is located in the wall of the right atrium

sphincter a muscle that surrounds an opening in the body and can tighten to close it, e.g. at the bottom of the oesophagus, leading into the stomach

stomata tiny pores (holes) in leaves that allow entry/exit of gases such as oxygen and carbon dioxide

structure a physical part of an object

tissue a group of cells performing the same function

tissue engineering the combined use of cells and engineering to improve or replace biological tissues

trachea the tube that carries air down to the lungs; also known as the windpipe

vein a thin-walled vessel with valves that carries blood back to the heart

vena cava the large vessel that returns deoxygenated blood to the heart, emptying into the right atrium

ventricle one of the two lower chambers of the heart, the left and right ventricles

villi finger-like structures in the digestive system that have a high surface area and rich blood supply for absorption of nutrients

xenotransplantation transplanting organs from one species into another

Chapter 4

asexual reproduction a method of reproduction in which there is one parent organism and all offspring are genetically identical

binary fission a mode of asexual reproduction by bacteria, where genetic information is copied and the cell splits in half

budding a mode of asexual reproduction by organisms such as yeast and hydra, where the daughter offspring grows off the side of the parent and drops off

cloaca a hole used for defecating, urinating and giving birth that is present in some amphibians, reptiles, birds, fish and monotremes

cross-pollination pollination that occurs by pollen from another flower or plant

differentiation the process by which stem cells become specialised

embryo a fertilised egg in the early stages of growth and differentiation; in humans, this would be from between two and eight weeks after fertilisation

external fertilisation a mode of fertilisation in which gametes are released into the environment and fertilisation occurs outside the body

fragmentation a mode of asexual reproduction where organisms can be cut in half and regrow into two genetically identical organisms

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gametes the sex cells (eggs and sperm), each of which contains half the genetic material required to make an organism

gestation the pregnancy period, when the offspring are developing inside the mother

gonads the reproductive organs, where gametes are produced; testes for males and ovaries for females

hormone a chemical produced by cells that controls and regulates different processes in the body

internal fertilisation a mode of fertilisation in which male gametes are delivered into the female reproductive system and fertilisation takes place inside the female

menstrual cycle a cycle controlled by hormones to prepare the body for fertilisation of an egg; if fertilisation does not occur, menstruation will follow

menstruation the cyclical shedding of the unfertilised egg and the uterine lining; also known as menstrual period

nectar a sweet liquid produced by flowers to attract pollinators

ovulation the release of an ovum (egg) from the ovary into the fallopian tube

ovule a structure in a flowering plant where the female gamete is produced and where seeds develop

ovum an egg, or a female gamete

parthenogenesis a mode of asexual reproduction where females give birth to unfertilised eggs that hatch to produce offspring that are genetically identical to the mother

pollen the male gamete in flowering plants

pollination the process by which pollen sticks to the female structures of a plant and fertilises the ovule

puberty the time of transition from juvenile form to adult form

scrotum a sac that encloses the testes

seed a plant embryo enclosed in a protective coating

seed dispersal the spread of seeds away from the parent plant

self-pollination pollination that occurs by pollen from the same flower or from another flower on the same plant

sexual reproduction a method of reproduction in which there are two parent organisms and genetic variation in the offspring

sperm the male reproductive cell, or gamete

spore an asexual reproductive cell produced by organisms such as fungi and ferns

testes the male reproductive gland that produces sperm

vegetative propagation a form of asexual reproduction where only one plant is involved

zygote a fertilised egg cell

Chapter 5

boiling the rapid vaporisation of a liquid that occurs when it is heated to its boiling point

Brownian motion the random movement of particles in fluids

chemical property the behaviour of a substance when it reacts with another substance

compress squeeze to make smaller

concentration the number of particles in a given volume

condensation the change of state from gas to liquid

contraction the process of substances getting smaller: the particles of a substance move closer together as they cool

density how much matter (mass) is contained in a certain volume of a substance

deposition the change of state from gas to solid, without passing through the liquid state

diffusion the movement of particles from an area of high concentration to an area of low concentration

evaporation the change of state from liquid to gas

expansion the process of substances getting larger: the particles of a substance move further apart as they heat up

freezing the change of state from liquid to solid

gas a substance that expands freely to fill space

Kevlar a synthetic fibre that has five times the strength of steel for the same weight and is used in a variety of clothing, accessories and equipment (Dupont™ Kevlar®)

liquid a substance that flows freely and takes the shape of its container but has constant volume

mass the amount of substance in an object that never changes, even in space

matter anything that has mass and volume

melting the change of state from solid to liquid caused by heat

melting point the temperature at which a specific solid melts

particle model all matter is made of particles that behave differently depending on whether they are solid, liquid or gas

physical property the way a substance looks and acts; a characteristic of a substance that can be observed and/or measured without changing it chemically

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pressure the amount of force exerted on a given area

radiation the emission of energy in the form of light or heat

solid a substance that has a fixed shape and constant volume

state one of the distinct forms matter can exist in

sublimation the change of state from solid to gas, without passing through the liquid state

vibrate move periodically

volume the space an object occupies

Chapter 6

atom the smallest possible piece of any substance; atoms make up all matter

chemical bond a strong force of attraction that joins atoms together

chemical formula a symbol for a compound that shows which elements, and how many atoms of each element, are present in one molecule or one basic unit of that compound

compound a substance made up of two or more different types of atoms

conductivity the ability of a substance to conduct or carry electricity or heat

covalent bond a chemical bond, usually between non-metal atoms

diatomic element an element that exists as molecules consisting of two atoms of the same type

ductility the ability of a substance to be drawn into a wire

element a substance made up of only one type of atom

heterogeneous mixture a mixture that can be separated into its parts, and the parts retain their original properties; the mixture is not blended evenly

homogeneous mixture a mixture of two or more substances that are evenly distributed and do not separate out easily

ionic bond a chemical bond, usually between metals and non-metal atoms

lattice a three-dimensional shape of atoms that pack together very tightly and form bonds that are extremely strong because the atoms bond to each other in all directions

lustre the ability of a substance to become shiny when polished

malleability the ability of a substance to be bent or flattened into a range of shapes

metal a substance that is shiny, can conduct electricity, can be bent, is usually silver/grey and is ductile (can be stretched into wires)

metallic bond a chemical bond, usually between metal atoms

metalloid a substance that has some of the properties of both metals and non-metals

mixture a substance made up of two or more different substances (compounds or elements) that are not bonded together

molecule two or more atoms joined together by strong covalent bonds

monatomic made up of single atoms, all of one type

non-metal a substance that is dull, cannot usually conduct electricity, is brittle and is not ductile

periodic table a table of all the known elements and their symbols

polyatomic element an element consisting of molecules containing more than two atoms of the same type

polymer a long molecule made of a chain of atoms in a pattern that repeats

pure substance a substance made up of one type of atom or the same groups of atoms (molecules or compounds)

Chapter 7

bioluminescence a chemical reaction that produces light in living things

chemical change where one or more substances undergo a chemical reaction and a new substance is formed

chemiluminescence a chemical reaction that produces light

combustion a reaction that involves the burning or exploding of a substance in the presence of oxygen

corrosion the gradual and natural process of metals breaking down, e.g. rusting

decomposition a reaction in which one substance breaks up into smaller ones

dissolving the process where individual particles of a solute are separated from one another and surrounded by solvent molecules, causing them to no longer be visible in a solution

galvanisation the process of coating iron or steel with zinc to prevent corrosion

irreversible incapable of going in the opposite direction

physical change when the physical properties of a substance change in some way, but no new substance is formed; it is reversible

precipitate the solid that forms when two clear solutions are mixed together and undergo a chemical change

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precipitation a reaction that involves the mixing of two clear solutions to produce a solid called a precipitate

products the substances that are present at the end of a chemical reaction

reactants the substances that are present at the beginning of a chemical reaction

reversible capable of going in the opposite direction

synthesis a reaction in which two (or more) elements or reactants combine to form new substances or products

thermal decomposition decomposition that occurs when a substance is heated

Chapter 8

biological weathering the disintegration of rocks that is caused by living things

breccia sedimentary rock composed of angular broken pieces of rock larger than 2 millimetres

cementation the sticking together of sediment

chemical weathering the disintegration of rocks caused by acidic rainwater

cleavage the tendency of a mineral or rock to break in a particular way because of its structure

compaction the process of parts becoming closer together, taking up very little space

conglomerate sedimentary rock composed of rounded rock fragments larger than 2 millimetres

crust the solid outer layer of Earth; on average, continental crust is 35 km thick and oceanic crust is 10 km thick

crystal a mineral in which the atoms are arranged in an ordered way to form a geometric shape

deep time the idea first suggested by James Hutton that Earth is very old

deposition a process that occurs when eroded particles stop moving and build up to form sedimentary rocks

electrolysis a method of extracting a metal from its ore or purifying it using electricity

erosion the transport of rocks from one place to another as a result of weathering

extrusive describes igneous rocks formed on Earth's surface; also called volcanic rocks

fossil the remains, shape or trace of a bone, shell, microbe, plant or animal that has been preserved in rock for a very long time

geology the study of the rocks and similar substances that make up Earth and other planetary objects

igneous describes rocks made from lava on the surface or magma below the surface

inner core the solid centre of Earth; probably made of iron

intrusive describes igneous rocks formed underground; also called plutonic rocks

karst an area of land formed of rock such as limestone that is worn away by water to make caves and other formations

lava molten rock from inside Earth (called magma) that has reached the surface

lithosphere the solid outer layer of Earth; includes the crust and uppermost mantle

magma molten rock under Earth's surface

mantle the layer of solid and semi-molten rock that surrounds the outer core and extends up to Earth's crust

metamorphic describes rocks that are changed by exposure to high temperature, pressure or both

meteorite a rock from space (meteor) that has entered the atmosphere as a 'shooting star' and reached the ground

mineral a chemical substance that is formed naturally in the ground

Mohs scale a scale from 1 to 10 that indicates the hardness of a rock

opaque blocking light completely

ore a rock that can be mined and smelted to produce a metal

outer core the liquid layer surrounding the inner core of Earth; probably made of liquid iron

physical weathering the breaking down of rocks into smaller particles by contact with other rocks, wind, water or ice

radioactivity energy released from the nucleus of an atom when the atom decays; the age of rocks can be determined by measuring the number of radioactive atoms remaining

reflection seismology the use of shockwaves to investigate the structure of rocks underground

rock solid material forming Earth's crust; rocks are formed as part of the rock cycle

rock cycle the constant process of change that rocks go through, between igneous, metamorphic and sedimentary forms

sedimentary describes rocks made from deposited materials that are the products of weathering and erosion

sediments small particles, such as sand and stones, that slowly form a layer of rock

smelting the process of getting a metal from rock by heating it to a very high temperature

streak test a test used to help identify a mineral by scratching a rock on a hard ceramic tile

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surface mining a method of mining that extracts a mineral from the surface, such as by digging an open pit

translucent allowing some light through, but no clear image can be seen through the substance

transparent allowing light to pass through, and a clear image can be seen through the substance

underground mining a traditional method of mining by digging tunnels underground to extract ore

Chapter 9

chemical potential energy the energy stored in the bonds between atoms

efficiency the percentage of input energy that is converted to useful energy by a machine

elastic potential energy the energy stored when an elastic material is compressed or stretched

electrical energy energy carried by electricity moving in a wire; voltage is used to measure how much energy is carried by each unit of electricity

electromagnetic spectrum a way of organising electromagnetic waves according to their energy

energy the capacity to do work; the total amount of energy is conserved in any process

energy transfer the movement of energy from one place or object to another

fossil fuel a non-renewable energy source such as oil, coal or natural gas

generator a device that converts rotational kinetic energy into electrical energy, i.e. the opposite of a motor

geothermal energy thermal energy that originates from inside Earth

gravitational potential energy a type of potential/stored energy; the energy an object has because of its height; GPE = mgh, where m is the mass of the object (kg), h is its height (m) and g is the acceleration due to Earth's gravity

heat thermal energy that is in transit due to differences in temperature

hydroelectric power a renewable source of energy harnessing the gravitational potential energy of water to generate electrical energy

input energy the energy that a machine or device uses as its source of energy

joule the unit of energy or work done

kinetic energy the energy of moving matter

law of conservation of energy the law that states that energy cannot be created or destroyed

light energy a form of energy that we can see with our eyes; also called visible light; a part of the electromagnetic spectrum

non-renewable existing in limited quantities that cannot be replaced after they have all been used

nuclear energy a non-renewable source of energy that uses the energy released by the nucleus of radioactive atoms

output energy the energy that a machine or device provides or wastes

potential energy the energy stored in something because of its height above the ground, or because it is stretched or compressed, or in chemical form

radiation the emission of energy from unstable nuclei

radioactive having or producing the energy that comes from the breaking up of atoms

renewable can be produced as quickly as it is used

rotational kinetic energy the energy an object has because it is rotating

solar energy a renewable source of energy obtained from converting sunlight directly into electrical or thermal energy

sound energy a form of travelling wave; sound consists of vibrations in the air

sustainable causing little or no damage to the environment and therefore able to continue for a long time

temperature a measure of the average random kinetic energy of the particles in a substance

thermal energy the energy contained within a material that is responsible for its temperature

travelling wave a wave that can carry energy from one place to another

turbine a device that converts the kinetic energy of a fluid into useful work, e.g. a windmill

useful energy the output energy that a machine is designed to produce; an efficient machine will maximise the useful energy it creates

waste energy the output energy that a machine produces that is not useful; waste energy is often in the form of thermal energy and sound

wave energy the energy carried by a travelling wave (e.g. an ocean swell) or trapped in a standing wave (e.g. a guitar string when being played)

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Index

3D cells 61
3D printing 107
3D simulation 110
3D structures 198, 233

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people 313–14, 324
  fire drills, saws and plough methods 353
absorption 85, 87, 101, 116, 122, 268, 346
acceleration 354
accuracy 7–9, 29–30
acidity 128, 196, 298
acids 122, 207, 318
acne 162
adaptation 151, 161
adenosine triphosphate (ATP) 50, 89, 269
aerosols 191–2
aesthetics 217
agriculture 281, 328
air 95, 200, 221, 342
  hot air rising 193, 257, 355
airbags 278
aircraft 18–19, 196, 355–6
alcohol 133, 136, 153–4, 245–6, 267
altitude 114
alveoli 92, 94, 108, 111
amethysts 318
amino acids 264
amoeba 63
amphibians 96, 164
amylase 118
analogy 78
analysis 4, 25–7, 325
  lab report inclusion 29
anatomy 103–4
angioplasty 146
animal cells 54–6, 58, 60–1
  animal–plant cells distinction 58–61
Animalia 54
animals 47, 329
  asexual and sexual reproduction in 150–8
antacids 120, 291
antibiotic-resistant bacteria 72
antibiotics 70–1
antibodies 93, 113
antimony 224
antiviral agents 282
anus 117, 123
aorta 108
apparatus 4
  see also equipment; Golgi body
appendix 123
approximation 26
Archaea 47
argon 221
arrows 265, 275, 351
arsenic 224
arteries 111, 146–7
artificial bees 184–5
artificial intelligence 41
artificial limbs 216–17
artificial spider silk 199
asbestos 316
asexual reproduction 150, 157–8
  in animals 150–8
  human-induced methods 168
  natural methods 167
  in plants 167–9
ashes 264
assessment 29
  see also risk assessments
astatine 224
asteroids 334–5
asthma 93
atmosphere 259
atoms 220–7, 233, 237, 338
  not created or destroyed 275
atrioventricular node 107
atrium 107
attraction 190–1, 193, 197, 199, 220
audits 362
Australia
  energy production 366
  mining industry 329–30
authority 8
automation 327
  see also artificial intelligence; robotics
averages 20, 26
axes 20, 23
axolotls 102
axons 82

Bacteria 47
bacteria 40, 68–9, 73, 123, 127–8, 157
  friendly 68, 123
balloon angioplasty 146
balloons 27, 100, 192–3, 257, 355
balls, bouncing 343, 359
bar graphs 22–4
basalt 305
batteries 352, 354, 357, 361, 366
bees 175, 184–5
beetles 62
behaviour
  of rocks 318–19
  see also ethics
behavioural adaptations 151
best fit, lines of 26, 31
bias 7, 30
biconcave shape 43, 113
bile 122
binary fission 65–6, 157
binocular microscopes 40
bioconcave shape 82
biodegradability 196, 237
biological weathering 298–9, 303
bioluminescence 269
biomass 237
biomedical engineering 216
bioplastics 237
birds 128, 164
birth 153, 155
birth defects 153
bisphenol A (BPA) 165
bladder 161
bloating 124
blocked arteries 146–7
blood 86, 101, 106, 113
  composition 114
  oxygenated 108, 111
blood flow 109–11
bloodstream 87, 92, 117
blood vessels 86
blue-banded bees 175
bodies, whole 311
body, the 125, 344
  bacterial and human cells in 123
  shape and structure 216
body odour 162
body systems 78, 87
  see also organ systems
body temperature 161
boiling point 196, 207, 352
bolus 118, 120
bonds/bonding 220, 232, 236, 243
bone marrow 83
bones 216
  cells 66
borborygmi 124
boron 224
bouncing balls 343, 359
brackets 23, 239
  see also formulae
brain, the 86, 123, 136
brainstorming 5
bread 125, 264, 267
breathing 90–1, 95
  versus respiration 89
breccia 309
bridges 193
bronchi 91–2
bronchioles 92
Bronze Age 327
Brownian motion 189
bruises 112
bubbles 59, 242, 267–8, 318
budding 158
building materials 313
bulbs 167
bungee cords 346
bunkers 334–5
Bunsen burners 12, 207, 280
buoyancy 355
burns/burning 12, 196, 268
burrs 176–7
buzz pollination 175

caecum 123
caesarean section (C-section) 155
cancer 66–7
candles 281, 351, 357
capillaries 92, 101, 111
capitalisation 228
carbohydrates 116, 351
carbon 198, 225, 234, 236, 295
carbon dioxide 86, 89–90, 100–1, 108, 221, 238, 267, 280–1

ISBN 978-1-108-98036-4
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Carboniferous Period 363–4
carbyne 234
carnivores 127–9
  digestive systems 127
carnivorous plants 129
cars 196, 281, 338, 344–5, 354
casts 311
catalysts 120
categories 22
caves 298
cell cities 48–50, 78–9
cell differentiation *see* differentiation
cell division 43, 65–6, 78, 153
  reasons for 65–6
cell membranes 47–8, 50, 82
cell theory 43
cell walls 57
cells 38–45, 60, 85
  function/malfunction 65–73
  organisational levels 84–8
  scaffolding 53
  size 43–5
  structure and function 82
  to systems 82–7
  see also differentiation
cellular respiration 86, 89
cellulose 57
cement 329
cementation 296, 301
cervical cancer 67
cervix 160
chalcopyrite 319
chalk 308
change
  chemical and physical 256–83
  in energy 338
  legislative 324
  over time 322
  responding to 87
  in response to . 22
  in states 203–8, 259
  in temperature 268, 346
characteristics 60, 63, 102, 196, 260, 317, 319
  of rock types 316
charts/charting 131
chemical bonds 220
chemical change evidence 263–7, 270–1
chemical digestion 117
chemical energy 89, 351
chemical equations 275–81
chemical formulae 233, 238
chemical potential energy 338, 344
chemical properties 196
chemical reactions 240, 264, 269, 275–6, 283, 290–1, 327
  types of 276–82
chemical weathering 298
chemicals 12, 308
chemiluminescence 269
chemistry 228
cherts 308
chitin 61–2
chlorine 233
chlorophyll 57
chloroplasts 56–7
chyme 121–2
circuits 225, 328
circular waste economy 252
circulatory system 84, 90, 106–12
  technologies 112
cities 48–50, 78–9, 334
claims 30
classical elements 230
classification 63, 220–2, 224
  of rocks 316–22
cleavage 318
climate 130
cloaca 164
clones/cloning 157, 167, 179
clots 114
coal 309, 363–4
coal mining 324, 330
coeliac disease 125
collagen 55, 116
collision 192, 334–5
colon 123
colour 6, 23, 41, 196, 224, 256, 263
colour change 264–5
column graphs *see* bar graphs
columns 16–17
combustion 280–2, 290–1, 345
communication 29–31, 324
compact fluorescent lights (CFLs) 358
compaction 296, 301
comparison 78, 303, 322
competition 156
complex cells 47–8
components 243, 296
composition 325
compounds 220–1, 236, 239, 290
  breaking down 241–2
  making 240
  naming 239
  organisation 237–8
  symbols for 238–9
compression 14–15, 197, 199–200, 302, 338, 346
computed tomography (CT) scans 110
concentration 191
conclusions 4, 30–1
  false 10
condensation 89, 206
conditions 11, 62, 157, 166
conductivity 196, 224
conductors 198, 225
cones 173
conglomerate 309
conifers 166, 173, 176
connective tissue 86
conservation of energy 350–9
construction (mining stage) 326
consumption 299, 361
continuous data 20–1
  versus discrete 19
contraction 106, 124, 193–4, 257–8
controlled variables 4, 10, 20–1, 23–4
conversion 44, 350–1, 354–7, 364, 366, 368
cooling 23–4, 193, 296, 306–7, 316, 339
  curves 207–8
copper 223, 316, 327–8
copper carbonate 241–2
coprolites 310
corals 158
coronary artery disease (CAD) 146
coronaviruses 223, 282
corpus luteum 163
corrosion 128, 196, 265
counter-current flow 102
courtship 151
covalent bonds 220–1
covalent compounds 236
COVID-19 223
cows 130–1
CRAAP test 8–10
crabs 105
CRISPR 135
Crohn's disease 125
crop yields 179
crops 100, 175
cross-pollination 171, 179
cross-sections 173
crushing 327
crust 295
crystalline characteristic 260
crystallisation 296
crystals 294, 297, 305, 307, 316
  fibre form 316
  size and shape 317
currency 8
current 300, 338, 343
curves 26, 207–8
cuts 12, 65
cutting (plants) 168
cycles 163, 166
cytoskeletons 53
cytosol 47–8, 50, 82

damage 299
damper 264
dams 366
danger/dangerous substances 11, 316, 334–5
Darling Range 306
data 29–30
  'middle' 26
  missing 19
  tabular set-up 16–17
data analysis 4, 25–7
data collection 23–4
data points 20, 23
data processing 4
dating 303
daughter cells 65, 157–8
death 150
decay, radioactive 367
decimal places 16–17
decision making 138, 361
decomposition 267, 277–8, 283
deep time 296
deep-sea mining 326
deformation 312
degenerative disease 56
demonstration 225–6, 279–80, 282–3
density 196–8, 257, 302
  see also mass; volume
deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) 49
dependent variables 4, 10, 16–17, 20–1, 23–4, 30
deposition 206, 301
description 25, 30, 317
design 4, 10–15, 78–9, 147, 197–8, 216–17, 252–3, 291, 335, 375
  modifications 79, 147, 185, 217, 253, 291, 335, 375
detritus 368

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development 154–6
diagrams 4, 174, 351–2, 354–6, 364–7
diamonds 225, 295, 318, 330
diaphragm 90, 92
diaphragmatic breathing 91
diarrhoea 123–4
diatomic elements 232
dichotomous keys 316, 319
diet 136
difference 19, 22, 243
  see also comparison
differentiation 54, 82, 136, 153
diffusion 102, 191–2, 200, 260
digestion 117, 120, 124–5, 272
digestive disorders 124–5
digestive systems
  human 116–25, 272
  length 127
  other 127–31
  times 130
dinosaurs 310, 312, 363
discrete data 19
discussion 4
  Discussion [report] heading 29–30
disease 56, 69–71, 124–5, 154, 156–7, 282
dissection 103–4, 109–10, 174
dissolution/dissolving 101, 260–1, 298
distance 18–19
  see also travel
diversity 166, 175
documentation 7, 12–13
double helix shape 49
drawing 23, 26
drugs 153–4
dry conditions 298
ductility 224
duodenum 121–2

Earth 184–5, 295
  crust 308, 312, 320–2, 364, 367
  evolution 322
  layers of 295
  life on 310
  surface 308, 313
earthquake 341
effects
  of materials 23–4
  of the problem on results 30
  of variables 10
efficiency 357–9
  calculation *examples* 358
eggs 44, 54, 152, 160, 163
  to zygote 153
elastic potential energy 338, 346
electric kettles 352
electrical energy 338, 343, 347, 351, 367
electrical shock 225, 328
electrical signals 110
electricity 346, 366–7
  see also electrical energy
electricity audits 362
electrolysis 327–8
electromagnetic energy 339
electromagnetic radiation 342, 346
electromagnetic spectrum 172, 342
electron beams 264
electron microscopes 40
electrons 343
electroplating 328
elemental molecules 233
elements 220–7, 229, 238, 240, 243, 295–6, 303
  naturally-occurring *versus* synthesised 230
  organising 224, 228–34
  uses 227
elephants 283
embryonic development 153–5
embryonic stage 153–4
embryos 54, 150, 152, 158, 166
endoplasmic reticulum (ER) 48
  types of 51
energy 189
  applications 361–8
  conservation of 350–9
  defined 338–47
  forms of 339–47
  generation methods 363–5
  inputs and outputs 351, 356
  never created or destroyed 338, 350
  relative 342
  useable 357, 374
  waste energy 357
  also under specific energy form; *see also* law of conservation of energy
energy efficiency 357–9
energy flow diagrams 351–2, 354–6, 364–7
energy problems 363
energy ratings 361
energy sources 303, 329
energy storage 338–9, 354
  see also potential energy
energy transfer 338, 350–1
engineering 136–7, 290, 334
environment 70
environmental conditions 157
environmental factors 114, 133
environmental impact 326, 363
enzymes 117, 122, 136
equations 265, 276–81
  balancing 275–6
equipment 4, 11, 207
  proper handling 42, 60, 83, 99, 103
  see also personal protective equipment
erosion 294, 296, 299–301, 308
error 26
ethene 264
ethics 138–9, 368
Euglena 63
eukaryotic cells 47–8, 54–63, 87
evaluation 4, 19, 29–30, 79, 147, 185, 217, 253, 291, 335, 375
  lab report inclusion 29
evaporation 99–100
evidence 256–61, 263–73
  supportive 30
excretion 85, 125
exhalation 95
exoskeletons 62
exothermic reactions 290
expansion 193–4, 257–8, 298
experimental variables *see* variables
experiments 4
  conditions for *see* conditions
  designing 10–15
  problems and improvements/extensions 4, 29–30
  set-ups 21, 93, 207, 225, 240, 242
  see also practicals; tests/testing
explanation 194
exploration (mining stage) 324
explosion 176, 196
exponential increase 25
external fertilisation 152
extinction 157, 175, 310, 312
extrapolation 26
extrusive igneous rocks 305, 317

faeces 123, 130, 310
fallopian tube 153, 160
falls/falling 300, 338
farming 179
fat 116, 163
feasibility 79, 147, 184, 217, 253, 291, 335
female reproductive system 160
females 150, 153, 162
ferns 166
fertilisation 151, 153, 161, 166, 170, 173
  methods 152
field of view (FOV) 39, 83–4, 99
filaments 101
findings 4
  see also results
fingerprints 273
fire 230, 281
fire lighting 353
fireflies 269
fireworks 263, 344–5
fish 94, 103–4, 164
  respiratory systems in 101
fission 65–6, 338, 346
flagellum 83
flame tests 231–2
flatworms 157
Fleming, Alexander 71
flint 308
flip books 245
flotation/floating 94, 177, 197–8, 305
flow charts 131
flow diagrams 351–2, 354–6, 364–5
flowers/flowering plants 166, 170, 172–4
flowing water 308
foetal stage 154
follicles 160
  action 163
follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) 162
food 6, 120, 124, 165, 334, 342, 344
  breakdown 87, 117–18
  cooking 69, 268, 314
  intolerances 124–5
  no food consumption in lab 60, 190
food chains 184
food poisoning 124, 127
fool's gold 319
force 190–1, 193, 197, 199, 201, 334–5, 342, 355
forensics 273
formulae 233, 238
  see also equations
fossil fuels 363–5
fossil records 312
fossils 301, 308, 310, 316
  types of 310–11
fragmentation 157–8

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freedivers 89
freeze–thaw action 298
Fremantle Round House 299
frequency 22
fresh water 334
friction 353
frogs 94, 96
frost 308
fruiting bodies 62
fruits 116, 166, 176
  ripening 264
fuel 281, 290, 329, 363–5
Fungi 54
fungi 47, 54, 61–2
fungi-fighting bacteria 73
fusion 338, 347

galena 318
gall bladder 122
galvanisation 265
gametes 150, 152, 166, 173
gas exchange 94–6, 98, 100
gases 98, 111, 124, 130, 188–9, 191–2, 194, 221, 230, 267, 363
  properties of 200–1
gastric juices 120
gemstones 295, 330
generators 351, 366
genes 158
genetic diversity 166
genetic information 43, 83
genetic material 47, 49, 136, 150
  copied 157
geology 296
geothermal energy 367
germanium 224
germs 67
gestation 153–4, 160
gills 94, 96, 101–5
glaciers 259, 300
glands 87, 161
glass 257, 329
glass thermometers 207
glasses 27, 137, 240–1, 277
glassware 12
gloves 137
glow sticks 269
glucose 51, 86, 89
gluten intolerance 125
gneiss 294, 303
gold 223, 319, 324, 326, 328–9
Golgi body 48, 52
gonads 150, 160
grafting 168
granite 294, 306
graphene 198, 234
graphite 225, 234, 295
graphs 4, 50–1
  displaying data in 19–23
  drawing guidelines 23
  patterns in *see* trends
  also under specific graph type; *see also* plots/plotting
gravitational potential energy (GPE) 338, 342, 356, 366
gravity 119, 190, 290, 300
  strength of 342
greenhouse gases 130, 363
grids 23
grinding 327
groups 124
  of elements 230
  grouping elements 224, 232–4
  of organs *see* organ systems
  word groups 7
groupwork 253, 291, 320–2
  see also teams/teamwork
growth 66, 78, 116
growth hormone 162
guard cells 98

haemoglobin 43, 113, 116
hail 298
hair 162
hand washing 67–9, 73, 316
hardness 196, 302, 317–18
hazardous substances 124
hazards 12, 346
heart 84, 106–10
heart attack 56, 114, 146
heart rate 106
heart transplants 146
heartburn 120
heat 106, 189, 192, 259, 280–1, 294, 296, 302, 314, 338–40, 344, 356
heat energy 245–6, 268
heat energy transfer 351
heating 193, 339
  curves 207–8
heatproof mats 207
height 342
helium 347
herbivores 129–31
  digestive systems 127
heritage sites 324
heterogeneous mixtures 244
heterotrophs 61–2, 116
hexane 236
homogeneous mixtures 244
Hooke, Robert 38
hormones 106, 151, 163, 165
hosts 299
houses/housing/homes 362
  energy in 339, 361
Hulk, The 277
human beings 54, 84–5, 130
  embryonic development stages 153–5
human circulatory system 106–14
human digestive system 116–25
  parts 117–19
human reproductive system 160–5
human respiratory system 89–96
human-induced asexual reproduction 168
humidity 98
hunger 124
Hutton, James 296
hybrid seeds 179
hydrocarbons 280
hydroelectricity 366
hydrogen 220–1, 233, 236, 347
hydrogen peroxide 136–8, 283
hygiene practices 69
hyperventilation 89
hyphae 62
hypotheses 4, 10, 30
  data/evidential support for 30
  never right or wrong; only supported or not 30
hypothesis testing 4

ice 196, 208, 298, 300, 308
  changing directly to *see* deposition
identification
  of key words 6
  of rocks 319–22
igneous rocks 294, 296, 303, 305–6, 316
illegality 138
illness 127
images 7, 125, 318
immune cells 106
immune system 71
impact 334–5
imprints 311
incandescent light bulbs 358
increments 23
independent variables 4, 10, 16–17, 20–1, 23–4, 30
indigestion 120
indirect records 311
Industrial Revolution 363
industrialisation 363
infection 67, 70
infectious diseases 70
infertility 165
inflammation 93
inflation 27
information
  background 4, 23–4, 78, 146, 216, 290
  purpose 8–9
  sources of *see* sources
infrastructure 198, 341
inhalation 89–91
inheritance 158
injury 114
inner core 295
inputs 351, 356
insects 62, 94
in-situ leach mining 326
insulation 23–4
interaction 264
intercostal muscles 90
internal fertilisation 152, 160
internet 5, 7
interpolation 26
interpretation 4
  of fossil records 312
intestines 87
intolerances 124–5
intrusive igneous rocks 306, 317
invertebrates 158
investigation 68–9, 73, 137–8, 154, 191–2, 207–8, 216–17, 241–2, 245–6, 266–7, 307, 340, 352, 354–5, 359
  of reactions 275–83
ionic bonds 220
ionic compounds 236
iron 223, 265, 295–6, 329
Iron Age 327
iron ore 326
iron oxide 265
iron-bearing rocks 319
irreversible chemical change 263
irreversible physical change 256

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irrigation 100
IVF (in vitro fertilisation) 154

jejunum 122
judgement 30

karst landscapes 298–9
kettles 352
Kevlar 199
kidney transplants 133–4
kinetic energy (KE) 338, 344, 354–5
kinetic energy transfer 350–1
kingdoms *under* specific kingdom
koala bears (koalas) 129–30
komatites 322

lab reports 29–30
labelling 23, 48, 174, 361
laboratories (labs) 12, 73
  no food consumption in 60, 190
  see also safety
lactase 125
lactose 124–5
land 101, 324
  rehabilitation of 329
language 228, 297
large intestine 123
Latin 228, 297
lattices 233–4, 237
lava 296, 305, 322
lava lamps 200
law 138, 324
law of conservation of energy 350
lead 316
leaves 98, 351
legends (within maps) 23
lenticels 100
life
  history on Earth 310
  units of *see* cells
lifestyle 136
lift 338, 342, 374
light 57, 192, 268–9, 273, 280–1, 318, 338, 342, 344, 347
light energy 339, 342, 351
light microscopes 38–9
light-emitting diodes (LEDs) 358
lightning 343
limestone 294, 298–300, 313, 329
line graphs 20–1
lines 16–17
lines of best fit 26, 31
lipids 51–2, 116
liquids 188–90, 230
  'normal' 201
  properties of 199–200
lithosphere 295
liver 87, 122, 136
liver function 137–8
living things 43, 47, 299
lungs 90, 92, 94, 108
lustre 224
luteinising hormone (LH) 162
luxury items 334

macrophages 113
macroscopic specimens 38, 44
magma 294, 296, 305–6, 316–17
magnesium 240, 295–6
magnetite 319
magnets 319, 347
magnification 39, 58, 99
male reproductive system 161
males 150, 162
malleability 224
maltose 118
mammals 124, 152, 155
manganese–cobalt nodules 326
mantle 295
mapping 110
marble 313, 324
markers 134
marrow 83
Mars 259
marsupials 155–6
mass 188, 197, 199, 223, 256, 338–9, 342, 347
  see also density; volume
mass extinction 312
materials 4, 49, 79, 193, 217, 237, 253, 291, 313, 335, 339, 364, 375
  new, purpose-built 199
mating 151, 164
matter 188, 197, 221, 244
  states of 188–94
mean 16
  calculating *example* 17
measurement 11, 196–7, 338
  see also units
mechanical digestion 117, 120
mechanical energy 374
medications 133
medicine 55, 230, 365
melting 296
melting points 196, 224, 229
menstruation/cycle 160, 163
mercury 316
metal compounds 239
metal springs 346
metallic bonds 220
metalloids 224
metals 224, 239, 328
  versus non-metals 225–6
metamorphic rocks 294, 296, 302–3, 312–14, 316
meteorites 297, 319
meteors 312
methane 130, 236, 280
method 4
mica 318
microorganisms 67–70, 124, 299
microscopes 38–45, 60, 78, 83, 223
  history 38
  parts and terms 39
  smartphones as 41
microscopic organisms 38
microwave ovens 192
midwife toads 156
milk 124
mimicry 86, 184
minerals 116, 294–5, 324–6
mining industry, processes 324–30
mitochondria 48, 50, 83, 86, 89
mitosis 65, 78, 150
mixing 260–1
mixtures 220–2, 243–4
  symbols for 228–9, 244
models/modelling 61, 68–9, 78–9, 92, 96, 100, 119, 147, 188–94, 257–8
  testing prior to construction 290–1
  see also particle model
Mohs hardness picks 317–18
molecular elements 233
molecules 232–3, 237
  interactions 264
molluscs 310
molten rock *see* magma
monatomic elements 232
monocular microscopes 39
monotremes 164
Moon, the 49
moss 166
motion, random 339
moulds 311
mouth 87, 90–1, 118, 272
movement 83, 189, 216–17, 338
  of particles from high to low concentration areas *see* diffusion
mucus 93
mudstone 302, 308–9
multicellular organisms 47, 54, 78, 85, 157
muscle cells 66, 84, 86
muscles 90, 92, 123, 146
mycelium 62

native animals 329
native plants 329
natural asexual reproduction 167
natural resources 363
nectar 170, 172
neotenic characteristic 102
nerve cells 66
nervous system 56, 82
net zero homes 362
neurons 82
Newton, Isaac 201
Newtonian fluids 201
nickel 295
nitrogen 221, 278
nomenclature 239–42, 317
nominal data 19
  versus ordinal 22
non-infectious diseases 70
non-metal compounds 239
non-metals 224
  versus metals 225–6
non-Newtonian fluids 201
non-renewable energy sources 363–5
nose 90–1
nuclear energy 329, 338, 346–7, 364
nuclear power 345
nuclei 43, 47–9, 82
Nullarbor Plain 298
numbers 19, 318
  balancing equations 275–6
nutrients 50, 57, 61, 85, 87, 105–6, 111, 116, 122, 130
nutrition 129

objects 338, 342
observation 4, 60, 83, 99–100, 194, 196
ocean currents 300
oceans 259
octane 236, 281
odour 256, 267
oesophagus 119, 272
oestrogen 162–3, 165
offspring 150, 156–7, 166
oil 116

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oobleck 201
opacity 318
opals 330
opinion 7
ordinal data 19
  versus nominal 22
ores 316, 326–7, 329
organ donation 133–4
  pros and cons 139
organ regeneration 136–7
organ rejection 133
organ repair/replacement 133–9
organ replacement 134–6
organ systems 82–139
  see also body systems
organ transplants 133–9
organelles 47–54, 58, 78, 82
organisms 84, 87
organoids 136
organs 78, 84–6, 154
  artificial 86
origin 23
outer core 295
outliers 19
outputs 351, 356
ovaries 160, 162–3
overcrowding 78
ovulation 160, 162–3
ovules 170–1
ovum 160
oxygen 43, 82, 86, 89, 100–1, 105–6, 108, 116, 136, 146, 196, 221, 233, 265, 290, 294–6
ozone 233

palynology 172
pancreas 87, 122
pap 130
paper 14–15
paper planes 18–19
parenting 156
parthenogenesis 158
particle model 188–94, 257
particles 189, 298, 308, 339
passive housing 362
pasteurisation 67–9
pathogens 67
patterns 4, 19, 25, 172, 237, 269, 273, 320–2
pebbles 300
pendulum 20–1
penicillin 71
penis 161
pepsin 120–1
percussion method 353
periodic table 230, 232
periods (rows) 230
peristalsis 119, 122, 124
personal protective equipment (PPE) 12, 231, 270, 279, 328, 340
perspiration 162
pharmaceuticals 282
pharynx 91
phenomena 189
pheromones 151
photosynthesis 56, 351
pH/scale 120, 128
physical adaptations 151
physical change evidence 256–61
physical properties 196, 198, 200
physical weathering 298
physiological adaptations 151
picks 317–18
pigments 279, 314
pigs 134–5
pine trees 176
placer mining 326
plans/planning 4
  mining plans and designs 325
plant cells 56–8, 60–1
  animal–plant cells distinction 58–61
plant reproduction 166–79
Plantae 54
plants 47, 87, 100, 237, 303, 329
  respiratory systems in 98
plaque 146
plasma 113, 189, 230, 347
plastics 165, 237, 252
platelets 114
  activated 114
plots/plotting 20
  contradicting 'rules' 23
  see also graphs
plutonic igneous rocks *see* intrusive igneous rocks
pods 176–7
poles 300
pollen 170, 172, 175
pollination 170–1, 175, 179, 184–5
pollution 363
polonium 224
polyatomic elements 233
polymers 237–8
pond water 59–60, 199
population, genetic diversity 166
positive material identification (PMI) guns 325
potential energy 354–5, 366
potential energy (PE), types 338
power 225, 328, 374–5
  back into the grid 362
  hydroelectric 366
practicals 14–15, 18–21, 23–4, 42, 60–1, 68–9, 73, 83–4, 95, 99–100, 103–4, 109–10, 137–8, 169, 174, 178, 191–2, 194, 197–8, 207–8, 225–6, 231–2, 240–2, 245–6, 258, 266–7, 270–1, 283, 307, 320–2, 328, 340, 359
  see also experiments; tests/testing
precipitates 263, 268, 279
precipitation/reactions 279–80
precision 29–30
predation 156
prediction 4, 10, 26
prefixes 239
pregnancy 153, 163
presentation(s) 7, 11–12
preservation 329
  see also fossils
pressure 90, 92, 106, 192–3, 201, 294, 296, 302, 312, 316
primary data 6
printed hearts 107
printing 342
procedures 4, 11, 14–15
  decimal places [values] 16–17
  fair process 139
  faulty 19
processing (mining stage) 327–8
products 95, 127, 199, 264, 275–7, 280, 324
  by-products 351
  see also waste products
progesterone 162
prokaryotic cells 47–8, 65
properties 189, 196–201, 224–6, 229–30, 236, 243–4
prostate 161
prosthesis 216–17
proteins 50, 52, 116
Protista 47, 54
protists 47, 63
prototype 184–5
puberty 160, 162–5
pull forces 342
pulmonary artery 111
pulse 106
pumice 305
pumps 374
pure mixtures 220–2
pure substances 220–2, 244
purification (mining stage) 327–8
pyloric sphincter 121

qualitative data 22
quality 4
  of minerals 324
quantitative data 19
quantity 23
quarantine 69
quartz 294, 318
quartzite 313
questions/questioning 4, 6
  starters 5

rabbits 160
radial pulse 106
radiation 192, 325, 346
radioactive atoms 338
radioactive decay 367
radioactive materials 364
radioactivity 303
radiometric dating 303
rain 62, 298, 308
rainwater 297–8
randomness 25, 55, 189
rates/ratings 23–4, 106, 307, 357, 361
ratios 123, 243
raw data 19
raw materials 196
reactants 275–6
reactions 196, 264, 269, 275–6, 282, 290–1, 327
  investigating 275–83
  also under specific reactions
reading, with pens 6
records/recording 311
  on the fly 16
  see also reports/reporting
rectum 123
red blood cells 43, 65, 82–3, 113–14
reduce, reuse, repurpose, recycle 252–3, 261
reflection seismology 325
regenerative medicine 55
rehabilitation 329
relationships 4, 19

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between density–mass–volume 197
between hormones 163
temperature–pressure relationship 193
relaxation 106
relevance 6, 8
reliability 4, 26, 30
versus validity 29
remote settings 368, 374
renewable energy 362–3, 368
renewable energy sources 365–8
repair 55, 65–6, 78, 116, 133–9
repeats 11
reports/reporting 4, 29
also under specific report type; *see also* records/recording
reproducibility 29
reproduction 66, 78, 150–79
reproductive system 160–5
reproductive technologies 154
reptiles 164
repulsion 196
research 79, 147, 184, 217, 253, 291, 335
background 6–9
conducting 4–15
questions *see* questions/questioning
resistance 201
resolution 39, 41
resources 166, 363
metal 329–30
respiration 86
versus breathing 89
respiratory systems 90–3
human 89–96
other 96, 98–105
results 4
factors affecting 30
reversible physical change 256
review 4
rhizomes 167
ribosomes 50
ripples 341
risk assessments 4, 11–12
risk minimisation 12
rivers 298
robotics 125, 136, 184
rock art 314
rock cycle 296–303
energy sources for 303
rockets 290–1
rocks 294–322
all harmless? 316
behaviour of 318–19
classifying and identifying 319–22
formation 294–303
types of 305–14
room temperature 224
rotation 338
rotational kinetic energy 338
rotifer 63
rubber bands 346
rules/guides 23
ruminants 131
runners 167
rural/remote settings 368, 374
rusting 196, 265–7, 276

safety 12, 27, 42, 68, 73, 83, 99, 103, 174, 190–2, 207, 225, 231, 240–1, 245, 270, 277, 279, 328, 340
safety data sheets (SDSs) 12–13
safety glasses 27, 137, 240–1, 277
saliva 118
salt 137–8, 324
saltwater 259
samples 325
sand 300, 308, 329
sandstone 313
scabs 114
scale 23, 128, 185, 317
small-scale models 290
scanning electron microscopes (SEMs) 40
scanning tunnelling microscopes (STMs) 223
scars 55
scatter plots 20, 26–7
schist 302
sciatic nerve 82
science as human endeavour 41, 53, 56, 72, 86, 93, 100, 105, 107, 110, 125, 130, 136, 154, 165, 175, 179, 196, 198, 208, 223, 234, 237, 259, 264, 273, 282, 299, 312, 322, 325, 342, 362
scientific method 4–27, 29–31
framework 4
scientific reports 30–1
see also lab reports
scientific research *see* research
scrotum 161
sea levels 300
sea stars 157
searches/searching 6–7
techniques 7
seasons 166
secondary data 6–8
sediment 298, 301, 316
sedimentary rocks 294, 296, 299, 301–3, 308–9, 316
sediments 308
seed dispersal 176–7
seed germination 178
seed pods 176–7
seeds 166, 170, 176–7, 179
seismology 325
self-design 191–2, 197–8
self-pollination 171
semi-conductors 225
seminal vesicles 161
senses 118, 338
energy detection with 339
also under specific sense
sensors 278
separation 233, 243, 261
sessile organisms 87
sex hormones 165
sexual reproduction 150–1
in animals 150–8
in plants 170–8
shale 308, 313
shape 49, 58, 82, 113, 190, 196, 199–200, 216, 233, 237, 256–7, 305–6, 317, 338
strength of 14–15
sharp objects 174
shells 310
signals 82, 123, 151, 325
silica 308
silicon 224, 294–6, 298
simple cells 47–8
simulation 110
sinkholes 298
sinking 197–8
sinoatrial node 107
size 43–5, 99–100, 137, 196, 220, 223, 230, 237, 256, 300, 317, 338, 342
skeleton 216
skin 66, 86, 94
cells 65
slate 302, 309, 313, 318, 324
small intestine 121–2, 272
smell 91, 118
smelting 327
smoke 263, 267
sneezing 69
snoring 91
snow 298
social responsibility 325
sodium 278
sodium carbonate 329
sodium sulfate 238
solar energy 345, 361, 366
solids 188–90, 194, 230
properties of 197–9
solubility 196
solutes 260
solvents 260
sound 268, 344
sound energy 339, 342
sound waves 342
sources (information) 4, 6, 8–10
space 200, 342
living space 334–5
space programs 198
specialised cells 55, 82–4, 105
species 134, 150
extinction of *see* extinction
preservation of 329
see also mass extinction
specificity 6
specimen 59
speed 300, 338, 354
spelling 7
spelunkers 299
sperm cells 83, 150, 153, 161
sphincter muscles 120, 123
spinning 338
see also rotation
spontaneous generation 67
spore formation 157
spring energy *see* elastic potential energy
squashing *see* compression
stalactites 298
starch 118
stars 347
states
changing 203–8, 259
of matter 188–94
stationary organisms 87
steam 206, 367
stearic acid 207
steel 198, 265
steganography 266
STEM 78–9, 146–7, 184–5, 216–17, 252–3, 290–1, 334–5
stem cell therapy 55
stem cells 54–6, 82
stents 146

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stereoscopic (stereo) microscopes 40
steroids 51
stigma 170
stomach 87, 120–1, 124, 272
stomach acid 128
stomata 98–100
stone tools 313
stones 309, 314, 329
streak tests 319
strength 14–15, 342
stretch/stretching 338, 346
striking 318
stroke 114
student practicals 225–6
substances 196, 220–2, 244
sugar 260, 264
sugar snakes 282
sulfur 233
Sun, the 57, 303, 345, 351, 364, 366
sunlight 57, 98, 366
  see also photosynthesis; solar energy
super bugs 71
super crabs 105
superhydrophobic substances 196
supernova 303
surface area 94, 118
surface mining 326
surface water 259
survival 156, 176
sustainability 79, 147, 179, 185, 199, 253, 291, 329, 335, 363, 375
sweating *see* perspiration
symbols 228–9, 238–9, 244
synthesis 276–7, 282
systems 71, 73, 82–114, 116–25
  cells to 82–7

tables 4
  displaying data in 16–17
  features 16
  see also periodic table
tadpoles 156
taste 118, 269
taste buds 118
teacher demonstration 225–6, 279–80, 282–3
teams/teamwork 291
technological advances 40–1, 327
technology 112, 125, 135–6, 154, 179, 184, 325, 342, 362, 364, 368
tellurium 224
temperature 68–9, 161, 179, 191–3, 201, 224, 268, 302, 312, 316, 322, 339, 346, 351
  extremes 296, 298
tense 11
terminology, for microscopes 39
testes 161
tests/testing 4, 8–10, 14–15, 18–19, 23–4, 178, 231–2
  helping to classify rocks 317–19
  prior to model construction 290–1
  see also experiments; practicals
texture 256
theory 43, 230
thermal decomposition 277–8
thermal energy 339–40, 346–7
thermometers 207, 258
third person writing 11
thrust 290
thunderstorms 343
time 260, 322
tin 223
tissue engineering 136–7
tissues 84–6, 111
titles (of tables) 16
toads 156
tongue 118
tools 308, 313, 318
tornados 334
touch 69–70
tourism 298
trace 311
trachea 91–2
tracheoles 94
traditional land owners 324, 329
traits 127
trampolines 346
transfer 350–1
transformation 351–6
translucency 318
transmission electron microscopes (TEMs) 40, 223, 264
transplants 133–4, 139, 146
transparency 318
transportation 78, 300
travel 18–19, 176, 299
travelling waves 341
trees 100, 167, 176, 344, 364
trendlines 20
trends 4, 19, 25
trials 11, 16–17
  multiple 18
tripods 207
tubers 167
turbines 351, 365–6, 374
Twelve Apostles 300

ultraviolet light 172, 273
Uluru 308
uncertainty 11, 30
underground bunkers 334–5
underground mining 326
unicellular organisms 47, 78, 85
units 23, 44
  column heading showing 16–17
  of life *see* cells
  also under specific unit; *see also* measurement
universe, the 347
unstable atoms 338
uranium 316, 329, 346, 364–5
urethra 161
useability 217
uterus 153, 155, 160

vaccines 282
vacuoles 57, 98
vacuum 342
vagina 160
validity 30
  versus reliability 29
valleys, dry 298
values, to same decimal place 16–17
van Leeuwenhoek, Antonie 38
vapour 98, 206, 208, 221, 281
variables 10
  stating 4
vas deferens (sperm duct) 161
vegetables 264
vegetation 299–300
vegetative propagation 167–8
veins 108, 111
vena cava 107–8
ventilation 89, 245
ventricles 107–8
vertebrates 158
vesicles 52
vessels 111–12
vibration 189–90, 192, 339
villi 122
viruses 70, 134–5
viscosity 342
vitamin C 116
vitamins 116, 136
volcanic eruptions 305, 322
volcanic rocks *see* extrusive igneous rocks
voltage 225, 328, 343
volume 188, 197, 199, 256
  see also density; mass
vomit 124, 128
vultures 127, 130

wand 299
waste energy 357
waste products 85–6, 89–90, 101, 106, 108, 125, 133, 252, 261, 270, 356, 365
  to energy 368
water 23–4, 57, 98, 101, 136, 191–2, 199, 230, 265, 280–1, 299, 334, 339–41
  hot *versus* cold 208
  states of 208
water vapour 98, 206, 208, 221, 281
  see also gases
wave 342
wave energy 339, 341–2
Wave Rock 300, 306
wavelengths 108
waves 300, 308
weathering 296, 298–300, 303, 308
weight 57, 374
  of elements 230
wet mounts 59–60
wetlands 329
white blood cells 72, 113
whole bodies 311
wind 157, 177, 230, 298, 300–1, 308
wind energy 365
wind power 374–5
word equations 265, 275–81
words, key 6
work 338
wounds 55, 65
writing 10–11, 30–1

x-axis *20, 22*
xenotransplantation 134
X-rays 71, 325

y-axis 20, 22
yeast 267

zero 23
zero waste society 252
zygotes 54, 150, 166
  to embryo 153

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5.2 / Steve Cicero, 5.18 / Photon-Photos, 5.20 / EAGiven, 5.21 / Adrian Rosu, 5.22 / Still Images, 5.24 / Jonas Ahrentorp, 5.29 / William Luedtke, 5.33 / bymuratdeniz, 5.37 (l) / Jonathan Knowles, 5.39 (r) / Milanfoto, p.215 / / SeventyFour, 5.39 / Nuno Valadas, Chapter 6 Opener / Nuno Valadas/Eyem, Chapter 6 Opener Background / Omar Marques, 9.54 / ALFRED PASIEKA/SCIENCE PHOTO LIBRARY, p.227 / Thomas Vogel, 6.10 / ANDREW LAMBERT PHOTOGRAPHY, 6.12 / Yamaguchi Tomoya, 6.15 / posteriori 6.18 (1) / NurPhoto, 6.18 (2) / Anthony Au-Yeung, 6.18 (3) / tribion, 6.19 / pamspix, 6.21 / imagestock, 6.22 / Toxitz, 6.26 / LauriPatterson, 6.25 / Aleksandr Zubkov 6.27 / Westend61 6.31 / videophoto, p.252 / Juj Winn, Chapter 7 Opener / LauriPatterson, Chapter 7 Opener Background / Natalia Bodrova, 7.1 (1) / Andy Roberts, 7.1 (2) / Markus Senft, 7.1 (3) / Oliver Strewe, 7.1 (4) / Jenny Dettrick, 7.3 / Alexey Sizov, 7.4 / Nenov, 7.8 /

ISBN 978-1-108-98036-4

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