Name: ……

Form Group: ……

Year 9 Knowledge Organiser Term 2

English—Animal Farm

Year 9 Term 2

Week 1: Complex Sentences

A complex sentence is a sentence with a **main clause** (a phrase which makes sense on its own) and a **subordinate clause** (a phrase which doesn't make sense on its own).

Example: *I went to the park even though I didn't want to.*

I went to the park. This is a complete simple sentence.

even though I didn't want to. This is not a complete sentence as it does not make sense until you add it to a main clause.

Week 2: Embedded Clauses

Embedded clause: A subordinate clause in the middle of a complex sentence. It doesn't make sense on its own and must have punctuation on either side. You can use parentheses (brackets) or a pair of commas.

Examples: The crocodile, which had been lurking under the water, pounced towards its prey.

The crocodile (which had been lurking under the water) pounced towards its prey.

Week 3: Inference

Inference: The ideas you infer/work out from reading something, what the text makes you think of, the connotations of a text.

Examples:

The man was crying therefore he must be upset about something.

*The **black** sky **hung** overhead: Black and hung have connotations of death.*

Week 4: Word Patterns

Writers think carefully about the word choices in their writing in order to create a specific effect or mood for the reader or audience.

Sometimes writers choose to create a pattern by linking words across a paragraph or whole text. The words that create a pattern can be grouped together in a 'field'.

Lexical field: Words that are associated with a specific topic or subject.

Example: The lexical field of football would be: pitch, ball, players, goal, score, and team.

Semantic field: Words that are associated by meaning.

Example: A semantic field of violence would be: shred, ripped, beat, pulsed, throbbed, smashed, and shrieked.

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Week 5: Grammar

Was or were?

Was: Singular past tense verb.

Examples: The house was abandoned. The dog was lonely.

Were: Plural past tense verb.

Examples: We were hungry. They were excited.

Is or are?

Is: Singular present tense verb.

Examples: He is happy. The house is wonderful.

Are: Plural present tense verb.

Examples: They are happy. The dogs are running around.

Have (not *of*)

The phrases 'should of', 'would of' and 'could of' are always wrong.

The correct contractions of the verbs 'should have', 'would have', 'could have' are 'should've', 'would've', 'could've'.

Example: He should not have been late to lesson.

Week 6: Dash and Ellipsis

Dash (-): Used to add extra information at the end of a sentence.

A dash is a mid sentence punctuation and does not need a capital letter after it.

Example: Please call my mum - she's at home.

Ellipsis (…): Used to show a pause, hesitation or interruption in speech. An ellipsis can also be used to indicate missing words from a quotation to shorten it.

Examples: "I'm… I'm pleasantly surprised." 'The house was large, red, brick...and built over 100 years ago.'

An ellipsis can also be used to leave a cliffhanger at the end of a sentence or text.

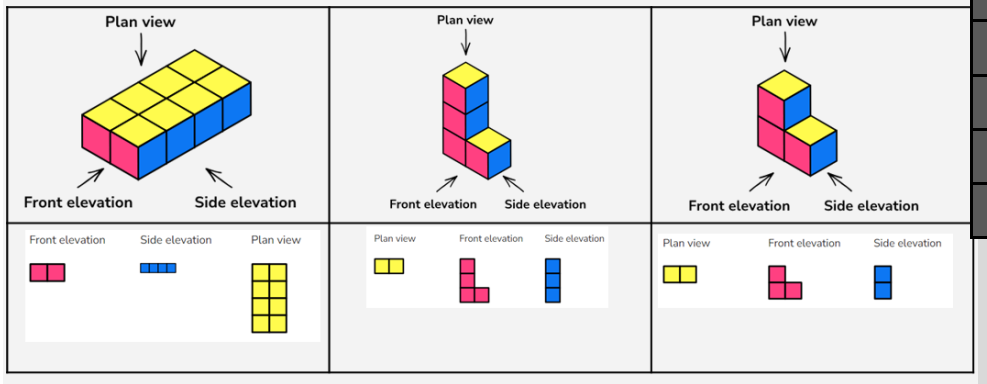
Example: Suddenly, it was gone…

Maths—Constructing in 2 and 3 Dimensions

Year 9 Term 2

Three-Dimensional Shapes

2-D Shapes	A flat shape with two dimensions such as length and width
Polygon	2D shapes made by three or more straight, connected sides.
3-D Shapes	A shape with three dimensions: length width and height
Face	A flat surface of a 3-D shape
Vertex	A point where two line segments meet; a corner of a shape
Edge	A line segment joining two **vertices** of a 3-D shape. It is where two **faces** meet
Prism	A solid shape with polygons at its end and flat surfac-es
Net	A 2-D shape that can be folded to make a 3-D shape
Plan View	The view of an object from directly above
Front/Side Elevation	The view of an object from the front or the side

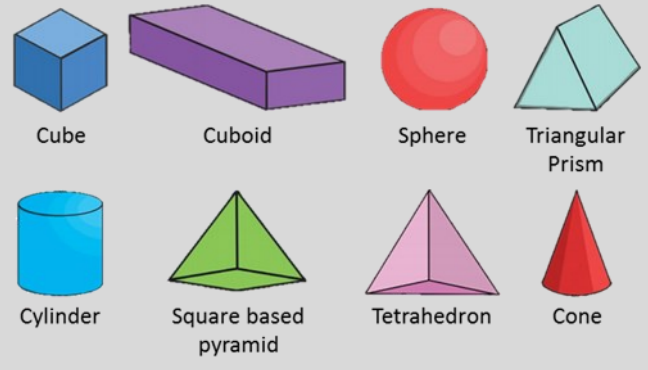


Constructions and Congruency

Construct	Draw accurately using a ruler and compasses
Sketch	A rough drawing
Acute Angle	An angle less than 90°
Obtuse Angle	An angle more than 90° but less than 180°
Scale	The ratio of the length in a drawing or a model to the actual object
Locus	A set of points that follow a rule and form a line
Equidistant	At the same distance from another point or line
Bisector	A line that divides something into two equal parts
Congruent	Exactly the same size and shape, but possibly a different **orientation**
Orientation	The position of an object based on the direction it is facing
Hypotenuse	The side opposite a right angle in a right-angled triangle

Area, Surface Area and Volume

Perimeter	The distance around the outside of a **2-D shape**
Area	The amount of space inside a **2-D shape**
Compound Shape	Also known as a composite shape. This is a shape made up of two or more other shapes
Surface Area	The sum of the areas of all the **faces**
Capacity	How much space a **3-D shape** holds
Volume	The amount of space taken up by a **3-D shape**
Cross-section	The shape that runs along the length of a **prism**
Litre	1 litre = 1000cm^3

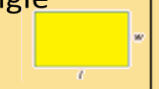
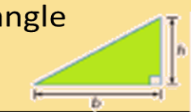
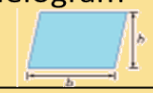
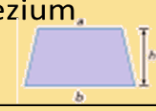


Key Formula

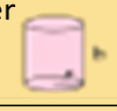
Surface Area

Sphere 	SA= $4\pi r^2$
Cone 	SA = $\pi rl + \pi r^2$

Area

Rectangle 	Area = $l \times w$
Triangle 	Area = $\frac{b \times h}{2}$ (Perpendicular Height)
Parallelogram 	Area= $b \times h$ (Perpendicular Height)
Trapezium 	Area = $\frac{a+b}{2} \times h$ (Perpendicular Height)

Volume

Cuboid 	Volume = $b \times l \times h$
Prism 	Volume = $CSA \times d$ (CSA- Cross Section Area)
Cylinder 	Volume = $\pi r^2 \times h$
Sphere 	Volume = $\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$
Cone 	Volume = $\pi r^2 \frac{h}{3}$

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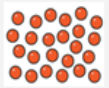
Science—Matter

Year 9 Term 2

The Particle Model

Solid		Most dense. Particles in fixed positions. Vibrations only
Liquid		Moderately dense. Particles still touch but move randomly past each other
Gas		Least dense. Particles move randomly and quickly

Key Term — Definition

Atom	The smallest particle of a chemical element that retains its chemical properties.
Proton	The positively charged subatomic particle found within the atomic nucleus.
Neutron	The neutral subatomic particle found within the atomic nucleus.
Electron	The negatively charge subatomic particle found within the shells surrounding the atomic nucleus.
Density	Density tells us how much mass there is in a certain volume. Density (kg/m³)= (mass (kg))/(Volume (m³))
Volume	The amount of space atoms in a substance/ object take up.
Temperature	A measure of the average kinetic energy of the particles in a system. Measured with a thermometer using °C or K
Specific latent heat	The energy needed to change the state of 1kg of a material. The units are J/kg. Energy = mass x SLH
Specific heat capacity	The energy needed to change the temperature of 1kg of a material by 1°C. The units of measurement are J/kg°C. Energy = m x SHC x ΔT
Gas pressure	A force on a container caused by the collision of particles with the container walls. Higher temperatures lead to higher pressure
Eureka can	Equipment used to measure the volume of an irregular objects.
Sublimation	A change of state from a solid to a gas.

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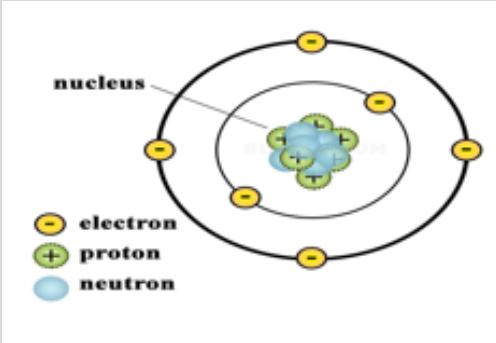
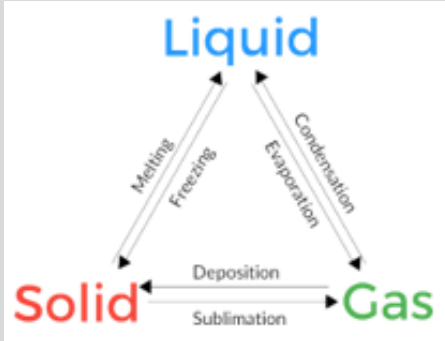
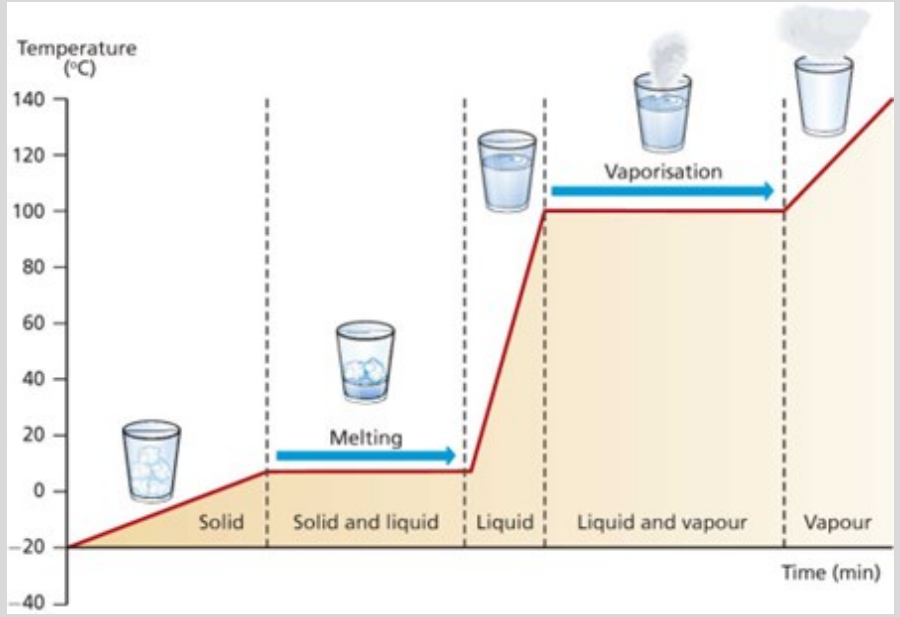
Changing State & Density

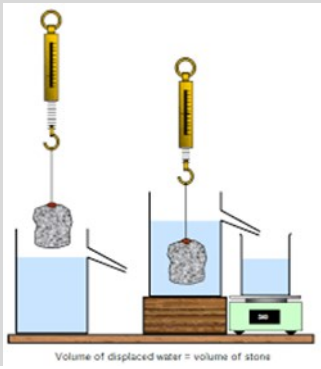




Subatomic Particle	Mass (mass unit)	Charge	Location
Proton	1	+1	Nucleus
Neutron	1	0	Nucleus
Electron	0.0005	-1	Shells surrounding the nucleus

The typical atomic radius is 1×10^{-10}m



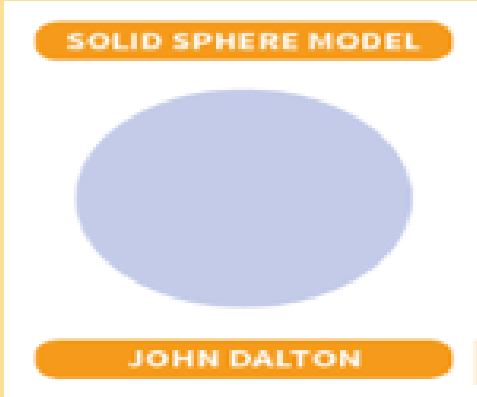


Investigating Density

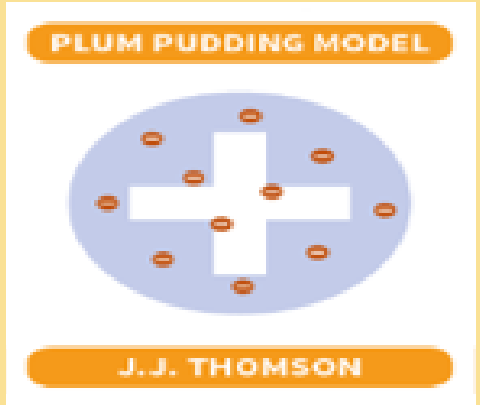
To determine the volume of regular objects use a ruler to measure the length, width and depth. These need to be multiplied to find the volume. To find the volume of irregular objects use a eureka can and measuring cylinder to measure how much water is displaced, this water has the same VOLUME as the object.

The mass can be found using a mass balance. Apply the equation for density.

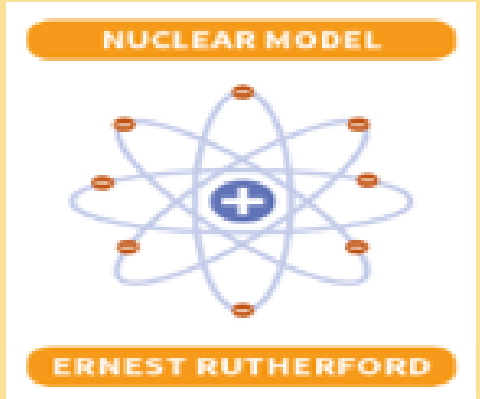
History of the Atomic Model



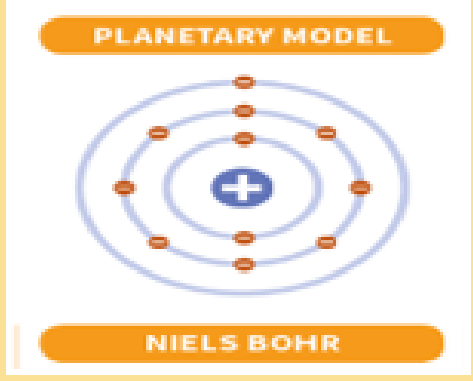
Dalton thought atoms were small indestructible spheres. All atoms of the same element are identical to each other.



Thompson discovered the electron. He created the plum pudding model which shows negative electrons equally spread through positive matter.



Rutherford fired positively charged alpha particles at gold foil. Most passed through, some were deflected at small angles and some at large angles. This shows the majority of the atom is empty space with a small positively



Bohr modified Rutherford's model by stating that electrons move around the nucleus in fixed orbits.

Science—Elements, Compounds and Mixtures

Year 9 Term 2

Key definitions

Soluble	A substance can dissolve
Insoluble	A substance cannot dissolve
Solvent	The liquid solute dissolves in
Solute	The substance that dissolves
Solution	Formed when a solute dissolves in a solvent
Pure substance	Consists of one element or compound
Impure substance	Contains more than one element
Relative atomic mass	The mean mass of an atom of an element compared to 1/12 the mass of a carbon-12 atom.
Relative formula mass	The mean mass of a unit of substance compared to 1/12 the mass of a carbon-12 atom.
Empirical formula	Shows the simplest whole-number ratio of the atoms of each element in a compound
Molecular formula	Shows the actual number of atoms of each element in a compound

How to determine purity

Method 1: Use melting point data.
An impure substance melts over a range of temperatures or at a point that is lower that the pure substance.

Method 2: Use chromatography data
More than 1 spot or peak shows an impure substance

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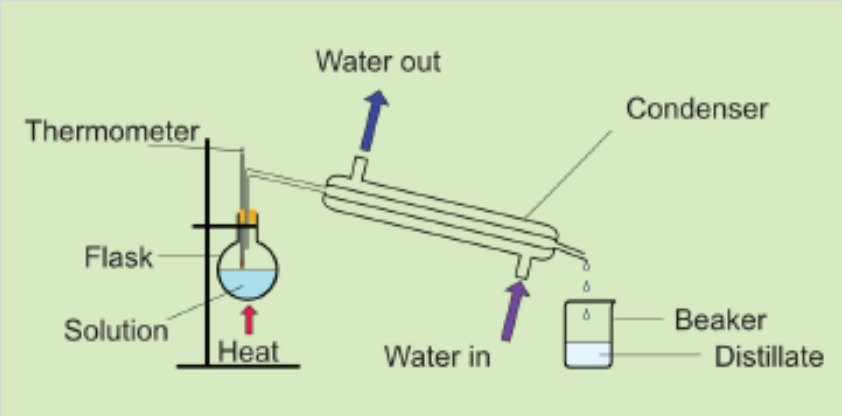
Separation Techniques

Distillation

Heat the solution to evaporate the solvent.
The solvent cools and condenses and is collected.

Will collect and separate both substances.



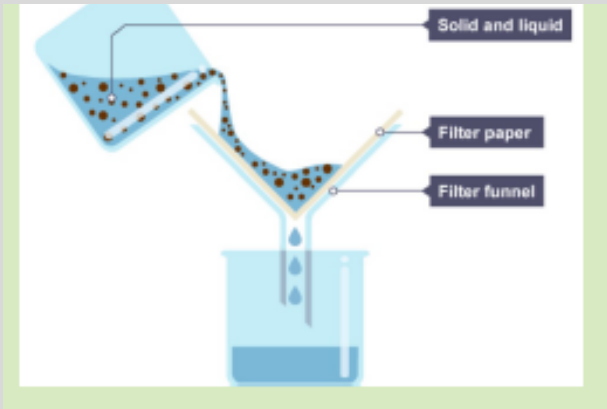
Crystallisation

Separates a soluble substance from a solution. Used when only the salt is required.

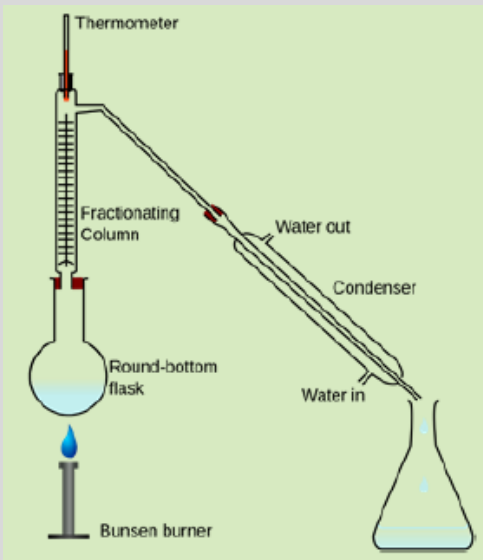
Chromatography

Paper Chromatography
The stationary phase is the paper and the mobile phase is the liquid **solvent (water)**
Thin layer Chromatography
The stationary phase is a thin layer of silica or alumina pow-der and the mobile phase is the liquid solvent (water or ethanol)
Gas Chromatography
The stationary phase is silica or alumina power or a dense gel. The mobile phase is an unreactive gas.

Filtration
Separates an insoluble substance from a liquid.



Fractional Distillation



Separates a mixture of liquids.

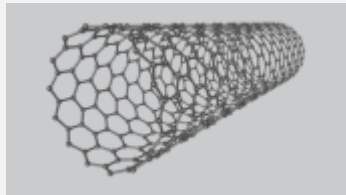
Science—Elements, Compounds and Mixtures

Year 9 Term 2

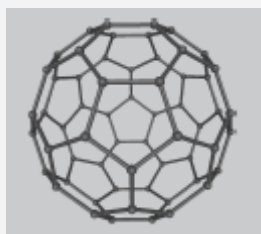
Name	Bonds per carbon	Conduct electricity	Uses
Diamond	4	No	Saw blades and drill bits
Graphite	3	Yes	Blast furnace linings, Pencils
Graphene	3	Yes	Anti-corrosion coatings, Electronics
Nanotubes	3	Yes	Electronics
Buckyball	3	No	Lubricant and drug delivery

Fullerenes

Nanotubes
A sheet of graphene rolled into a tube.



Buckyball
Made of 60 carbon atoms (C60).
Used to deliver drugs to cells and as lubricants



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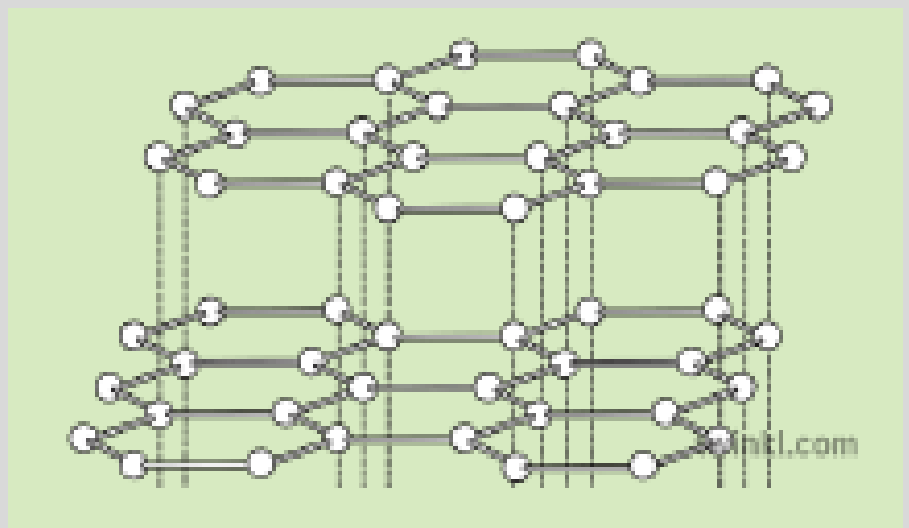
Allotropes of carbon: Graphite

- A giant covalent structure
- Each carbon is covalently bonded to 3 others.
- Graphite is made up of layers held together by weak intermolecular forces. They can slide over each other.
- There are many strong covalent bonds meaning that graphite has high melting and boiling points.
- There are delocalised electrons meaning graphite can conduct electricity.



Carbon

Carbon is in group 4 and has 4 electrons in its outer shell. It can form 4 covalent bonds with other elements. There are many allotropes of carbon including diamond, graphite, graphene and fullerenes. Allotropes of different forms of the same element.

History—How measly were the Middle Ages?

Year 9 Term 2

Timeline

1025	Avicenna, the Islamic doctor, publishes his book 'The Canon of Medicine' with over 400 different cures.
1209	The University of Cambridge is established.
1215	The Magna Carta is signed by King John when he is forced by the Barons. The King holds too much control in England and is a poor military leader.
1348	The Black Death arrives in England
1381	The Peasants' Revolt takes place.
1357-1453	The Hundred Years War between England and France

Key Individuals

King John	King John was forced to agree to the Magna Carta, which limited the power of the monarch.
Wat Tyler	The leader of the Peasant Revolt.
King Richard II	Richard was the 14 year old King who faced the Peasants Revolt in 1381.
Galen	A Roman doctor who was still very influential in the medieval period. He used Hippocrates' theory of the Four Humours to explain illness and had dissected animals.

The Islamic world was at the centre of scientific discovery whilst Britain used Urine Charts and Barber Surgeons to deal with sickness.

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Key Words

Measly	Too small in size or amount: not enough. This enquiry suggests that the Middle Ages were not a good time to be alive or important in history.
Tithes	The money people paid to the Church. This was around 10% of their earnings.
Monasteries	These Church buildings were the homes of monks and nuns and were used as hospitals.
Superstition	The belief in supernatural powers such as good and bad luck.
Islam	The religion followed by countries in the Middle East. Many wars were fought between the followers of Islam and Christianity.
Relics	A historical, religious object believed to have the power to "cure" people.
Priests	These were the men who would conduct church services like mass and marriages.
Latin	The language of the Church and Bible.
The Black Death	The disease that arrived in England in 1348. symptoms varied from buboes on the neck and groin to flu like symptoms.
Peasants	The poorest people in society, they often worked as farmers.
Serfs	Serfs were farmers owned by a landowner, they were not free to leave the land without permission.
Miasma	Bad smelling air– people believed bad smelling air could carry disease.
The Four Humours	The four liquids in the body that people believed should always be balanced to be healthy– yellow bile, black bile, blood, phlegm.

Key Questions

How important was the Church to everyday life?

- The Church offered people an understanding of the world and some form of education.
- Priests would pray for the souls of the dead so that they could get into heaven.
- The Church acted as a meeting place for the people.

What was the Black Death?

- In 1348 the Black Death arrived in England. The disease killed around 1/3 of the population. The people had no idea what caused it or how to treat it– they believed it was sent as a punishment from God
- The country faced widespread food shortages after the Plague and many towns and villages were abandoned. Cures were superstitious and included using animals or whipping to please God.
- Symptoms included– a fever, large buboes, a rash on the body and then death.

What was The Peasants' Revolt?

- The revolt started when tax collectors tried to collect the new Poll Tax to pay for King Richard II's war against France.
- Peasants were angry that they were still serfs and serving their King.
- The peasants demanded that they all be free and equal. The leader of the rebellion was a man called Wat Tyler.
- The King lied and promised them freedom, but the men involved in the revolt were quickly killed.

Who healed the sick in Medieval England?

- Physicians were professionally trained and university educated. They would look at the symptoms of the patient's symptoms and diagnose them.
- Barber surgeons were untrained surgeons, they learned their skills on the battlefield and would cut hair and do basic surgery.
- Apothecaries would mix herbal remedied– they had no formal education but would pass their skills and knowledge onto apprentices.
- People still believed in the work of Galen and Hippocrates.

What were Medieval Hospitals like?

- Religious hospitals were run by the Church and were very clean
- Some charities opened specific hospitals for the mentally ill or those with contagious diseases like Leprosy

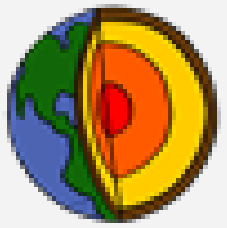
Geography: How risky is our world?

Year 9 Term 2

What increases hazard risk?

The risk of a hazard can be increased by several factors including location, magnitude, poverty, development of a country, and preparedness.

Why do tectonic plates move?



- The earth consists of 4 layers, the inner core, outer core, mantle and crust.
- The crust is divided into sections called tectonic plates.
- An area where two tectonic plates meet is called a plate margin.

Plates move due to the processes of slab pull, ridge push and convection currents in the mantle

Slab Pull	• Dominant force driving plate movement. • Old dense oceanic crust sinks into the mantle due to gravity, pulling the rest of the plate. • This causes convection currents in the mantle
Ridge Push	• Magma rises through the gap created by slab pull, pushing the plate up to form a ridge at the margin. • It cools and forms a new oceanic plate which becomes more dense and pushes away from the ridge due to gravity.
Convection Currents	• Magma is heated at the bottom of the mantle and rises to the surface, cools, an sinks back down. This creates convection.

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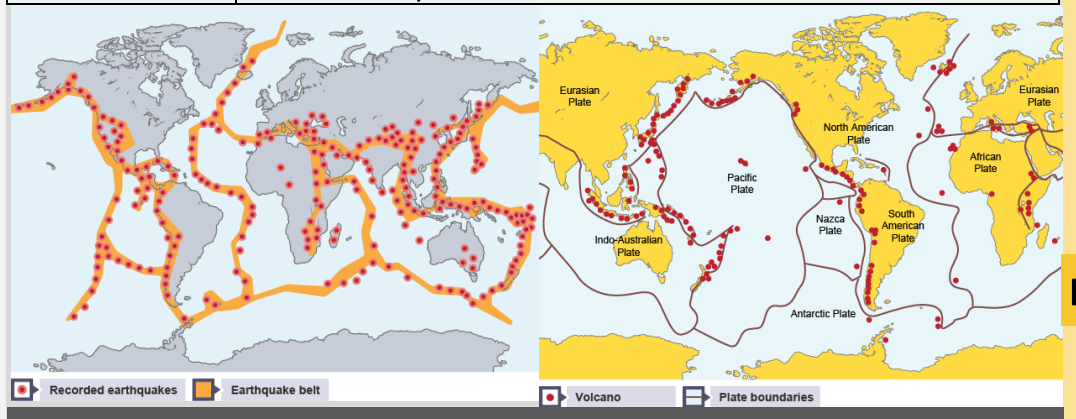
Key Terms

Natural hazard	A natural event that threatens people or has the potential to cause damage, destruction and death.
Plate margin	The margin or boundary between two tectonic plates.
Hazard risk	The probability or chance that a natural hazard may take place.
Slab pull	The dominant force driving plate movement where gravity pulls the oceanic crust into the mantle.
Ridge push	A type of plate movement where plates are pushed upwards to form a ridge, then forced away due to gravity.
Tectonic plate	A rigid segment of the earth's crust which can 'float' across the heavier, semi-molten rock below.
Earthquake	A sudden or violent movement within the Earth's crust followed by a series of shocks.
Volcano	An opening in the Earth's crust from which lava, ash and gases erupt.
Effects	The impacts of a natural hazard on people and property Primary effects are caused directly by it, secondary effects occur as indirect impacts, sometimes on longer timescales.
Responses	The reactions of people to a disaster. Immediate responses happen immediately, long-term responses happen weeks, months and years after the event.



Why do people live in risky areas?

Some people decide that the negatives of moving outweigh the risks of the hazard e.g. if they have family in the area and want to stay or they simply can't afford to move. On the plus side, volcanoes can create very fertile farmland which is useful for agriculture and are tourism hotspots.

In HICs some areas are very well protected against the hazard so the residents feel the risk is low.

Volcanoes can also provide geothermal power which is renewable and sustainable.

How do earthquakes and volcanoes create risks?

Three types of plate margin lead to hazards. Earthquakes occur at all three margins. Volcanoes do not occur at conservative margins.

- A **destructive margin** is where plates move towards each other and the denser plate subducts into the mantle. This causes it to melt and become magma. Friction between the plates builds until it is released as a powerful earthquake. Magma forces its way through weaknesses in the crust to create violent volcanoes.
- A **constructive** margin is where two plates are moving apart. Magma reaches the surface by filling the gap. New crust is created when the magma cools. Less powerful volcanoes occur when magma erupts through the weakness in the crust. Smaller earthquakes occur due to the build up of friction.
- **Conservative** margins only create earthquakes when two plates slide past each other in opposite directions, or in the same direction at different speeds. Friction builds until it is eventually released as seismic energy creating an earthquake.

Haiti Earthquake 2010 (LIC)

7.0 magnitude
230,000 people killed and 1 in 5 jobs lost.
Cholera outbreak due to poor sanitation
98% of rubble remained after 6 months.
The World Bank waived Haiti's debt payments for 5 years.

New Zealand Earthquake 2011 (HIC)

6.3 magnitude
185 people killed.
£28 billion in damages, with 2 further aftershocks four months later.
Canterbury Earthquake Recovery Authority set up to provide 10,000 new homes.

How cab we reduce the risk of tectonic hazards?

Prediction and monitoring: Using scientific methods to predict when a hazard is going to occur e.g. satellite surveying changes in the movement of the earth, seismometers, historic seismic events.

Protection: Building earthquake or volcanic eruption resistant infrastructure to protect individuals against the risk.

Planning: Planning to reduce the risk by creating exclusion zones in areas most at risk, having emergency supplies ready in case of an evacuation and training emergency services to deal with the aftermath of a hazard.

Religious Studies—What is Ethics?

Year 9 Term 2

What is Utilitarianism?

Act Utilitarianism

Act Utilitarianism was created by Jeremy Bentham. Bentham believed an action that brings the greatest amount of happiness to the greatest amount of people is the right action. This is because he believed that:

'Nature had been placed under the governance of two sovereign masters; pain and pleasure'.

This quote essentially meant that people were controlled by doing the most pleasurable things and avoiding anything painful.

For this reason Act Utilitarianism is considered **hedonistic** because it focusses on pleasure. It is also considered **quantitative** because it focusses on the amount of pleasure. It is also considered to be **teleological** because it focuses on the consequences of an action rather than the action itself. This means that awful crimes such as murder could be justified (allowed) as long as the consequences in the end were good.

In order to work out which action will produce the greatest amount of pleasure for the greatest number of people, Bentham created the **Hedonic Calculus**. This was a 7 step calculator to try and work out the consequences of an action before they even happened.

The 7 steps are:

1. Intensity - how intense will the pleasure be?
2. Duration - how long will the pleasure last?
3. Certainty - how likely is it that pleasure will occur?
4. Propinquity - how soon will the pleasure occur?
5. Fecundity - will the action lead to future pleasure?
6. Purity - will the action lead to future pain?
7. Extent - how many people will benefit from the action?

Bentham's Godson, John Stuart Mill, came along and said that there were too many problems with utilitarianism. He said it was too simple to just focus on pleasure and pain as humans are more complex than this. He famously said: *"It is better to be a human dissatisfied than a pig satisfied."*

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Trinity TV > Year > Subject

Key Terms

Ethics	The principles that control a person's behaviour.
Morality	The principles of right and wrong.
Meta Ethics	The study of ethical language.
Normative Ethics	The study of ethical actions.
Deontology	Whether something is right or wrong is based on the action.
Teleology	Whether something is right or wrong is based on the consequence.
Quantitative	Relating to the quantity (amount) of something.
Qualitative	Relating to the quality of something.
Legalism	A system of rules that are always meant to be followed.
Antinomianism	A system of no rules and any action is acceptable.
Ethical Theory	Ethical theories attempt to clarify what is right and wrong and teach us how we should act.
Moral Philosophy	The study of the ethics and morality.
Utility	The state of being useful.
Ambiguity	When something doesn't have a set answer.
Infallible	Cannot be wrong

What is Ethics?

Meta VS Normative Ethics

Ethical theories can be divided into two categories:

Meta Ethics: The study of ethical language. For example, "what is the definition of evil?".

Normative Ethics: The study of ethical actions. For example, "why is violence bad?".

Meta Ethics focusses on what "good" and "bad" actually means, whereas Normative Ethics focusses on why actions are considered "good" and "bad".

What is Natural Law Theory?

Natural Law Theory was created by St Thomas Aquinas. Aquinas believed it was our human nature to do good and avoid evil. He called this **synderesis.**

Natural Law Theory is based on **five primary precepts** (rules).

1. Preservation of Life.
2. Continuation of Human Species.
3. Education of Children.
4. Live in an Ordered Society.
5. Worship God.

What is Situation Ethics?

Situation Ethics was created by Joseph Fletcher. Fletcher believed what was right and wrong depended upon the individual's situation.

Fletcher rejected legalism (rules) and antinomianism (no rules). He argued that rules could be broken for reasons of love.

In order to help people make the most loving decision, Fletcher created four **working principles** to consider when making a decision.

1. Pragmatism - actions must achieve a loving outcome.
2. Personalism - we should always show love for people.
3. Relativism - the right action depends on the situation.
4. Positivism - our faith should include the most loving action.

Computer Science— Python

Year 9 **Term 2**

Boolean Operators

AND	The AND operator will output True if both sides are true, otherwise it will be False.
OR	The OR operator will output True if either or both sides are true, otherwise it will be
NOT	The NOT operator reverses the statement, if it's True it become False, if it's False it becomes True.

Compartive Operators

==	Equal to
!=	Not equal to
<	Less than
>=	Greater than or equal to
<=	Less than or equal to

Compartive Operators

+	Addition
—	Subtraction
*	Multiplication
/	Division
/ /	Integer division
%	Remainder
* *	Exponent

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For more help, visit Trinity TV and watch the following videos:

Trinity TV > Year 9 > Computer Science

Key Terms

Python	A programming language close to English
Syntax	The rules of a language – how it is written and presented.
Sequence	Parts of the code that run in order
String	A sequence of letters, numbers and symbols in quotation marks.
Function	A piece of reusable code.
Variable	A variable is storage location for values. The values can change.
Concatenation	Adding strings and variables together.
Selection	Use of logic commands to alter the flow of a program.
Indentation	Moves code inwards to show it belongs to the same subsection of code
Integer	Whole numbers, no decimal point.
Float	Decimal Numbers.
Boolean	Can only output the result of True or False.
Module	A file containing a set of functions you want to include in your application.
Iteration (Loops)	Repetition of a section of code for a set number of times or until a condition is met.
Array	An array is a 'list' of data items which are all the same data type.
Random Module	Allows the computer to generate a random number or option.
Comparison Operator	When comparing data, a comparison operator is used to test the condition.

Python to English

print('hello')	Prints a value on the screen
input('')	Inputs a value into the computer
x=input('')	Inputs a value and stores it into the variable x
if name == 'Fred':	'Checks to see if the variable 'name' has a value that is equal to 'Fred'
else:	The other option if the conditions for an if statement are not met (eg. name = 'Bob' when it should be Fred)

Variables / IF / ELSE / WHILE LOOPS

```
Fname = "Paul"
Sname = "Smith"
print(Fname+Sname)
```

A **variable** can hold a value that can be changed. We can assign a value to a variable by using an equals(=) sign.

```
name = input("What is your name")
print("Your name is "+name)
```

We can add 2 strings together using +, this is known as concatenating. We can get a keyboard input from the user using the input function. This example will ask the user for their name and store it in the "name" variable. We can then print that value. Combine the inputs with other Strings to print a clear message.

```
obtainedKey = True

if obtainedKey == True:
    print("Door opened")
```

If statements allow a section of code to only run when a certain condition is met. The print will only happen if the player has the key (the variable being True).

```
score = 3

if score == 3:
    print("Excellent")
elif score == 2:
    print("Good")
elif score == 1:
    print("Poor")
elif score == 0:
    print("Terrible")
else:
    print("Not a valid score")
```

ELIF and **ELSE** allows us to check variables against more conditions. We can have as many ELIF as we need but only one if and else in an else if statement block.

```
lives = 3

while lives != 3:
    answer = input("enter the correct password")
    if answer == "3nt3r"
        print("access granted")
    else:
        lives=lives-1
```

while loop will keep repeating code until a certain condition is met. For example repeat until lives do not

Spanish - El tiempo libre

Year 9 **Term 2**

Week 1 and 2 - Vocabulary

Week 1:

bailar	to dance
cantar	to sing
comer	to eat
ganar	to win
hacer	to do
hacer cola	to queue
ir	to go
ir de compras	to go shopping
jugar	to play (sport)
llegar	to arrive
recibir	to receive
tocar el piano	to play the piano
ver	to watch/see
viajar	to travel
visitar	to visit
volver	to return
me divierto	I have fun
quedo	I meet

Week 2:

el artista	artist
la actuación	performance
la banda sonora	soundtrack
la batería	drums
la canción	song
el/la cantante	singer
el concierto	concert
el coro	choir
en directo	live
la entrada	ticket
el espectáculo	show
la estrella	star
la función	show/performance
la letra	lyrics
el papel	role
el premio	prize
el teatro	theatre
la taquilla	box office
la trama	plot

Week 3 and 4 - Vocabulary

Week 3:

el lunes	on Monday
el martes	on Tuesday
el miércoles	on Wednesday
el jueves	on Thursday
el viernes	on Friday
el sábado	on Saturday
el domingo	on Sunday
el fin de semana	on the weekend
por la mañana	in the morning
por la tarde	in the afternoon
por la noche	in the evening
el tiempo libre	free time
en mi tiempo libre	in my free time

Week 4:

creativo/a	creative
decepcionante	disappointing
desagradable	unpleasant
estimulante	challenging
fatal	awful
fatigante	tiring
horroroso/a	horrible
interesante	interesting
maravilloso/a	marvellous
relajante	relaxing
aburrido/a	boring
educativo/a	educational
emocionante	exciting
entretenido/a	entertaining
estúpido/a	stupid

Week 5 and 6 - Vocabulary

Week 5:

además	furthermore
antes	before
aun así	nevertheless
después	afterwards
entonces	then
finalmente	finally
luego	next
no obstante	however
por otra parte	on the other hand
primero	first
jamás	never
ni…ni	neither...nor
nada	nothing
nadie	nobody
ninguno	none/no-one

Week 6: Key Phonics

Looks like:	Sounds like:
j	h
ca / co / cu	ka / ko / koo
ce / ci	theh / thee
ga / go / gu	ga / go / goo
ge / gi	heh / hee

Remember: the letter 'h' at the beginning of a word is always **SILENT**.

Week 1 and 2 —Grammar

Present tense of jugar (to play) and hacer (to do)

Both of these verbs are very important. They have regular verb endings in the present tense, but they have irregular stem-changes.

For this reason, it is important that you learn them off by heart!

Jugar (to play)		Hacer (to do)	
I play	Juego	I do	Hago
You (s) play	Juegas	You (s) do	Haces
He/she/it plays	Juega	He/she/it does	Hace
We play	Jugamos	We do	Hacemos
You (pl) play	Jugáis	You (pl) do	Hacéis
They play	Juegan	They do	Hacen

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For more help, visit Trinity TV and watch the following videos:

Trinity TV > Year 9> Spanish > Term 2

Week 3 and 4 —Grammar

The Past Tense

There are 3 types of verb in Spanish: verbs that end in –ar, -er or –ir.

To conjugate verbs in the past tense, there are 2 simple steps:

1. Chop the –ar / -er / -ir off the infinitive: habl~~ar~~
2. Add on the correct ending depending on who the **subject** (the person doing the verb) is, e.g. hablé = I talked.

	-ar e.g. visitar	-er e.g. comer	-ir e.g. vivir
I	Visité	Comí	Viví
you (s.)	Visitaste	Comiste	Viviste
he/she	Visitó	Comió	Vivió
we	Visitamos	Comimos	Vivimos
you (pl.)	Visitasteis	Comisteis	Vivisteis
they	Visitaron	Comieron	Vivieron

Week 5 and 6 —Grammar

Past tense of jugar (to play) and hacer (to do)

Both of these verbs are also irregular in the past tense.

For this reason, it is important that you learn them by heart!

Jugar (to play)		Hacer (to do)	
I played	Jugué	I did	Hice
You (s) played	Jugaste	You (s) did	Hiciste
He/she/it played	Jugó	He/she/it did	Hizo
We played	Jugamos	We did	Hicimos
You (pl) played	Jugasteis	You (pl) did	Hicisteis
They played	Jugaron	They did	Hicieron