

Physics

Big idea (age 11-14)

PMA: Matter

What's the big idea?

The world is made of matter. Matter is a more formal word for 'stuff'. Anything that can be stored in a container, or weighed, is matter. Scientific ideas can help to explain why a given material behaves as it does, and may help scientists to develop new materials with specific properties.

Key concepts

The big idea is developed through a series of **key concepts** at age 11-14, which have been organised into teaching topics as follows:

Topic PMA1**Heating and cooling**

Key concepts:

- 1.1 Temperature
- 1.2 Heating and cooling
- 1.3 Thermal conduction
- 1.4 Thermal store of energy

Topic PMA2**Floating and sinking**

Key concepts:

- 2.1 Floating, sinking and density
- 2.2 Pressure in fluids
- 2.3 Convection

The numbering gives some guidance about teaching order based on research evidence on learning pathways and effective sequencing of ideas. However, the teaching order can be tailored for different classes as appropriate.

This document last updated: November 2019

Guidance notes

The BEST resources for chemistry include a big idea: *CPS Particles and structure*. This big idea includes the BEST key concept: *CPS1.1 Particle model for the solid, liquid and gas states* and the BEST topic: *CPS4 Energy and changes of state*. For the BEST topic: *PMA1 Heating and cooling* it has been assumed that the ideas in the BEST key concept: *CPS1.1 Particle model for the solid, liquid and gas states* have already been covered.

In the BEST key concept: *PMA1.1 Temperature*, temperature is described as a measure of how quickly the particles in a substance or a material are moving. This is correct for particles in a particular substance or material when its temperature is changed, but not necessarily true when comparing the particles in different substances that are at different temperatures. It is more accurate to describe temperature as a measure of the average energy that particles in a substance or material have because of their kinetic properties. The former definition has been used because it gives a clear and simple model for thinking about heating and temperature and does not contradict the more accurate definition that is usually taught in post-16 physics courses.

Learning progression

The science story associated with the big idea develops from age 5 to age 16, and could be summarised as follows:

Science story at age 5-11

Materials

There are many different materials (or kinds of matter) in the world. Examples include wood, paper, glass, plastics, steel, water, air, brick, skin, hair. Some are found naturally; others have to be made. Each material has its own distinctive properties. Useful words for describing the properties of a material include: rough/smooth; light/heavy (relative to its size); hard/soft; shiny/dull; rigid/flexible; springy/pliable. Other important properties of materials are: magnetic/non-magnetic; electrical conductor/insulator; thermal conductor/insulator; transparent/translucent/opaque (to visible light).

Some everyday objects are made of a single material; others have several parts made of different materials. For an object made of a single material, some of its properties are properties of the material; others are due its size and shape.

States of matter

Most everyday materials (kinds of matter) exist in one of three states at room temperature:

- Matter that is in the **solid** state keeps its shape unless it is bent or squeezed or stretched by an applied force (or forces). The size of the force needed to do this varies widely from one material to another.
- Matter that is in the **liquid** state flows, and fills the bottom of any container it is placed in.
- Matter that is in the **gas** state expands or flows spontaneously to fill the whole of its container.

A material made of tiny grains (such as sand, table salt, flour) behaves rather like a liquid, but the individual grains are solid.

A sample of matter in the gas state has weight. If gas is added to a container, the weight increases. Matter in the gas state can be compressed relatively easily by squeezing; matter in the solid and liquid states cannot.

If a sample of a solid material is cut into several pieces, or changed in shape by squeezing or rolling it, the amount of matter stays the same, as does the total weight. If a sample of a liquid is poured into a container of a different shape, the amount of matter stays the same, as does its volume and weight.

Change of state

Many materials change from being solid to being liquid when their temperature is increased, and from liquid to solid when their temperature falls. Many liquids become gases when their temperature is increased, and change from gas to liquid when their temperature falls.

Words used to describe the changes of state are: melt (solid → liquid); freeze, or solidify (liquid → solid); evaporate or boil (liquid → gas); condense (gas → liquid).

For example, water in the solid state (ice) changes into liquid water when its temperature reaches 0°C. Its temperature does not change while it melts. Water in the liquid state changes into ice (water in the solid state) when its temperature falls to 0°C. Again its temperature does not change while it freezes. The temperature at which the change of state from solid to liquid (or vice versa) occurs is called the melting point. Similarly, water in the liquid state changes into steam (water in the gas state) when its temperature reaches 100°C. Its temperature does not change while it boils. Water in the gas state (steam) changes into liquid water when its temperature falls to 100°C. Its temperature does not change while it condenses. The temperature at which the change of state from liquid to gas (or vice versa) occurs is called the boiling point. Other materials behave in a similar way. The melting point and boiling point vary from one material to another.

Water steadily evaporates at any temperature; evaporation gets faster as it gets hotter. Only when it starts to boil do bubbles of steam start forming within the liquid.

Solid, liquid and gas are called states of matter. A material does not have a 'natural' state; its state depends on its temperature.

When solid matter changes to the liquid state, there is usually a small increase in volume. Water is unusual in decreasing in volume when it melts. When liquid matter changes to the gas state, there is a very large increase in volume.

Science story at age 11-14

A particulate model of matter

A particulate model can explain basic properties of substances in the solid, liquid and gas states. The model can also account for changes of state.

In this model:

- All matter is made of very tiny particles – very, very much smaller than anything that can be seen under a microscope.
- There is no other matter except these particles (in particular, no matter between them).
- The properties of matter are the properties of large collections of particles – single particles do not have the same properties as the bulk matter.
- The particles of any given substance are all the same.
- There are attractive forces between particles. These differ in strength from one substance to another.

- In the solid state, the particles are close together, arranged in a regular pattern, and unable to move away from their neighbours.
- In the liquid state, the particles are also close together, but are less regularly arranged and can slide past each other.
- In the gas state, the particles are further apart, and can move freely.
- The particles are always moving: in the solid state, they are vibrating; in the liquid state, they are vibrating and jostling around; in the gas state, they are moving freely in random directions.
- The hotter something is, the faster its particles are vibrating or moving.
- A substance in the gas state exerts pressure because of the collisions between its particles and walls of the container.

Temperature and energy

The temperature of an object is a measure of how hot it is. It can be measured using a thermometer (in degrees Celsius, °C). To raise the temperature of an object, energy has to be transferred to it (gained by it). To lower the temperature of an object, energy has to be transferred from it (lost by it).

The amount of energy stored in a hot object depends on its temperature – the hotter the object, the more energy is stored. Also if two objects made of the same material are at the same temperature, the bigger (more massive) object stores more energy.

If two objects at different temperatures are in contact, energy will move spontaneously from the object at the higher temperature to the object at the lower temperature. The ‘other object’ might simply be the surrounding air. The rate at which energy moves depends on the temperature difference and the nature and thickness of the material(s) between the two objects. Materials which significantly reduce the rate of energy transfer are called thermal insulators.

If several objects and materials are left for some time in contact with one another, all of them will reach the same temperature (thermal equilibrium).

To keep an object at a steady temperature above that of its surroundings, energy has to be supplied to it at the same rate as it is losing energy to its surroundings. Similarly to keep an object at a steady temperature below that of its surroundings, energy must be removed from it at the same rate as it is gaining energy from its surroundings.

Thermal transfer of energy

If different parts of a metal object are at different temperatures, energy moves spontaneously (and quite rapidly) from the region at higher temperature to the region at lower temperature. This process is called thermal conduction. Non-metals are, in general, less good thermal conductors. Some, such as materials that contain trapped air pockets, are good thermal insulators.

At room temperature, thermal insulators feel warmer to the touch than conductors (such as metals, glass, stone and ceramics), because they do not allow energy to be transferred as quickly from our body (which is at 37°C – well above room temperature).

If the temperature of one region of a fluid is raised, the fluid expands and becomes less dense. It then rises within the fluid, carrying the energy stored in it, and cooler denser fluid takes its place. This process of energy transfer from place to place within a fluid is called convection.

A hot object can also lose energy by emitting radiation. The hotter an object is, and the larger its surface is, the more radiation it emits every second. When this radiation is absorbed by another

object, it causes the other object's temperature to rise. Objects with matt and black surfaces both radiate and absorb the types of radiation responsible for heating more rapidly than shiny and lighter coloured ones.

Density

The density of a substance is a measure of how heavy it is for its size. The density of a substance is defined as: mass of a sample divided by its volume. Density is a characteristic property of a substance.

A compact solid object (i.e. one that is not boat-shaped or hollow) floats in a liquid if its density is lower than that of the liquid.

If an object is wholly or partly immersed in a fluid, its apparent weight (as measured by a spring balance) is less than in air. The fluid exerts an upthrust on the object, so the net downward force acting on it is smaller (zero, if it floats). The upthrust is equal to the weight of fluid that the object displaces. An object made of a material less dense than the liquid displaces its own weight of liquid when only partly immersed. So it floats. An object made of a material that is more dense than the liquid will float if its shape means that it will displace its own weight of liquid before it becomes completely immersed (e.g. if it is cup- or boat-shaped, or hollow).

Most solids and liquids (and all gases) expand continuously as their temperature is raised. The behaviour of water is anomalous; when a block of ice melts, the volume of the liquid water is less than the volume of the ice. The water continues to contract as its temperature rises from 0°C to 4°C, and then begins to expand steadily. The expansion with temperature is small for solids and liquids, but bigger for gases. As a result of expansion, the density of a sample of gas gets less as its temperature increases.

Pressure in fluids

An object immersed in a fluid experiences forces acting on its surfaces caused by the pressure of the fluid. At any given point in a fluid, pressure acts equally in all directions. Its size is equal to the force acting normal to a surface, divided by the surface area (pressure = force divided by area).

The pressure at a point in a fluid is proportional to its depth, as it is caused by the gravitational force on the fluid above that point.

The pressure of the Earth's atmosphere is called atmospheric pressure. Usually atmospheric pressure causes equal forces to act in all directions on objects, so its presence is not apparent. But if a vacuum, or partial vacuum, is created by removing air, the force due to atmospheric pressure can cause movement (e.g. liquid moving up a drinking straw) or other effects (such as rubber suckers being pressed tightly on to surfaces).

Because pressure is proportional to depth in a fluid, the force exerted by a fluid is larger on the lower surface of an immersed object than on the upper surface. This difference causes the observed upthrust. It also explains why the apparent weight of a fully or partly immersed object is less than its weight out of the fluid.

All of these ideas apply to objects immersed in a gas (such as air) though the size of the upthrust is much smaller than for a liquid.

Science story at age 14-16

The structure of matter

Density is a measure of the mass of material in one cubic metre or in one cubic centimetre. It is calculated by dividing mass by the volume of an object or a material. The volume of an object can be measured using a ruler or Vernier calliper and then calculated, or the object can be submerged with the volume of water that it displaces measured.

When substances melt, freeze, evaporate, condense or sublimate, mass is conserved and these physical changes are all reversible.

Internal energy, energy transfers and particle motions

Heating a system will change the energy stored within the system and raise its temperature or produce changes of state.

Specific heat capacity of a material is the amount of energy required to raise the temperature of one kilogram of the material by 1°C (or one Kelvin).

The amount of energy required to increase the temperature of a material is calculated by multiplying the mass of the material by both its specific heat capacity and the increase in its temperature.

Specific latent heat of fusion is the amount of energy required to melt one kilogram of a material whilst it is at its melting point. Specific latent heat of fusion is the amount of energy required to vaporise one kilogram of a material whilst it is at its boiling point.

The amount of energy required to melt or vaporise a material is calculated by multiplying the specific latent heat of the material by its mass.

Increasing the temperature of a gas will increase the average speed of its particles. If it is in a container that has a fixed volume, the particles will hit the walls of the container both at a higher speed and more frequently. This will increase the pressure of the gas.