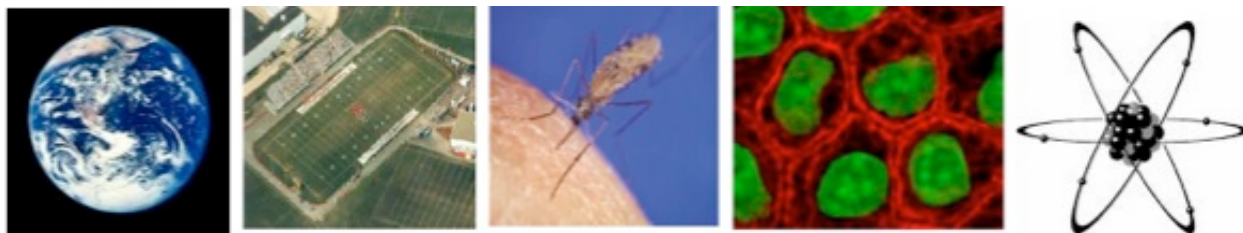


SYSTEMS & SCALE

MIDDLE SCHOOL

TEACHER GUIDE



Environmental Literacy Project

<http://edr1.educ.msu.edu/EnvironmentalLit/index.htm>

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Overview and Background for Teachers

The Environmental Literacy Project conducts research aimed at improving the preparation of students from upper elementary through high school to act as environmentally informed citizens. A summary of our findings is available in the Introductory Guide for the carbon cycle units. More detailed description of our research is available on our website: <http://edr1.educ.msu.edu/EnvironmentalLit/index.htm>.

One important conclusion from both our research, and our experiences in classrooms, is as follows: *When students enter school, they use narratives (or stories) to explain how the world works. This is the students' primary, or natural, discourse. The information they learn in science class teaches them more detailed narratives and new vocabulary, and they try to fit the new information into their existing narratives. Thus, students tell the same stories with more details, instead of learning new, more principled accounts about their world.* The activities of this module introduce students to *Tools for Reasoning* that highlight important principles—tools that students will use in all of our teaching activities.

Tools for Reasoning

This unit is designed to introduce students to *TOOLS FOR REASONING* that embody three key principles that are essential for reasoning about environmental processes: SCALE, MATTER, and ENERGY.

- **SCALE:** All environmental processes occur in a hierarchy of systems at different scales; we focus in particular on *atomic-molecular, microscopic, macroscopic, and landscape* scales. Many students struggle to connect events that they see at the macroscopic scale to explanations at the atomic-molecular scale and to matter cycling processes at landscape scale and global scales. In this unit we introduce students to reasoning about scale with the *Powers of 10 Tool*.
- **MATTER:** Middle school students tend to rely on a macroscopic force-dynamic reasoning to account for events: the event involves an actor with an ability or tendency to change something internally or in their environment, using enablers from the environment to support the change (e.g., the tree uses water, air, sunlight, and soil to grow). To middle school students, this force-dynamic reasoning does not involve any exchange of matter or energy between the actor and its enablers. Some middle school students may be aware of conservation laws, but will not use these laws to reason about events that change matter and energy. In this module we introduce students to reasoning about matter with the *Matter and Energy Process Tool*, so that changes in matter and energy become more visible to students.
- **ENERGY:** Elementary students may know the word energy but they usually cannot correctly identify energy involved in the events. This module introduces a list of energy forms that helps students to associate energy forms with *energy evidences* such as light, motion, foods, fuels, and so on. Elementary students also tend to understand energy as a type of “power” that triggers changes to occur. This type of reasoning does not account for tracing energy in and out of events. Also, elementary students usually do not recognize that heat is always released when energy transforms. In this module students use the *Matter and Energy Process Tool* to trace energy transformations, making energy forms more visible to students, and keeping these separate from matter.

Activities of This Module

The activities of the module introduce the core principles of scale, matter, and energy, and the Tools for Reasoning that students will use to apply those principles to systems and processes.

Activities 1-3: These activities introduce students to the idea that systems can be understood at multiple scales. An important goal for this unit is to help students gain understanding of 4 benchmark scales (atomic-molecular, microscopic, macroscopic, and landscape scale) that can help students compare the size of systems. Also, students use Powers of Ten as a tool for locating and comparing systems at different scale.

- During Activity 1 students define the terms “system” and “scale” and view the Eames Brothers’ DVD on Powers of Ten. Students think about what appears and disappears as you zoom in and out of Powers of Ten. They also classify these systems in terms of the benchmark scales.
- Then Activity 2 uses a Powers of Ten PowerPoint to look closer at a more limited range of scales from 10^8 (Earth) to 10^{-9} (Molecules). The teacher can use this PowerPoint to review the different Powers of Ten and to think about how the four-benchmark scales map onto the Powers of Ten. At this time students have an opportunity to try to locate systems on the Powers of Ten and discuss how their predicted locations match the actual location of those systems.
- During the optional Activity 3, students continue to work with the Powers of Ten charts, placing more systems onto the chart and categorizing those systems in terms of the benchmark scales. Lastly, students are given an opportunity to use Powers of Ten as a tool to make specific comparisons between systems (e.g., comparing the size of a water molecule to a drop of water).

Activity 4 serves as a bridge between what students learned about scale during Activities 1-3, and what they will continue to learn about matter in this unit and other materials.

- Activity 4 first asks for students’ initial ideas about how air can be talked about at the four-benchmark scales.
- Again, students see a short PowerPoint that represents air at different scales using Powers of Ten. Air at the landscape scale can be talked about as the atmosphere and large air masses. At the macroscopic scale we see air as foggy or “hazy”, such as the air (smog, haze, fog) that surrounds a city. When zoomed in to microscopic scale, we can see air as solid dirt/dust particles or liquid drops of water suspended in gaseous air. This PowerPoint gives the teacher the opportunity to point out that solid and liquid parts of air are visible, but that gaseous air still seems to be “nothing”. Then at the atomic-molecular scale, students see that all of these types of matter are made of molecules and only look visibly different because of the space and movement between molecules.
- Activity 4 also gives students the chance to build models of air molecules using molecular model kits. There are optional air investigations/demos that the teacher can use if they want to show students’ macroscopic evidence that air is matter—that it takes up space and has mass.
- The choice of looking at air during Activity 4 was intentional because gases are particularly problematic for students. The topic of air causes difficulties for students because air is a complex mixture of gases that are generally colorless, odorless, and thus undetectable except by indirect means. Many important phenomena, including respiration,

photosynthesis, humidity, smells, pollution, and the water cycle, are associated with variations in the mixture of molecules in air. Students must learn to see air and other gases as forms of matter like liquids and solids, with all the characteristics of matter in general: -- air is made of molecules -- air takes up space. Activity 4 does not begin to cover the complexities associated with understanding gases as a form of matter, but it does introduce students to the idea that matter can be viewed at different scales AND students think about how matter can look different at one scale (macroscopic) while it is really quite similar at another (atomic-molecular).

Activity 5, 6: These two activities introduce the matter and energy process tool through three steps: introduce energy forms, introduce the energy part of the matter and energy process tool, and add the matter part of the matter and energy process tool.

- *Activity 5* introduces students to forms of energy. Based on their daily life, students have constructed a lot of ideas about energy. In their minds, energy is mostly associated with movement, activities, or life. Energy can also be a kind of semi-material which can appear and disappear mysteriously or can be converted from or into matter. All these ideas conflict with the scientific meaning of energy. In science, energy is an abstract quantity associated with certain evidences, such as light, sound, foods/fuels, etc. It cannot be converted from or into matter except in nuclear reactions. ¹ In Activity 5, we first introduce the notion of *Forms of energy* and a list of forms of energy is introduced with explanation about how to identify each energy form based on its evidence. Students observe how several scientific toys work and figure out how energy is transformed in each event. The teacher can use the landscape scale Matter and Energy Process Tool and/or the “How Can Machines Work” PowerPoint to discuss the different energy transformations. The next activity (Activity 6) will add matter transformation to the Process Tool.
- *Activity 6:* The purpose of Activity 6 is to use combustion as an example to introduce the Matter and Energy Process Tool with both matter transformation and energy transformation. Activity 6 is also a bridge to help students connect their macroscopic experience of burning, with atomic-molecular ideas they learn in the latter half of this lesson and during Activities 7 and 8. Burning is treated as a process in which fuels or air is constantly consumed by flame. Some students may recognize burning as a chemical change, but gaseous reactants or products such as carbon dioxide, oxygen, and water vapor are usually not identified. In summary, most students do not hold the idea that chemical change is a process of atom re-arrangement. Although the molecules change in the reaction, the atoms remain the same. So, in the lab, students observe what happens when different fuels are burning and identify the gaseous reactant and products involved in burning. Then use the Matter and Energy Process Tool to help them identify how both matter and energy change during burning, and the teacher uses the landscape scale Matter and Energy Process Tool and/or PowerPoint slides to explain matter and energy transformations during combustion.

Activity 7, 8: These two activities introduce the atomic-molecular model of carbon transforming processes. Activity 7 focuses on the matter part of the model—chemical reaction as atom re-arrangement. Activity 8 focuses on the energy part of the model—connecting chemical energy with the structure of matter.

¹ In chemical changes, matter and energy are not convertible, but in changes happened within atoms—nuclear reactions, matter-energy conversion will take place. Our research convinces us that students are unlikely to understand how matter and energy change in nuclear reactions without first learning to conserve energy and matter as separate entities.

- Activity 7 focuses on the atomic-molecular structure of fuels and the re-arrangement of atoms during the combustion process. While students have used the Matter and Energy Process Tool to trace matter and energy transformations during their macroscopic observations of burning, this activity allows students to model the burning of those fuels with molecular model kits—that is, students demonstrate what happened to molecules during the burning lab. Important ideas that are addressed in Activity 7 (as well as introduced in Activity 6) include: 1) materials come from somewhere and go somewhere, and sometimes they start as solids/liquids and turn into gases, while other times they are gases that turn into liquids and solids, and 2) energy changes forms during the burning process, and combustion in particular shows us how chemical energy in fuels is turned into light and heat. Students learn that fuels are energy-rich materials, and that the bonds that make up these substances tell us about the chemical energy found in fuels.
- *Activity 8* expands on the idea that materials have chemical energy. In this activity students identify chemical energy in the bonds of different organic molecules. There is an explicit focus on the energy-storage molecules used by living cells (glucose, lipids). In this way, Activity 8 can serve as a bridge between the physical and chemical discussions that have been the gist of earlier lessons, and the working out of these principles in biological systems, setting the stage for examinations of metabolism and other processes in living organisms in upcoming modules.

Material List

TEACHER TOOLS

Powers of Ten DVD
 Landscape scale Powers of 10 Color Vinyl chart
 Landscape scale Matter and Energy Process Tool with Laminated labels (and magnetic)
 Set of Energy “Toys” or machines (solar car, kinetic flashlight, radiometer)

OVERHEADS, POWERPOINTS, SIMULATIONS

1 Overhead projector/ vis a vis markers
 1 Overhead Transparencies (1 each): (some black & white; some color)
 Zooming In and Out- black and white transparency
 Comparing Powers of 10: Blank- color transparency
 Comparing Powers of 10: Partial answers- color transparency
 Comparing Powers of 10: Answers- color transparency
 Directions for Building Models
 Powers of Ten PowerPoint
 Air PowerPoint
 Flame PowerPoint
 How can Machines work PowerPoint
 Explain Combustion PowerPoint

STUDENT HANDOUTS (1 PER STUDENT; STUDENT PAGES (BLACK AND WHITE COPIES))

Zooming In and Out
 Applying Powers of 10
 What is Air?

Building Air Molecules
How Can Machines Work?
Burning Materials
Does Burning Release Energy
Energy-Rich Materials

Student Handouts for Repeated Use (30 per teacher)

Forms of energy (reading)
Identifying Energy-Rich Materials (reading)
Comparing Powers of 10 Answer Key (color copy)

GROUP MATERIALS FOR REPEATED USE (1 PER GROUP)

Comparing Powers of 10 Group Chart (blank)- black and white 3x4 ft.
Comparing Powers of 10 Cutouts (in color)- color copies
Molecule kits for each group: each group should receive at least 12 Hydrogen, 18 Oxygen, and 6 Carbons and 36-40 Springs. In addition, students will have 2 Nitrogen.
Tape or sticky tack (to stick the cut-outs on the chart) - teacher supplies

LAB MATERIALS

Fuels: Methane, Butane, Propane, and Ethanol
Lighter, Beakers, Tongs, ice or access to freezer

Activity 1: Powers of 10

General Overview:

Introduction: What does “system” and “scale” mean to you?	~ 10 minutes
Whole class: Powers of 10 video	~ 20 minutes
Individual/small groups: Zooming in and out: What can you see?	~ 10 minutes
(If Time): Whole group: Zooming In and Out with a 2 nd look at video	~ 10 minutes

Estimated Time: 50 minutes

Purpose:

This lesson introduces students to the idea of using multiple scales to describe and connect systems. Students at the high school level are likely aware of different scales, but usually have trouble connecting visible systems and processes at the macroscopic scale to less visible processes at microscopic, atomic-molecular, and landscape scales. This activity begins to teach students about 4 benchmark scales and the Powers of Ten.

- The lesson begins by eliciting students’ understanding of atomic-molecular, microscopic/cellular, macroscopic, and landscape scale systems.
- The students then watch the Powers of 10 DVD (17 minutes), a video that shows the relative size of systems, from galaxies to subatomic particles. The video is approximately 17 minutes, but if time is an issue, the introductory material at the beginning of the video can be skipped (view video ahead of time to determine whether or not to use the full 17 minutes). The video should be used as a starting point for 1) revising students’ ideas about scale, 2) showing how systems can be viewed from multiple scales, and 3) providing students with a Powers of 10 framework for comparing different systems.
- After the video, the students have the opportunity to revise and modify their understanding of scale and systems. At this point, the main objective for middle school students is to start establishing 4 “benchmarks” for thinking about scale: atomic-molecular, microscopic/cellular, macroscopic, and landscape scale. Students will build on these benchmarks in Activity 2 and then connect the benchmarks to Powers of Ten in Activity 3 when they use Powers of Ten as a tool for comparing systems.

Materials:

Powers of 10 DVD
Student copies of *Zooming In and Out*
Transparency of *Zooming In and Out*
Overhead projector & vis a vis markers

Advance Preparation:

- Watch Powers of 10 DVD (17 minutes) and determine how much of the video to use
- Get equipment to play DVD
- Run copies of *Zooming In and Out* (if not provided by MSU)
- Make transparency of *Zooming In and Out* (if not provided by MSU)

Procedures:

Introductory discussion: Systems and Scale

~10 minutes

1. Before watching the video, it is important that students have some understanding of ‘system’ and ‘scale’. Spend the first 10 minutes developing a reasonable definition for these terms with your students. Some possible discussion questions might include:
 - a. In science we look at many different “systems”. What does this term mean to you? What do systems have in common that make them “systems”?
 - b. What does the word “scale” mean to you? (try to cue students to move beyond measuring scales, such as weight scales).
 - c. Possible definitions to use (you can use these before the video or wait until the discussion after the video, but at some point the class needs to have common working definitions for the terms ‘systems’ and ‘scale’ to use throughout the unit)
 - i. System: Set of connected and mutually interacting components
 - ii. Scale: the size or range of measurement used for describing a particular system. You can use scale and measurement to compare the relative sizes of systems.

Powers of 10 video

~20 minutes

2. Explain to students that they will watch a short film looking at how the same location can have many different systems at different scales. Students might want to take mental notes of what they see in the video, because images will change quicker than most will be able to write notes down. The DVD can be paused to allow students to further discuss particular images, but this can also wait until Step 4 below.

Zooming In & Out: What Can You See?

~10 minutes

3. Pass out the Zooming In and Zooming Out student worksheet. Read the instructions with students and tell students that the list of things at the beginning of the worksheet represents different systems or components of systems that were included in the video. Tell them that one way of thinking about scale is to group things in terms of 4 broad categories. These include atomic-molecular (things that are too small for even a powerful microscope to see²), microscopic/cellular (we cannot see but can use a microscope to see), macroscopic (things we can see with our eyes), and landscape scale (things that are too large to see with our eyes, but we can use representations and models to see)³. Encourage the students to dissect the words, for example, discussing what “scopic”, “micro”, and “macro” means and to develop a set of working definitions for each of these benchmark scales. Tell students to look through the list on their handout and think about the video. Then have the students classify each system or component into 1 of the 4 broad benchmark categories.

² Atomic force microscopes can create images of individual atoms or molecules, but the light microscopes that students are familiar with cannot.

³ The Powers of 10 video shows both smaller scales (sub-atomic) and larger scales (global, solar system, galaxy, universe). While it is good for students to be aware of these systems at smaller and larger scales, we will not use them in our materials on carbon-transforming processes.

Reflective Discussion: Systems and Scale

~20 minutes

4. The reflective discussion can take a variety of forms depending on the available class time. NOTE: You will only need page 1 of the student handout unless you plan to watch the Powers of Ten video again. If time is short, focus the discussion on how students categorized the various systems on page 1 of Zooming In and Out and any discrepancies or disagreements they may have. Try to come to consensus about how to categorize the list of systems in terms of the benchmarks, and continue to review the benchmarks with students. If there is enough time remaining during the class period, consider watching the Powers of 10 video again, and review the zooming in and out table as a class, by pausing at each Power of 10. What appears and what disappears? Let students use Page 2 of handout if necessary. As you pause the DVD, ask students “Which of the 4 broad categories does each system belong to: atomic-molecule, microscopic, macroscopic or landscape scale? Again, focus the discussion on discrepancies and try to reconcile them by asking questions such as “Can we see it with our eyes? Can we see it with a microscope?”

NOTE: In Activity 2 you will continue to build on the 4 key benchmarks for scale (atomic-molecular, microscopic, macroscopic, and landscape scale) using Powers of Ten to locate things on the scale. Mostly, this activity includes modeling of Powers of Ten by the teacher, and manipulation of a few key objects on a chart. During Activity 3 students will have a chance to manipulate and use Powers of 10.

Name: _____ Hour: _____

Zooming In and Out

When thinking about different scales, we can generally group systems and parts of systems into one of four groups: 1) atomic-molecular (things we cannot see even with a microscope); 2) microscopic/cellular (we cannot see with our eyes, but can use a microscope to see), 3) macroscopic (things we can see with our eyes), and 4) landscape scale (things that are too large to see with our eyes).

The following is a list of systems included in the Powers of Ten video. Try to sort these systems into one of the four categories described above.

Universe	Man or Woman	Cell Nucleus	United States
Hand	Earth	Lake Michigan	DNA molecule
Skin	Carbon Atom	Picnic Blanket	Galaxy
Capillaries	Skin Cell	Quarks	Chicago
City Park	United States	White Blood Cell	Solar System

1. What systems would you see at the atomic/molecular level?
DNA molecule, Carbon atom, quarks
2. What systems would you see at the microscopic or cellular level?
Skin cells, cell nucleus, white blood cells, and capillaries
3. What systems would you see at the macroscopic level?
Body of a Person, skin, hand, picnic blanket, City park, Lake Michigan, Chicago
4. What systems would you see at the landscape scale level?
City Park, Lake Michigan, Chicago, United States, Earth, Solar System, Galaxy, Universe
5. Are there any systems that you are unsure about?

You will watch the Powers of Ten video again. However, this time your teacher will pause the video at each scale, and you will need to think about what appears and disappears when you zoom in or out. You will need to complete the table below, and as you watch the video again, think about the size of different systems and if they match the groups you made on the first page.

What You See When You Zoom In	Starting Point: What You See	What You See When You Zoom Out
Picnic Blanket	City Park	Chicago

City Park	Chicago	Lake Michigan
Lake Michigan	United States	Earth
Earth	Solar System	Galaxy
Solar System	Galaxy	Universe
Skin	Hand	Body of a Man or Woman
Skin cells	Skin	Hand
White Blood Cell	Capillaries	Skin
Carbon Atom	DNA molecule	Cell Nucleus
Quarks	Carbon Atom	DNA

After watching the video again, is there anything you would change from your groups on the first page?

Zooming In and Out

What You See When You Zoom In	Starting Point: What You See	What You See When You Zoom Out
	City Park	
	Chicago	
	United States	
	Solar System	
	Galaxy	
	Hand	
	Skin	
	Capillaries	
	DNA	
	Carbon Atom	

Activity 2: Powers of 10 As A Tool

General Overview:

Introduction to Powers of Ten PowerPoint	~ 20 minutes
Mapping Benchmark Scales onto Powers of Ten Chart	~ 10 minutes
Powers of Ten Chart and Practice placing Items	~ 20 minutes

Estimated Time: 50 minutes

Purpose:

The students have watched the Powers of 10 DVD, a video that shows the relative size of systems, from galaxies to subatomic particles. They have also learned definitions for the words “systems” and “scale” and learned about 4 benchmark scales: atomic-molecular, microscopic/cellular, macroscopic, and landscape scale. In this second lesson, the Powers of 10 chart will be used as a framework for comparing systems at different scales, for example, comparing the size of molecules to cells and cells to leaves, etc. The teacher will first use a set of PowerPoint slides to bridge what students saw in the Powers of Ten video to using powers of Ten as a comparative tool. The Powers of Ten PowerPoint slides zoom in and out from Earth to molecules. Then students practice mapping benchmark scales to the Powers of Ten chart, and they will also begin mapping systems to charts. The goal of this lesson is to give students more practice with understanding scale and to help students see how Powers of Ten and the benchmark scales are both useful ways of comparing systems.

Materials:

Power of Ten (New).PPT (PowerPoint)
Computer and projector OR overhead set and overhead projector
Comparing Powers of 10 Overhead Transparency: Blank (from master)
Comparing Powers of 10 Overhead Transparency: Partial answers (from master)
Blank Powers of Ten group posters
Small set of Powers of Ten cutouts
Overhead projector & vis a vis marker

Advance Preparation: If not completed by MSU

- View Powers of Ten (New) PowerPoint and practice projecting this PowerPoint in classroom OR make overhead copies of each slide to use on overhead/opaque projector.
- Gather overheads for *Comparing Powers of 10 (blank, partial)*
- Gather poster-size copies of *Comparing Powers of 10 Group Chart (blank)* for each group
- Gather color copies of *Comparing Powers of 10 Cutouts* (students will only use a small set of these today, but will use all of them during Activity 3)

Procedures:

Introduce Powers of Ten using PowerPoint slides

~20 minutes

A PowerPoint slideshow has been developed as a way of bridging the Powers of Ten DVD viewed during Activity 1 with the Powers of Ten charts that are used in Activities 2 and 3 and throughout other classroom activities. The PowerPoint allows the teacher and students to zoom in and out at various steps similar to the DVD. This format allows the teacher to go step by step through various systems and scales and talk about the size of the system (and start making comparisons to other systems).

There are two ways to use the PowerPoint slides: Either on a computer projected to the class or by printing off overheads of the PowerPoint slides and showing them on an overhead projector.

The PowerPoint corresponds with many images of the Powers of Ten DVD but some images have also been replaced.

First have students review what they learned about systems and scale from Activity 1. Also ask students to share what they learned about the 4-benchmark scales.

Then use the PowerPoint slides to teach about systems and scale. For each slide first ask students what the system is (i.e., a solar system, planet, flower, virus, etc). Ask students what benchmark scale the system belongs to (i.e., atomic-molecular, microscopic, macroscopic, or landscape scale). As you get to the most familiar systems (Earth, cities, flowers, cells, virus, DNA), start modeling how to use the Powers of Ten to compare systems. These comparisons may be difficult for students, particularly those who struggle with math. As you model comparisons, pick examples from the familiar objects. For example, you might say, "A virus is 1 micrometer, but bacteria are 10 micrometers. That means bacteria are roughly 10 times larger than viruses".

While the most important goal for middle school students is to have them learn and use the 4 key benchmark scales, the Powers of Ten can also be a useful tool for comparisons. At this age level consider focusing on the most familiar scale comparisons (i.e., systems at a meter are 100 times larger than systems at a centimeter, systems at a centimeter are 10 times larger than something at a millimeter, etc)

Introducing Powers of Ten Chart

~25 minutes

Introduce the "horizontal" powers of ten charts to students using the blank Powers of Ten overhead transparency. Explain that this new chart is a second way of representing the Powers of Ten chart and make comparisons to PowerPoint slides. At this time, consider mapping the PowerPoint systems on the chart to bridge what students learned in the PowerPoint slides to what they will be doing next with the powers of ten charts. Use a wet erase pen to write these items on your blank powers of ten overheads.

As you map items from the PowerPoint to the chart, explain the axis on the chart and how to use Powers of 10. Although students may be familiar with powers of 10, they may not realize how to use it to compare the size of objects. One idea to emphasize here is that when you are comparing across such a wide range of scales, you don't need to know exact sizes of objects- that the powers of ten are helpful in making estimates about sizes and differences in scale.

Now that several items from the PowerPoint are mapped onto the blank powers of ten overhead transparencies, allow students to continue this mapping using a select group of "systems" found in the Powers of Ten cutouts. Pass out the blank Powers of ten charts to groups of students. Ideal group sizes would be 3 (but no more than 4 students). Pass out a set of powers of ten cutouts (listed below). Engage kids in using Powers of 10 by asking them to predict the location of those systems on the chart:

- a. the length of an average school bus
- b. the length of a passenger car
- c. a rain drop
- d. a sand particle
- e. a particle of milled flour
- f. particulate pollution (smog)
- g. a plant stomata

Give students about 8-10 minutes to discuss these objects/systems and place them on the charts.

Then, as a whole class, mark student responses on the blank transparency using the vis a vis marker (similar to making the systems from the powers of ten PowerPoint).

Then display the overhead transparency that shows the position of these items on the Powers of Ten Chart (this is the 'partial' overhead). Discuss differences in student responses, focusing on why they thought an object was larger or smaller than it actually is.

Whole class: Comparing Powers of Ten to 4 Broad Categories of scale ~5 minutes

At this point students need to map the 4 benchmarks onto the poster. Using the partial powers of ten overhead, have the students decide which powers of ten fall into each scale benchmark. The following are suggestions for how to divide the chart into benchmarks:

- Atomic-molecular (10^{-9})
- Microscopic (10^{-8} through 10^{-6})
- Macroscopic (10^{-5} through 10^2)
- Landscape scale (10^3 through 10^5)

Also point out the familiar measurements to students again: millimeter, centimeter, meter, and kilometer.

Collect the group charts and cutouts to be used during Activity 3

Activity 3: Using Powers of Ten (Optional)

General Overview:

Student groups: Completing <i>Comparing Powers of 10 Group Chart</i>	~ 20 minutes
Whole class: Checking the <i>Comparing Powers of 10 Group Chart</i>	~ 10 minutes
Student groups: Completing <i>Applying Powers of 10 Worksheet</i>	~ 10 minutes
Whole Class: Discussion of <i>Applying Powers of 10</i>	~ 10 minutes

Estimated Time: 50 minutes

Purpose:

During the past 2 activities, students have learned about four broad scale categories or benchmark scales: atomic-molecular, microscopic, macroscopic, and landscape scale. In Activity 2 students made comparisons between systems at each of the benchmark scales. Today they will spend time looking at a more detailed framework for comparing different scales using powers of 10. They will cutout photos of the different objects and tape/stick them to the poster-size chart. The class will then talk about where certain things were placed. The teacher will give students a regular sized copy of the actual Powers of 10 chart for students to have and use. Then the students will work in partners or groups using Powers of 10 charts to make size comparisons between different objects in terms of powers of ten and in terms of benchmark scales.

Materials:

Comparing Powers of 10 Overhead Transparency: Blank (from master)
Comparing Powers of 10 Overhead Transparency: Partial answers (from master)
Comparing Powers of 10 Overhead Transparency: Answers (from master)
Student copies of *Comparing Powers of 10 Answer Key*
Student copies of *Comparing Powers of 10 Group Chart* (1 per group)
Student copies of *Comparing Powers of 10 Cutouts* (1 per group)
Student copies of *Applying Powers of 10 Worksheet* (1 per student)
Overhead projector & vis a vis marker

Advance Preparation:

- Gather overheads for *Comparing Powers of 10 (blank, partial, answers)*
- Gather color copies of *Comparing Powers of 10 Answer Key*
- Gather copies of *Applying Powers of 10 Worksheet*
- Gather poster-size copies of *Comparing Powers of 10 Group Chart* at Kinko's
- Gather color copies of *Comparing Powers of 10 Cutouts*

Procedures:

Group work: Comparing Powers of 10 Group Chart & Cut-outs ~20 minutes

In Activity 2 students placed a small set of systems (8 objects) onto their group charts. Today they will work to place these on the chart again and add to those systems. First pass out poster-size copies of *Comparing Powers of 10 Group Chart* (1 per group) and color copies of the *Comparing Powers of 10 Cutouts* (1 per group) and tape/putty.

Remind students that they have already worked with these charts and cutouts before. As practice have students place the 8 systems from Activity 2 on the charts. The eight items include: the length of an average school bus, the length of a passenger car, a rain drop, a sand particle, a particle of milled flour, particulate pollution (smog), and a plant stomata.

Students have already learned the correct placement for these 8 objects during Activity 2 but may need help to accurately put them on the chart again.

Once all groups have placed these on their charts, have students respond to the following review questions:

1. Are there any objects on our chart that are at the atomic-molecular scale? (No) Can you think of any from the video or PowerPoint?
2. What systems/objects are at the microscopic scale (plant stomata, some particulate pollution)
3. What systems are at the macroscopic scale? (length of school bus, passenger car, rain drop, sand particle, milled flour)
4. Are there any objects on the chart at the landscape scale? (No) Can you think of any from the video or PowerPoint?

Then give students about 5 minutes to guess at where the other cutouts should be located on the chart.

Whole Class-Discussion of Poster-Size charts

~10 minutes

Have student groups share where they placed objects and note any disagreements between groups.

As a class, students should come to a consensus—with the teacher’s guidance—in regard to the positioning of the items on the Powers of 10 chart. At this time the teacher may show students an overhead copy of the actual placement of objects and pass out student copies of *Comparing Powers of 10 Answer Key*. The Answer key overhead and student handout contains the actual placement for all systems. Remind students that these are rough estimates. Then have student groups compare and contrast their poster-size charts with the ‘answer key’ and talk about objects that they misplaced or objects that were easier to place than others.

If time, have students add to the four questions above, in particular ask students, “have we added any systems that would be considered atomic-molecular or landscape scale?”

Partner or Group Work: Applying Powers of 10

~20 minutes

Pass out the *Applying Powers of 10 Worksheet* to individual students. Tell students that this will give them a chance to use powers of ten to compare the size of different systems. In order to do this, it will help to model the practice question with the entire class.

Because Powers of Ten may be difficult for many students, you may consider modeling other comparisons. You will need to show the students that each vertical line on the chart represents a $\times 10$ so as they move across each line they must multiply by 10.

Give students about 10-15 minutes to work on the different comparisons. If necessary, allow them to work in partners or groups.

After most students complete *Applying Powers of 10* worksheet, spend about 10 minutes discussing how students answered the comparative questions and if there were any difficulties or surprises as they worked.

If time, use the following question to probe what students have learned about scale:

How can we talk about water at different scales? Is there a way to describe water at an atomic-molecular scale (molecules)? How would you describe it at the microscopic scale (is it found in cells)? How would you describe it at the macroscopic scale? What are examples (rain drop, lake, cloud, etc)? Can you describe water at a landscape scale? (Water cycle, oceans, etc) How much bigger is a small raindrop compared to a water molecule?

Name: _____ Hour: _____

Applying Powers of 10

Now practice using the Powers of 10 to compare sizes of two different systems.

Practice Question:

1. How much larger is the width of a human hand compared to an average particle of sand?

The width of a hand is 10^{-1} m and an average particle of sand is 10^{-4} m. So the width of hand is 10^3 (or 1000) times larger than an average particle of sand.

2. How much larger is an average particle of sand compared to an oxygen molecule (O_2)?
An average particle of sand is 10^{-4} m and oxygen molecule (O_2) is 10^{-9} m. So an average particle of sand is 10^5 (or 100000) times larger than an oxygen molecule.

3. How much smaller is the smallest virus from the largest bacteria?
The smallest virus is 10^{-8} m and the largest bacteria are almost 10^{-5} m. So the smallest virus is 10^{-3} (or 0.001) times smaller than the largest bacteria. Bacteria are about 100-1000 times larger than viruses.

4. How much larger is the biggest piece of sand compared to the smallest piece of sand?
The biggest piece of sand is 10^{-2} m and the smallest piece of sand is 10^{-5} m. So the biggest piece of sand is 10^3 (or 1000) times larger than the smallest piece of sand.

5. How much larger is a mosquito compared to a carbon dioxide molecule (CO_2)?
A mosquito is 10^{-2} m and a carbon dioxide molecule is 10^{-9} m. So a mosquito is 10^7 (or 10000000) time larger than a carbon dioxide molecule.

6. How much smaller is the smallest plant cell compared to a hand?
The smallest plant cell is 10^{-5} m and a hand is 10^{-1} m. So a cell is 10^{-4} (or 0.0001) time of a small hand (or 10,000 times smaller than a hand). The hand is 10,000 times larger than a cell.

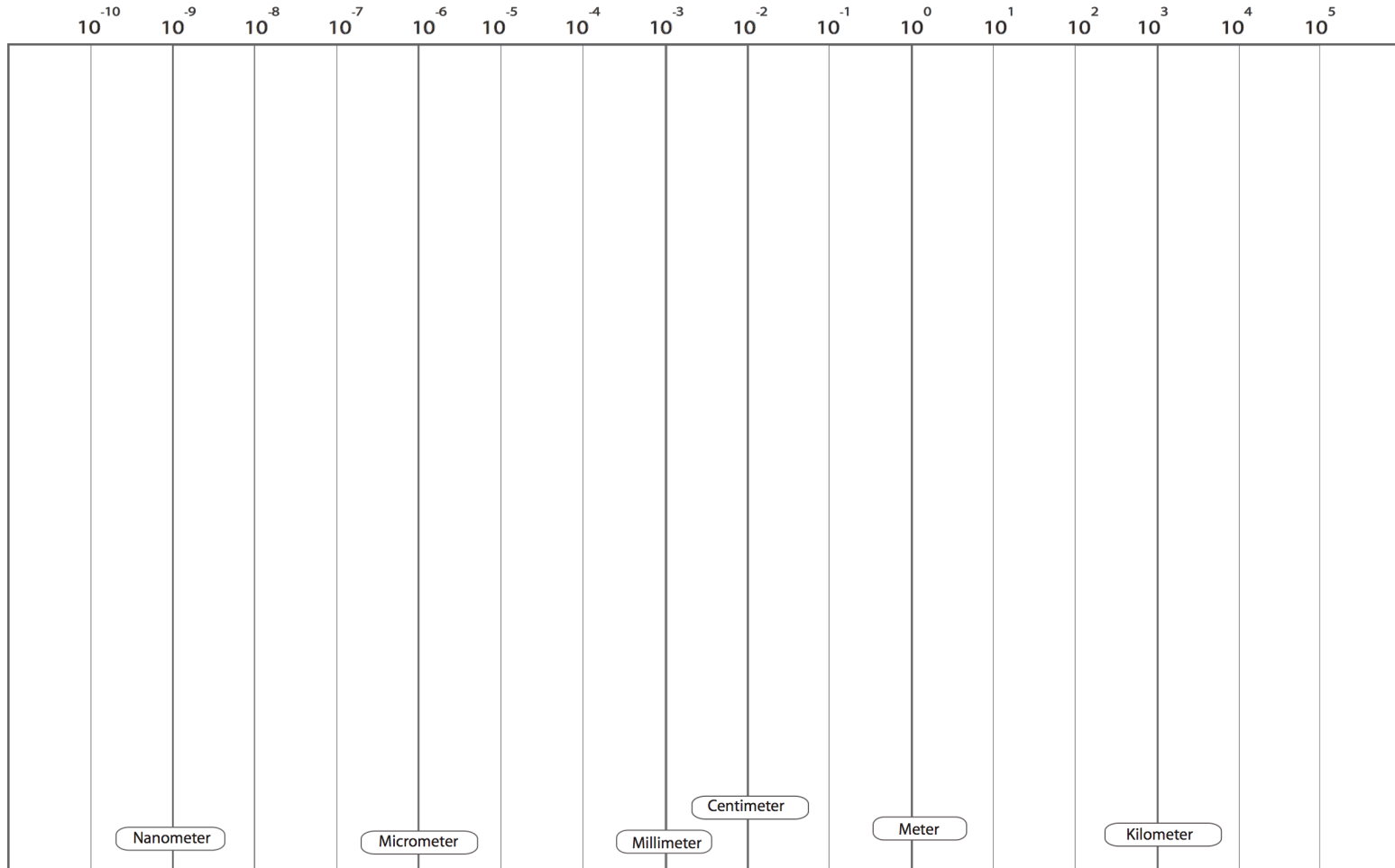
7. Try to think of two more comparisons using the Powers of 10 chart

Comparison 1: e.g. How much larger is a piece of sand compared to a particle of tobacco smoke?

Comparison 2: e.g. How much smaller is an oxygen molecule compared to a cell?

Blank Overhead and Blank Posters for Students:

Comparing Powers of Ten
(Measures in Meters)



Activity 4: What is Air?

General Overview:

Whole group: <i>What is air?</i>	~ 10 minutes
How Can We Look at Different Scales for Air	~ 15 minutes
Small Group: <i>Building Air Molecules?</i>	~ 25 minutes
Optional: Air Investigations	

Estimated Time: 50 minutes

Purpose:

You can transition from Powers of Ten, by explaining to students that they now will learn more about the molecules at the 10^{-9} . These molecules are found at the atomic-molecular scale, which means we cannot see them with our eyes and we cannot see them with a microscope.

This lesson is designed to get students thinking about air in terms of its molecular components. This is the first introduction of matter in this unit. This is also the first explicit attempt to introduce the idea that matter consists of systems at different scales. It is also a chance to explicitly teach about gases, which are particularly problematic for students.

Students will primarily discuss matter at the atomic-molecular scale by focusing on molecules found in air, but the lesson will begin with thinking about air at the benchmark scales and using a Powers of Ten PowerPoint that shows how air can be viewed at different scales. This PowerPoint is similar to the PowerPoint used during Activity 2, but it is now focused on air (and water droplets inside a cloud). At the macroscopic level, students should describe air as a substance that takes up space. But they may not understand that air is a mixture of gases. The component gases vary in proportion from place to place and time to time. At the molecular level, air is a mixture of different kinds of molecules, mostly N_2 and O_2 with small and sometimes variable amounts of other gases, such as CO_2 , and water vapor (H_2O). Other substances may also be mixed in air, for instance, dust, germs, and smell of substances. Also, at the molecular level, students should explain that breathing changes the air by increasing or decreasing the amount of CO_2 , O_2 , and H_2O . -- like all matter, air is made of molecules, so tiny that they are invisible, and constantly in motion.

Problems students may have: We speak of air as light, "airy," insubstantial", or even as "nothing". The topic of air causes difficulties for students because air is a complex mixture of gases that are generally colorless, odorless, and thus undetectable except by indirect means. Many important phenomena, including respiration, photosynthesis, humidity, smells, pollution, and the water cycle, change the molecules in air. Students must learn to see air and other gases as forms of matter like liquids and solids, with all the characteristics of matter in general: - air is made of molecules -- air takes up space—air has mass.

While this activity does not begin to cover the complexities associated with understanding gases as a form of matter, it does introduce students to the ideas that matter can be viewed at different scales using air as an important example.

Materials:

Powers or Ten Air PowerPoint (either viewed on computer or as a transparency set)

Student copies of *What is Air?*
Student copies of *Building Air Molecules*
Molecule kits for each group
Overhead projector & vis a vis

If air investigations/demos are used, additional materials will be required.

Advance Preparation:

- Make copies of *What is Air?*
- Make copies of *Building Air Molecules*
- Have Powers of Ten Air PowerPoint ready to go as a computer projection or as transparencies
- Make sure molecular modeling kits are sorted into 'group kits'. Each 'group kit' should contain at least 12-hydrogen, 18-oxygen, 6-carbon, and 2-nitrogen. There should also be 36-24 springs for each group (mix of short and long springs). Students will not need all materials in today's lesson.

Procedures:

What is air made of? (Intro & worksheet)

~ 10 minutes

Tell students that today they will continue to learn about different scales, but that they are going to use those ideas to explore what air is made of.

Pass out *What is Air?* As a whole group first review questions 1-4 on *What is Air?* Have students write down their initial ideas about air, but tell students they will get a chance to add to those ideas later in the activity. Give students time to think about ways of talking about air at different scales. At the macroscopic level, students may describe air as things that they can see and feel (e.g., breathe, blown-up balloon, the smell of perfume or a candle, the rise and fall of the chest, etc). They may also describe things like smoke, smog, fog, dust, etc. At the atomic-molecular level, students may describe air as the molecules previously discussed in Activities 1-3. Air consists of oxygen, nitrogen, carbon dioxide, water vapor, and smaller amounts of other gases. At the microscopic scale air contains particles, such as dust, pollen, etc. At landscape scale students might describe air in terms of air quality, air pollution, wind, weather (such as air masses and currents/jet stream).

Powers of Ten Air PowerPoint

~15 minutes

Have students set their *What is Air* handouts aside for the moment. Explain that they are going to view a PowerPoint about air using Powers of Ten. This PowerPoint helps them look at how air can be viewed at different scale. Tell students to think about new things they can add to their *What is Air* handout.

View the Powers of Ten Air PowerPoint with the class. This PowerPoint includes slides that correspond to each benchmark scale. Go step-by-step through each slide and talk about what they see at each scale. Air at the landscape scale can be talked about as the atmosphere and large air masses. At the macroscopic scale, air can appear foggy or "hazy", when other materials are suspended in the air (smog, haze, fog). When zoomed in to microscopic scale, we can see individual solid dirt/dust particles or liquid drops of water suspended in gaseous air. This PowerPoint gives the teacher the opportunity to point out that solid and liquid particles in air are visible, but that gaseous air still seems to be "nothing". Then at the atomic-molecular scale (at the border between a water drop and gaseous air OR the border between a dust

particle and gaseous air) students see that all of these types of matter are made of molecules and only look visibly different because of the space and movement between molecules.

In particular, focus slides on helping students see that air is made of molecules and only seems like “nothing” because our eyes can’t see the molecules. BUT at a different scale gas, liquids, and solids are similar because they are made of molecules.

Ask students if the PowerPoint gave them new ideas about what to add to their *What is Air* worksheet? Have students share what they would like to add to each scale category. Give students a couple of minutes to add to their handouts.

Building Air Molecules Model building

~ 25 minutes

Students will now have the opportunity to build air molecules. Before doing this, however, it will be important to review with students what they know about matter, especially whether gases are matter and if students believe they have mass. This activity can be used to show that have mass and are made of molecules like solids and liquids.

Tell students that matter is defined as something that has mass and takes up space. Ask students if air meets this definition at the macroscopic scale (and what is their evidence for or against whether air is matter)?

Tell students that they will be looking at air at the atomic-molecular scale and that they need to keep in mind whether air molecules meet the definition of matter. Explain that while these molecules cannot be seen because they are at the atomic-molecular scale, scientists use models to serve as examples of what molecules look like.

Pass out *Building Air Molecules*. Students will build models of the components of air: oxygen, carbon dioxide, water vapor, and nitrogen. The teacher will need to spend about 5 minutes explaining the model kits and the different types of bonds that students will build. The students should feel comfortable with using the springs to connect ‘atoms’. Two important points in the explanation of the modeling kits:

- Every hole in the ‘atoms’ needs to be ‘bonded’ to another atom or the model is not correct.
- Shorter springs can be used for ‘single’ bonds and longer springs can be used for ‘double’ bonds (The length of the springs is not important for the models that they are building).

Students will need to work in groups of 2 (or 3) to build their models but there are enough materials that each student can build a molecule. Students should first try to build H₂O, CO₂, and O₂. Students can build additional molecules if time, for example nitrogen and methane. Tell the students to diagram the molecules on their worksheet and respond to questions.

Additional resources: If time, consider doing observations of air to show that air takes up space and has mass. Below are suggested demonstrations or investigations that may be useful for helping students see macroscopic evidence of air as a form of matter.

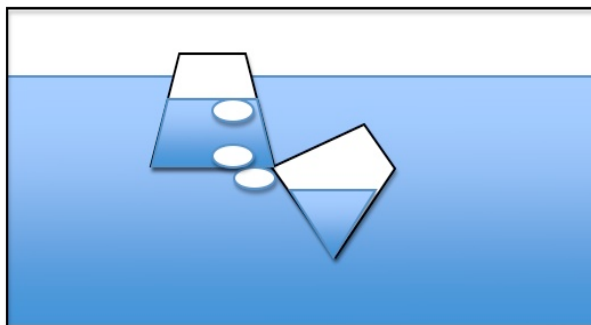
Air Investigations (Optional for Middle School, if time allows)

There are several possible ways to conduct the following investigations. The teacher can gather students around the front of the room and demonstrate each one, while students record observations OR students can rotate through several stations, conducting the investigations and recording observations, then sharing with the whole group later. We recommend conducting demonstrations in order to focus students' attention and discussion on individual investigations. The decision also depends on available supplies.

Proceed with the investigations and make sure to focus discussions of the investigations on what it demonstrates- that air takes up space and has mass (which at the macroscopic scale is similar to solids and liquids).

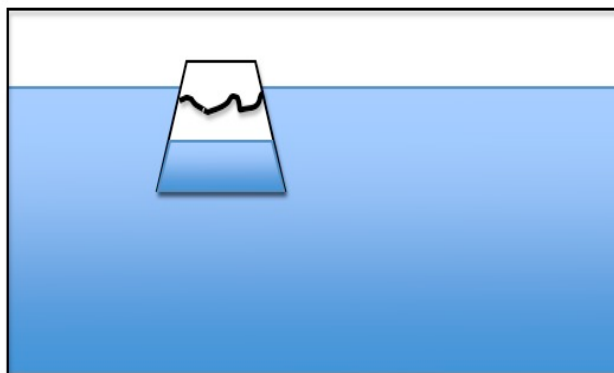
Investigation #1: Move Air Under Water

This investigation is a simple demonstration to transfer air between two submerged cups. Fill an aquarium or large, transparent container with water. Use 2 small plastic cups for the demonstration. As you submerge the cups, make sure one fills with water, while the other captures mostly air. Place the cup with the air tilted underneath the cup with water and slowly move the air back-air-forth between the cups. Ask students if the air or air bubbles take up space.



Investigation #2: Keep a Napkin Dry Under Water

This investigation is a simple investigation to show that a napkin can stay dry under water. Take a tissue/napkin into the bottom of a clear cup. Fill an aquarium or large container with water. Flip the cup so that it is facing down. Carefully submerge the cup trapping air inside the cup as it enters the water. Be careful not to tilt the cup because this may release water. Slowly bring the cup out of the water. Let students feel the napkin to verify that it is still dry. Ask students if this shows that air takes up space.



Investigation #3: Blow-Up a Balloon

Tell students to blow up a balloon or, as a demonstration, blow up a balloon. Ask students what is inside the balloon. Ask students if the balloon shows that air takes up space.

Ask students to take a deep breath. What fills up their lungs? Does their chest expand? Is the air inside their lungs taking up space?



Investigation #4: Ball and Pump

The class may have a set of recess balls or you may need to borrow from the gym teacher or bring from home (MSU may supply if needed). Use a digital scale sensitive to 0.01g or 0.1g. You may need to borrow this scale from the middle or high school. Weigh an athletic ball on the scale and record the weight. Then use a ball pump to air up the ball. Make sure to get as much compressed air inside as possible. Then re-weigh the ball. Ask students, “Does this show that air has mass/weight?” Make sure to weigh the ball carefully and to use the same ball for before and after since different amounts of plastic/rubber can change weight dramatically.



Investigation #5: Pump Air into a soda bottle

Use a two-liter soda bottle emptied and clean. Screw on the fizz pump. This pump allows you to pump air into the soda bottle. Tell students to watch as the soda bottle pumps up. You may also be able to weigh before and after if you have a sensitive scale, but the air will not be as dense as the gym ball demo so the difference may not be detectable. Students will observe the soda bottle becoming more rigid and when the pump is removed they will hear a “whoosh” of air.



Investigation #6: Alka Seltzers and Balloon

This investigation uses alka seltzers and water, which when mixed, give off carbon dioxide gas. Use a soda or water bottle filled with an inch of water. Drop two alka seltzers into the water and quickly cover the top with a balloon. If the balloon is too small it may pop, so consider using larger balloons made of thicker material. The CO₂ gas will collect in the balloon. Ask students, “What is filling the balloon? Does air take up space?”



Investigation #7: Alka Seltzers and Scale

There are several ways to conduct this lab activity, but it is probably best done as a demonstration (for elementary students).

You will need an empty wide-mouth soda, water, or juice plastic container. Fill the container with an inch of water. Place the lid on top of the container. Then place 2 alka seltzer tablets on top of the lid. Weigh with a scale sensitive to at least 0.1g (0.01g is even better). Make sure all students see the weight.

Leave the bottle on the scale. Unscrew the lid and place the 2 alka-seltzer tablets inside the lid. Quickly turn the lid over (dropping the tablets in the water and screw lid back on bottle, allowing the tablets to drop in the water without letting too much air escape. As the tablets decrease, have students note the mass is still the same even though the bottle is expanding with air. Point out that the size of the tablet is decreasing, but air is increasing. The mass stays the same, so there is the same amount of “stuff” in the bottle, it’s just changing from solid to gas. Then unscrew the lid slowly to release the air. Watch the mass go down as air escapes. Ask students, “Does the air (that came from the solid) have mass? Did it take up space?”

Alternative: Suspension system

You will need an empty wide-mouth soda, water, or juice plastic container. Fill the container with an inch of water. Place two alka seltzer tablets in a mesh square cloth. Tie the cloth with a thin string, such as fishing line, dangling the mesh inside the plastic container just below the opening. Leave part of the string outside the container and screw on the plastic lid. Weigh the container on a scale sensitive to 0.01g (0.01g is even better).

Then, turn the container upside down on the scale and allow the water to react with the alka seltzer. The bottle needs to be able to balance upside down so a wide mouth container may work best. Have students note that the mass is still the same. Point out that the size of the tablet is decreasing, but the air is increasing. The mass stays the same, so there is the same amount of “stuff” in the bottle, it’s just changing from solid to gas. Then flip the bottle over and unscrew the lid slowly to release the air. Watch the mass go down as air escapes. Ask students, “Does the air (that came from the solid) have mass? Did it take up space?”

NOTE: It is very important to point out that the solid tablets are getting smaller and that gas is increasing. Since the mass stays the same, students might conclude that gas does not have mass. They need to see that *the mass stays the same because there is the same amount of stuff inside the container* (changing from solid to gas). Also, the release of air should cause the mass to go down indicating the air does have weight.

Name: _____ Date: _____

My Observations of Air

In the table below, write down what you observe during each investigation. Describe as much as possible, what you see happening in the investigation.

<p>Investigation #1 and 2</p> <p>Air was in bubbles that moved back and forth between the cup</p> <p>Air provided space that kept the napkin dry</p>	<p>Investigation #3</p> <p>The balloon got bigger when more air was blown into it. It changed size.</p>
<p>Investigation #4</p> <p>The ball gets bigger when air is pumped into it. The ball weighed more with air inside.</p>	<p>Investigation #5</p> <p>The air made the bottle hard; it got harder to pump air into the ball when it was getting full; there was a “whoosh” sound when the cap was taken off</p>
<p>Investigation #6</p> <p>Alka seltzers made lots of air bubbles; the balloon got bigger and bigger; the alka seltzers got smaller and smaller</p>	<p>Investigation #7</p> <p>The tablets made lots of bubbles and the soda bottle become very hard. It weighed the same even though it was getting harder. It weighed less when the cap was removed.</p>

Questions:

1. Is air matter? Why or why not?

Air is matter because it takes up space and has weight like solid and liquids. We can't see air, but we can see things that let us know that air is there and it is matter.

2. Do you think air can cause something to gain weight? Why or why not?

The air caused the ball to gain weight, so air can cause things to gain weight. It is matter and has weight.

3. Do you think air can cause something to lose weight? Why or why not?

The air caused the soda bottle to lose weight, so air can cause things to lose weight. It is matter and has weight.

Name: _____ Hour: _____

What is Air?

We speak of air as light, "airy," or even as nothing. But what is air made of? Today you will learn more about the different molecules that make up air and have a chance to build these molecules using models.

Air is made of different kinds of gas molecules. The composition of air changes slightly from moment to moment and place to place, but approximately 78% is nitrogen (N₂), 21 % is oxygen (O₂), 1% is argon (Ar), and .03% is Carbon Dioxide (CO₂). There are other trace gases in air, such as hydrogen, helium, and neon. Water vapor (H₂O) is also a gas found in air. Water vapor ranges between 0-3% depending on the temperature and humidity.

There are other substances in air, including dirt, germs, bacteria, smoke, and many others. Most substances that you can see in the air, like dust or smoke, are made of solid particles that contain *trillions of molecules* each. These things are not air.

8. At the macroscopic level, how can you describe air? What things can we see and feel?
At macroscopic level, air is transparent. It has weight. It takes up space. It is a mixture of several gases including water vapor, carbon dioxide, nitrogen, oxygen, and so on.

9. At the atomic-molecular level, how can you describe air?
At the atomic-molecular level, air is a mixture of several gases. You can see different types of gas molecules mixed together. These molecules move randomly and collide with each other.

10. Can you think of landscape scale ways to describe air and how it is used and influenced by living organisms?

Example 1 (Human impact)

At landscape scale, human activities constantly influence the composition of air. With the development of technology and civilization, humans harness more and more energy from natural resources and meanwhile dispose more and more waste into environment. One major waste of human activities is carbon dioxide, which has been increased during the past one hundred years. The increased carbon dioxide in air causes the global warming effect, which in turn causes severe weather.

Example 2 (Natural Processes)

At landscape scale, plants constantly inhale carbon dioxide from air and exhale oxygen in air to make food. They also constantly inhale oxygen and exhale carbon dioxide into air to use energy for function and growth. Animals constantly inhale oxygen and exhale carbon dioxide into air for their body function and activities. On the whole, without the impact of human burning fossil fuels, the composition of carbon dioxide and oxygen is constant in air.

4. Can you think of microscopic things that may be found in air?
Dust, pollen, smoke particles, etc

Name: _____ Hour: _____

Building Air Molecules

Your group will build the gas molecules that make up air and several important molecules for life. In order to do this, you will need to obtain a molecular model kits from your teacher. Before your group begins to build the molecules, you will need to know more about how to “bond” the molecules together.

Part I: Molecular Structure

Molecules are made of **atoms** bonded together. Today you will build several of the molecules in air and look at how the bonds hold the atoms together.

Single Bonds:

When two atoms share ONE pair of electrons, it called a single bond. In water, for example, there are two single bonds.

Double and Triple Bonds:

When a pair of atoms share more than one set of electrons, these are called double and triple bonds. Oxygen and carbon dioxide molecules have double bonds. Nitrogen molecules have triple bonds.

Part II: Building Your Molecules

Familiarize yourself with the modeling kit. Open the bag/box and sort the pieces into similar piles. The round wooden pieces with holes in them represent various types of atoms. Each color represents a different element. To build your models you will need to use a color code to represent each type of atom:

Hydrogen- white
Oxygen- red
Carbon- black
Nitrogen- orange

The gray springs represent bonds. When you build molecules correctly, there should be no “empty” holes or bonding points.

Examine one of the hydrogen atoms. How many holes/bond points does it have? 1

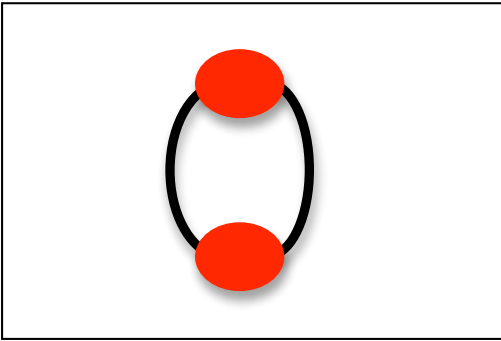
How many holes (bonding points) are in the carbon atoms? 4

How many holes (bonding points) are in the oxygen atoms? 2

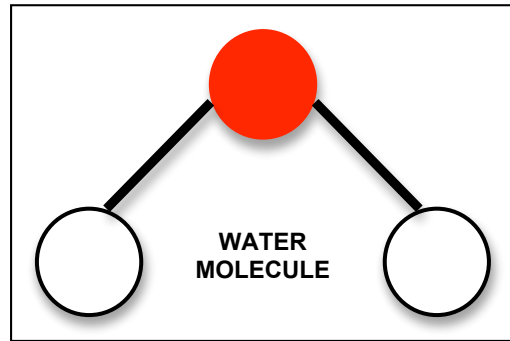
How many holed (bonding points) are in the nitrogen atoms? 3

Build and diagram the following molecules:

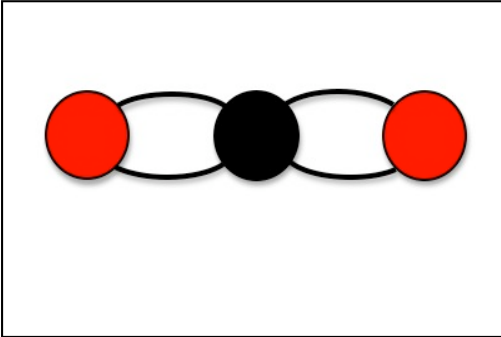
Oxygen (O_2)



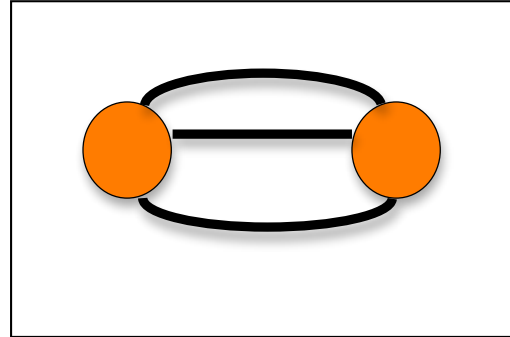
Water Vapor (H_2O)



Carbon Dioxide (CO_2)



Nitrogen (N_2)



11. Look at your carbon dioxide molecule. Which atoms are bonded to each other in this molecule?

There are C-O bonds in carbon dioxide; carbon is bonded to oxygen

12. Look at your water molecule. Which atoms are bonded to each other in this molecule?

There are H-O bonds in water; hydrogen is bonded to oxygen

3. Are air molecules matter? Why or why not?

Air molecules are matter because they have mass (or weight) and they take up space. We cannot see this with our eyes, but we know that air moves (wind) and has weight (like air pressure)

Activity 5: Energy and Machines

Overview:

Introduction	~5 minutes
Reading about Forms of energy	~10 minutes
Discuss Forms of Energy	~5 minutes
Transformations and Matter and Energy Process Tool	~30 minutes

Total time: 50 minutes

Purpose:

The word energy has both colloquial uses and scientific uses. The way the term ‘energy’ is used in daily life is very different from the way it is used in the scientific sense. The colloquial use of energy strongly influences students’ conceptions, thus causing many misconceptions and confusions about energy in science. This activity targets two crucial problems in students’ conceptions of energy by introducing a scientific framework that contains two parts – forms of energy and an Energy Process Tool. The two major problems of energy conception and our instructional approaches are elaborated below:

1 Forms of Energy

Based on their colloquial language and daily life experiences, students have constructed a lot of ideas about energy. In their mind, energy is mostly associated with movement, activities, or life. Energy can also be a kind of power or ability possessed by plants, animals, and machines, as well as things that plants, animals, and machines need, such as sunlight, nutrients, foods, and fuels.

In contrast, the scientific meaning of energy is much more specific. In science, energy is an abstract quantity associated with certain evidence, such as light, sound, heat, and motion. It cannot be converted from or into matter except in nuclear reactions.⁴ In this activity, we first introduce the notion of *Forms of energy*. A list of forms of energy is introduced with explanation about how to identify each energy form based on its evidence. Our list of forms of energy is deliberately incomplete. We introduce the forms of energy that are most important for understanding carbon-transforming processes. It is important to restrict the discussion to a small number of forms. Some different ways of defining forms of energy are also addressed in this activity.

2. Energy Process Tool

Based on their life experience, students tend to hold the idea that energy can be created or destroyed. For example, energy can be created by sleeping or rest. Energy is always used up and needs to be constantly replenished. These ideas conflict with the two fundamental energy principles in science: energy conservation (i.e., energy is always conserved) and energy degradation (i.e., heat is always released). In this activity, these two scientific principles are introduced by the *Energy Process Tool*. The idea is that whenever there is energy input

⁴ In this unit and in all our materials we treat matter and energy as separate entities that are separately conserved. Our research on student reasoning convinces us that this understanding is a necessary developmental predecessor to more sophisticated understandings based on Relativity and Quantum Mechanics.

(represented by the incoming wavy arrow), there is always energy output (represented by the outgoing wavy arrow), so energy cannot be created or destroyed. Also, the energy output always contains heat, so not all energy can be used to do useful work or be passed on from one organism to another.

This activity introduces the Energy Process Tool by the simpler events of machines working. Students will observe how several scientific toys work and figure out how energy transforms in each event. These events are easier to analyze than biological or chemical events since they do not involve matter transformation. Students are expected to understand energy transformation in this activity. The next activity (Activity 6) will add matter transformation to the Energy Process Tool.

Materials:

Student copies of reading *Forms of energy*
Student copies of *How Can Machines Work?*
Overhead to write down key energy terms/principles
Large Energy Process Tool and/or
Matter and Energy Process Tool PowerPoint (How Machines work.ppt)
Energy “Toys”

Advance Preparation:

- Make copies of student handouts if not provided by MSU
- Make sure Matter and Energy Process Tool is ready to use
- Have a copy of *How Can Machines Work.ppt* and computer projector
- Gather Energy toys

Procedures:

Introduction

5 minutes

Ask students: “What is energy? What types of energy do you know about?” Take about five minutes for brainstorming.

Reading: Forms of energy

10 minutes

Pass out *Forms of energy* to students. The students will read through *Forms of energy*. As students read, stop the class and check student comprehension by asking the students to name other examples of that form of energy.

Discuss Forms of Energy

5-10 minutes

Take about 10 minutes to talk with students about each energy form as a summary of the reading. It is important to address the following 3 points:

- Energy is really hard to define, even for scientists. Forms of energy give us a way of talking about different types of energy, and how energy changes even if energy cannot be “seen”. Forms of energy helps us identify energy.
- Energy is always conserved, even as it changes forms. We can always trace how energy is conserved by looking at how energy changes from one form to other forms.
- There is a difference between matter and energy: unlike matter, energy does not have mass and does not take up space; it is not made of molecules. Matter cannot become energy and energy cannot become matter.

Use Energy Process Tool to Explain How Machines work

30 minutes

Introduce the two energy principles: energy conservation and energy degradation. Define these for students. Make sure that students understand how the two energy principles are related: the total amount of energy is conserved, but the amount of useful energy always decreases due to heat dissipation (degradation). See “Notes to Teacher” below.

Tell students that they are going to do an activity where they show how energy is conserved by tracing how it changes in different types of machines.

Show students the Energy Process Tool and tell them this tool is going to help them show how energy is conserved even when energy is changing forms. Use an example (e.g., lamp lighting up) to model how to use the Energy Process Tool to explain energy transformation in processes. Use the large-size Energy Process Tool, which is made of magnetic board and labels to show that energy originally starts as Electrical Energy and changes to Light Energy and Heat.

Divide students into groups and explain that they are going to use the Energy Process Tool to show how energy changes in different machines. Use three toys to demonstrate four events: radiometer spinning under light, solar car running under sunlight, solar car running with battery, and kinetic flashlight lightening by squeezing the handle. On the student worksheet, *How Can Machines Work?*, there are questions about the four events. Students observe the demonstration and work together to figure out the energy input and output for each event. They then use this information to finish the blanks and questions on the worksheets. This will take about 15 minutes.

Allow time for the class to review each machine. Have student groups present their tables for the different energy machines and use the *How Can Machines Work* PowerPoint to go through each machine/toy as a class. As students share their ideas, ask the other students in class if they agree with the forms of energy and energy transformations that occur. Ask them to explain both how energy is conserved, and if the event shows energy degradation. Students may use the large-size poster as they share their ideas with the class.

NOTES TO TEACHER

1. Challenges in teaching about energy

Scientific and informal uses of the word “energy.” Scientists sometimes use everyday words to label specific concepts they developed. Energy is one such word. We use the word energy in our everyday language, but energy, as a science word, has a specific meaning. Students hear their mothers remind them to drink enough water, because water will give them “energy.” Students may also feel that they get “energy” from vitamins, sleep, exercise, stimulants, etc.. None of these provide energy in the scientific sense.

Distinguishing energy from matter. We commonly suggest that some substances (e.g., glucose, ATP, gasoline) are energy, or that matter can be transformed into energy (e.g., “the wood burned up to produce heat and light”). THIS DOES NOT HAPPEN AT A DETECTABLE SCALE EXCEPT IN NUCLEAR REACTIONS.⁵ This is why it is important to keep matter and energy arrows separate in the Matter and Energy Process Tools.

⁵ In this unit and in all our materials we treat matter and energy as separate entities that are separately conserved. Our research on student reasoning convinces us that this understanding is a necessary developmental predecessor to more sophisticated understandings based on Relativity and Quantum Mechanics.

Defining and measuring energy. Unlike matter, energy cannot be seen even from the most advanced microscopes. You can hold a grain of sand in your hand, but cannot hold energy. You can identify evidence of energy or energy transformations. But, what is energy? What is the definition of energy? If you ask this question to scientists, they will give you many different answers. They will also tell you that memorizing a definition of energy is not important. So, what do scientists know about energy? Why is the concept of energy useful for us? Although we cannot see energy, there is always evidence of energy. In this lesson, we will learn how to identify the six most basic *forms of energy*. Scientists can measure energy. They can measure the amount of energy you gained from a glass of milk. They can measure the amount of energy used to move a car from the city you live in to New York. They can also measure the amount of energy that operates a light bulb for one hour.

2. About the two energy principles. When scientists measure energy, they find two laws of energy transformation.

- **Energy Conservation (First Law of Thermodynamics):** The total amount of energy always stays the same during a process. Energy cannot be created or destroyed, it always **transforms** from one form to other forms. Energy always transforms. It cannot be converted into matter in physical and chemical changes.
- **Energy Degradation (Second Law of Thermodynamics):** *The amount of **useful** energy always decreases during a process, because heat is always released.* Whenever energy transformed, heat is released. Heat energy cannot be captured and used by plants and animals. So, although the total amount of energy is conserved, the amount of useful energy always decreases.

3. Energy transformation involved in toy machines working.

This activity uses toys to introduce the notion of energy transformation. When toy machines move, there is mostly a two-step energy transformation involved. Here are examples:

- When a radiometer spins, first light energy transforms into electrical energy and heat. Then, the electrical energy transforms into motion energy of the radiometer spinning and heat.
- When a toy car is using solar cells to run, first light energy transforms into electrical energy and heat. Then, the electrical energy transforms into motion energy of car running and heat
- When a toy car is using battery to run, first the chemical energy stored in battery transforms into electrical energy and heat. Then, the electrical energy transforms into motion energy of car running and heat.
- When you squeeze the handle to make the flashlight light, first the motion energy transforms into electrical energy and heat. Then the electrical energy transforms into light energy and heat.

To avoid confusion, we only teach the energy input/output and matter input/output without addressing the middle stage of energy transformation (i.e., stage involving electrical energy). When students are learning the Energy consumption and Global Warming Unit, they will revisit some of these events and learn about the middle stage of energy transformation. During that time, students would be familiar with the Energy Process Tool and would have less difficulty in understanding the middle stage of energy transformation.

The next series of activities focus on forms of energy, especially chemical energy. It is important to understand that some materials can be used as energy sources, because they contain high-energy bonds.

- In the carbon cycle, there are two types of high-energy bonds: C-C bonds and C-H bonds. The materials that contain C-C and C-H bonds are organic materials, which can be used as energy sources for human living and activities. When these materials react with oxygen, energy is released.
- In contrast, O-H or C-O bonds do not have the chemical energy necessary for life-sustaining processes or combustion.

While you do not need students to talk about this in this lesson, you may have them note the types of bonds in the air molecules they built because they will need to compare air molecules to food and fuel molecules in the next lessons.

Forms of Energy



Look around you. Many things are moving. They are in motion. Clouds drift across the sky. Leaves fall from the trees. A car speeds by. Birds fly. Whenever there is motion, we “see” **motion energy**. Holland is using **wind energy**, because it is clean and does not cause global warming. Wind energy is a kind of motion energy, because wind is moving air. Sound has energy. **Sound energy** is a special kind of motion energy. It is caused by vibration – the back and forth motion of air molecules.

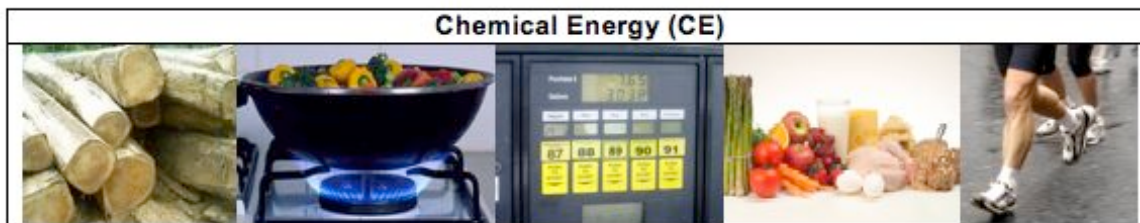
Can you think of other examples of kinetic energy that you see every day?



We use light every day. We use it to see things. Without light, our lives would be very difficult. Light helps our life more than just to help us see things. Sunlight helps plants grow. Doctors use special light to perform surgery. Light has **light energy**. When the lamp is turned on, it gives off light energy. When a candle is burning, the flame gives off light energy.

The light energy from the sun is sometimes called **solar energy**. The sun is a giant ball of burning gas. It gives off light all the time. It will keep shining and giving us energy for millions of years. Plants capture and use light energy to make their own food. Scientists have also invented ways to use light energy. *Solar collectors* on house roofs can capture light energy and use it to heat the water in the house. *Solar cells* on cars and house roofs can also capture light energy and use it to make electricity.

Can you think of other examples of light energy that you see every day?

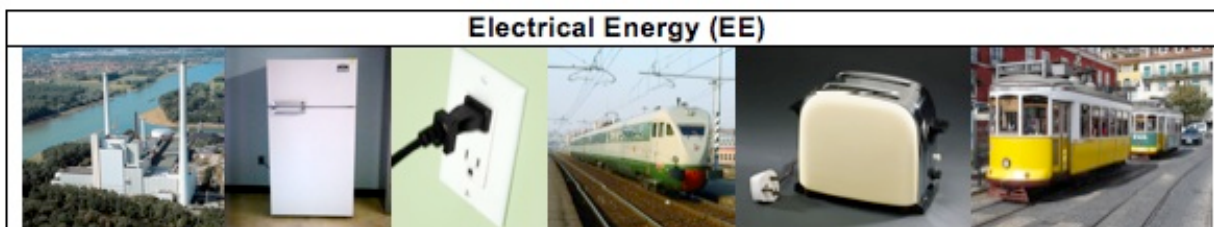


Chemical energy is the energy stored in some special materials. Foods, fuels and body parts of all living things are made of materials that contain chemical energy.

All living things are made of cells. Cells are made of millions or even billions of molecules. The energy is stored in some molecules that make up cells. These molecules are carbohydrates and lipids (or fats). We call these molecules high-energy molecules. The molecules can be found in all living things.

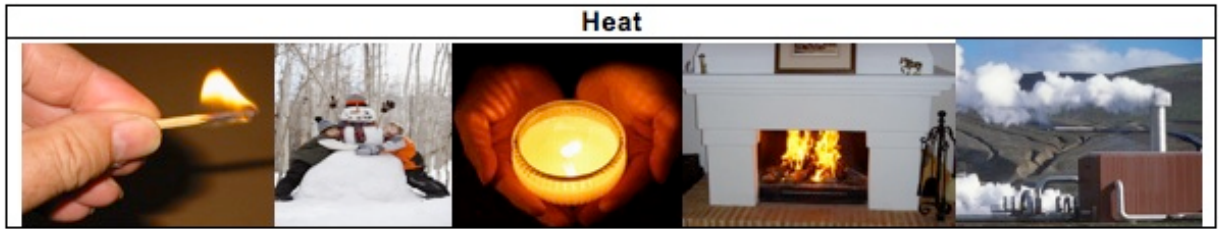
Fossil fuels come from plants and animals living millions of years ago. The plant and animal debris was buried underground. Over long periods of time, the debris turned into fossil fuels. There are three types of fossil fuels – oil, natural gas, and coal. The major chemical component of fossil fuels is hydrocarbons. Like carbohydrates and lipids, hydrocarbons are also high-energy molecules. We use fossil fuels everyday. Our cars are powered by gasoline. We use methane for cooking. We use propane to barbecue and heat homes.

Can you think of more examples of things that have chemical energy?



People use electricity everyday. Your family uses many electrical appliances at home. You watch TV after dinner. Your parents may use a laptop for work. You may use a toaster to toast bread or use a microwave oven to warm your food. To make these machines work, you should plug them into an outlet on the wall. What the machines get from the outlet is electricity. We not only use electricity to power our homes, school, or other buildings, but also use it for transportation. Electric trains or subway trains have engines that run on electricity. These engines get electricity through a metal rail under the train, or from wires at the top of the train. Electricity has **electrical energy**. Electricity is generated by different types of power plants. Wind power plants use wind to generate electricity. Nuclear power plants split uranium atoms to make electricity. Hydropower plants use the energy of moving water to make electricity. Fossil fuel fired power plants burn fossil fuels to generate electricity. In the United States, about 51% of our electricity comes from burning coal.

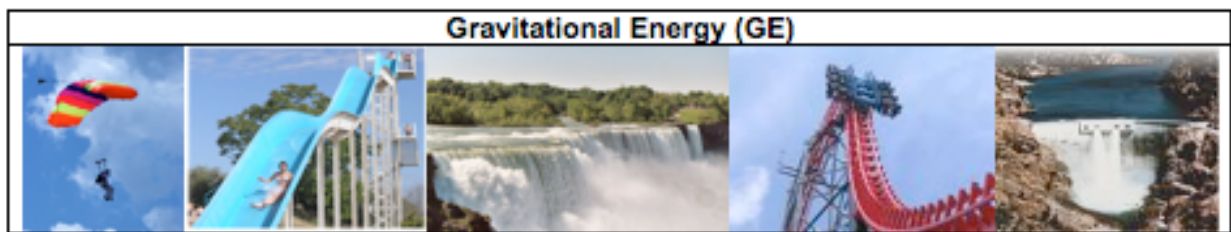
Do you know where your electricity comes from? What type of power plant do you depend on?



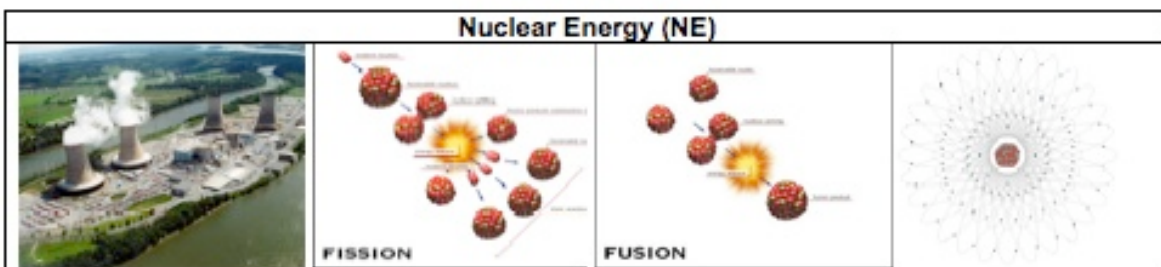
When you run a car for a while, the front of the car becomes very hot. When a flame from a candle or a campfire is burning, you can feel the warmth. When you are exercising, you also feel very hot. Even when you are playing outside on a cold winter day, your body stays warm. Your body temperature always stays close to 98.6°. In all these events, **heat** or heat energy is released.

Heat is a special form of energy. Whenever changes happen heat is always released (lost) to the outside of the system as a byproduct. Unlike light energy and chemical energy, heat cannot be “caught” by living organisms to help their body function or to help them move.

Other Forms of Energy



Gravitational energy is the energy stored due to a higher position or place. A rock resting at the top of a hill contains gravitational energy. When the rock loses its support, it will roll down the hill. In this case, the gravitation energy transforms into the motion energy. Hydropower, such as water in a reservoir behind a dam, is an example of gravitational energy. Hydropower plants use the gravitational energy of the water to make electricity.



An atom is composed of electrons and a nucleus (neutrons and protons). **Nuclear energy** is the energy of the nucleus of an atom. There are two nuclear changes to release nuclear energy: fusion and fission. In fusion, nuclei are combined or “fused” together and nuclear energy is released in the form of heat and light energy. This is how the sun produces its heat and light energy. In fission, the nucleus of an atom splits apart and nuclear energy is also released in the form of heat and light energy. Nuclear power plants use the heat released from the fission of uranium atoms to generate electrical energy. Nuclear changes are different from chemical changes. Nuclear changes happen inside the atom, while the chemical changes only rearrange the atoms and do not change the atoms.

Name: _____

Hour: _____

How can machines work?

In this activity, you will use the *Energy process tool* to analyze energy transformation in various events. The incoming wavy arrow represents the energy input to the machines. The outgoing wavy arrow represents the energy output from the machines. Please note that the Energy Process Tool follows the two principles of energy:

- Energy conservation – Energy can transform from one energy form to other forms of energy, but the total amount of energy conserves. (Energy cannot be converted into or from matter.)
- Energy degradation – Whenever energy transforms, heat is always released.

1. **Radiometer:** The radiometer is a light-bulb shaped device with a small weather vane in the middle of it. Place the radiometer under a lamp or sunlight and observe what happens when the light shines on it. Think about what happens inside the radiometer. Please use the Energy Process Tool to analyze how energy transforms. Fill out the energy input and energy output in the table below.

	Energy Input	Energy Output
Radiometer spinning	Light energy	Heat and motion energy



Note: Energy Process Tool is NOT included on student worksheet. These are answer keys that correspond with the *How can machines work* PowerPoint slides.

2. **Solar Car #1:**⁶ The solar car has a switch at the bottom. It can either run on battery or use solar cells. Put the switch on “solar”. Observe what happens when the car runs on solar cells. Please use the Energy Process Tool to analyze how energy transforms. Fill out the energy input and energy output in the table below.

	Energy Input	Energy Output
Toy car running on solar cells	Light energy	Heat and motion energy



3. **Solar car #2:** Put the switch on “battery”. Observe what happens when the car uses the battery. What is the energy input? What is the energy output? Please use the Energy Process Tool to analyze how energy transforms. Fill out the energy input and energy output in the table below.

	Energy Input	Energy Output
Toy car running on batteries	Chemical energy	Heat and motion energy



⁶ Note to teacher: The solar car and flashlight both work through a sequence of energy transformations: The original energy source (light energy, chemical energy, motion energy) is transformed first into electrical energy, then into the energy output (motion or light energy and heat).

4. **The Flashlight:** In order to make the flashlight work, you will need to squeeze the handle back-and-forth. Observe what happens when you squeeze and release the handle. What is the energy input? What is the energy output? Please use the Energy Process Tool to analyze how energy transforms. Fill out the energy input and energy output in the table below.

	Energy Input	Energy Output
Toy car running on solar cells	Motion energy	Heat and light energy



5. The four events are all about energy transformation. What patterns do you find in the processes of energy transformation?

There are two patterns:

- 1) Energy conservation: Energy cannot be created or destroyed. It only transforms from one form of energy to other forms of energy.
- 2) Energy degradation: Heat is always released.

Activity 6: What Happens When Fuels Burn?

Overview:

Review Forms of Energy and Chemical Energy	~5 minutes
Chemical Energy Lab	~20 minutes
Presentation of Group Work	~25 minutes

TOTAL TIME: 50 minutes

Purpose:

The purpose of this activity is to use combustion as an example to introduce the process tool with both matter transformation and energy transformation. Activity 5 introduces the process tool in a way that only discusses energy transformation. Activity 6 will add matter transformation to the process tool.

This activity focuses on two common misconceptions about matter and energy:

1. Matter-energy conversion – energy can be converted into or from matter. In science, energy transformation should be clearly distinguished from matter transformation. (Matter-energy conversion only happens in nuclear reactions.) So, in the process tool, energy is represented by the wavy arrows and matter is represented by the straight arrows. The rule is that wavy arrows cannot change into or from straight arrows.

2. In students' conception, burning is treated as a process in which fuels or air are constantly consumed by flame. Some students may recognize that burning as chemical change, but gaseous reactants or products such as carbon dioxide, oxygen, and water vapor are usually not identified. In summary, most students do not hold the idea that chemical change is a process of atom re-arrangement. Although the molecules change in the reaction, the atoms remain the same. So, in the lab, students will observe what happens when different fuels are burning and identify the gaseous reactant and products involved in burning. Based on that, they will construct the idea that chemical reactions are a process of atom re-arrangement.

Materials:

Student copies of *Burning Materials* (with observation sheet & process tool diagrams)

Large-Size Process Tool

PowerPoint: Explain combustion.ppt

Combustion Demo:

Fuels: Methane (natural gas, like for Bunsen burners, gas stoves, gas furnaces, or gas water heaters), Butane (disposable cigarette lighters or fire starters), Propane (liquefied gases for uses in campstoves and the like – check labels; gas supplies into science labs generally use either methane, propane or butane), Ethanol (use either spirits or denatured alcohol)⁷

Lighter

Beaker

Tongs

Hot pads and hot plate (or other burn resistant surface)

Beaker(s) kept in freezer or on ice

⁷ Alcohol sold in drugstores is either ethanol— C_2H_5OH —or isopropyl alcohol— C_3H_7OH .

Safety:

Goggles for teacher

Water, extinguisher nearby

Advance Preparation:

Make copies of student handouts if not provided by MSU

Assemble materials for combustion lab demonstration

Make sure Large-size process tool is ready for use

Make sure computer/projector are ready to display Explain combustion PowerPoint

Procedures:**Review Forms of Energy****~5 minutes**

Review the 5 key forms of energy from previous lessons. Review what students learned about chemical energy. Where is it found? (Foods, fuels, all living things) What are examples of molecules that are not sources of chemical energy? (Air molecules: water, carbon dioxide, and oxygen) What happens when the energy-rich molecules react with oxygen? How does matter change? How does energy change? Tell students that today they will learn more about what happens when foods and fuels react with oxygen.

Lab: Combustion**~25 minutes**

In front of the class, burn candle. Tell students that there is a process tool for flame burning on their worksheet and they will do several observations about burning candle to figure out the matter/energy input and output. The observations are as below.

- 1) Ask students: what does the flame need in order to keep burning? Students may answer fuel, air, etc. Then invert the beaker over the flame. After a few minutes, the flame goes out. After students finish their observation, ask them: what does the flame need in order to keep burning? How does this observation help you to figure out the matter/energy input or output? If students identify any matter/energy input or output, ask them to write their answers on the process tool.
- 2) Ask students: What will happen to the candle when it is burning? What will happen to the weight of the candle (wick and wax) after the candle burns for a while? Do you think the candle will keep the same weight, put on weight, or loses weight?" Explain to students that you will use the digital scale to find out the answer. Then put the candle on the digital scale. Read and record the initial weight of the candle. Ignite the candle. While the candle is burning, ask students to vote: will the candle keep the same weight, put on weight, or lose weight? Ask students to explain their votes. After about 5 minute, read the digital scale again and record the final weight of the candle. Compare it with the initial weight of the candle. It shows that the candle loses weight. Ask students: "Where do the lost substances go?" Elicit the idea that since matter is conserved, the lost substances must become other types of substances. Tell students that the next observation will help them to figure out what substances are produced in flame burning.
- 3) Ask students: what substances are produced during burning? If they give general answers like ash or gases, challenge them to think of particular molecules they think will be produced. Then invert the beaker above the flame. After a few minutes, water drops should have condensed on the wall of the beaker. The teacher can either ask several students to watch closely or to touch the inside of the beaker (they can feel that it is wet). After students finish their observation, ask them how this observation helps them to find the matter output. Ask them to write their answers.
- 4) Ask students: what kinds of energy are released by the combustion of this fuel? What kind of energy was present initially in the fuel? Remind students what they have learned

about the energy forms. If students do not remember, ask them to read their reading. Ask students to fill out all the blanks on the process tool.

Pass out the *Burning Materials* worksheet. Students will observe what happens when different fuels are burning and record their observations in the table. Students are expected to identify the reactants and products involved in burning. In particular, gaseous matter including water vapor and oxygen should be identified.

In front of the class, burn the methane, butane, propane, and ethanol, one sample at a time. Before burning each material, introduce what the material is and how people use it in everyday life. Students also have that information in their worksheet.

Students have learned about candle burning. So, for burning these samples, you shouldn't need to dwell on each question, but do encourage students to see the very regular patterns of transformation caused by combustion.

Lead a class discussion on the patterns of the observations. Elicit the idea that all burning events require fuels and oxygen and produce water. Then tell students: There is another product in burning. Do you know what it is (the last column of the table)? Some students will come up with carbon dioxide, but they may not know why. Introduce the idea that chemical change can be treated as atom rearrangement – the atoms do not change, but they are rearranged to produce the new products. Ask students to use this idea of atom rearrangement to figure out the other product – carbon dioxide.

Use several minutes to talk about the distinction between matter transformation and energy transformation: Matter transforms and conserves in chemical change. Energy also transforms and conserves in chemical changes. **Energy cannot be converted into or from matter.**

Presentation of Group Work

20 minutes

Give students about 10 minutes to complete the tables for each fuel.

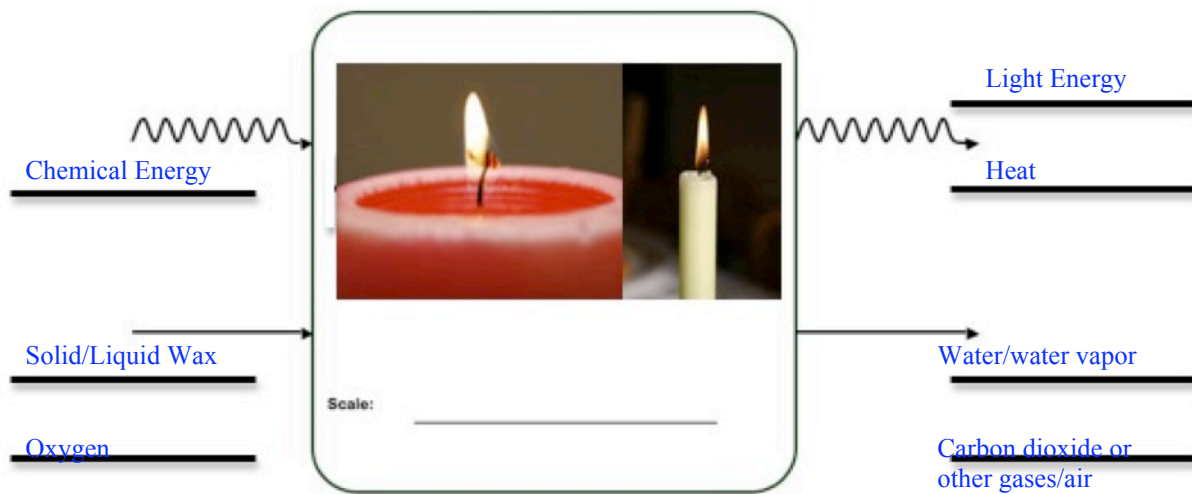
Have different groups present their work. Use the *Explain combustion PowerPoint* or the large process tool to model their answers.

Name: _____ Date: _____

Burning a Candle

Record your observations of the candle in the table below.

What happens to materials as the candle burns?	What happens to the energy as the candle burns?
<p>1. What does the flame need in order to keep burning? Oxygen is used by flame Candle (wax and wick)</p> <p>2. What happens to the weight of the wax and wick of the candle? Wax melts- it changes from solid to liquid; the candle gets shorter if it burns for a long time; the candle loses weight when it burns for a long time.</p> <p>3. What is produced when the flame burns? Water vapor is given off by flame</p>	<p>1. What form of energy do you identify before the candle burns? Chemical energy of the wax and wick.</p> <p>2. What forms of energy is released when the candle burns? Light energy and heat are given off by the candle</p>



Questions

1. When you use digital scale to measure the weight of the candle, what did find? Does it lose weight? If yes, where does the lost materials go?

The wax changes to gases and goes into the air.

2. Wood and wax can burn, but water, sand, and stone cannot burn. Some materials are called fuels. Fuels can burn, which means energy must come from fuels. What type of energy do fuels have?

Fuels have chemical energy

3. How does the energy change as the fuel burns?

The chemical energy in the wax changes to light energy and heat.

Name: _____ Hour: _____

Burning Materials

1. Please record your observations.

	Reactants of Combustion		Products of Combustion	
	What is the substance that is burning?	Invert the beaker over the flame. What do you observe? What substance is required to keep the flame burning?	Put a dry beaker over the flame, what do you observe? What substance is released?	There is another product of burning. Do you know what it is?
Burning methane	Methane	The flame extinguished a few minutes after the beaker was inverted over the flame. Oxygen is required to keep the flame burning.	There are water drops on the glass. It means that water is released	Carbon dioxide.
Burning butane	Butane	The flame extinguished a few minutes after the beaker was inverted over the flame. Oxygen is required to keep the flame burning.	There are water drops on the glass. It means that water is released	Carbon dioxide.
Burning propane	Propane	The flame extinguished a few minutes after the beaker was inverted over the flame. Oxygen is required to keep the flame burning.	There are water drops on the glass. It means that water is released	Carbon dioxide.
Burning ethanol	Ethanol	The flame extinguished a few minutes after the beaker was inverted over the flame. Oxygen is required to keep the flame burning.	There are water drops on the glass. It means that water is released	Carbon dioxide.

2. You have observed burning different types of fuels. You have also gained some information about different substances involved in burning. What are the patterns?

The pattern is that oxygen is required for the flame to keep burning. Water is released from the burning.

3. What are the forms of energy involved in these events of burning different materials? What are the evidences of different forms of energy?

Three forms of energy are involved: chemical energy of fuels; heat and light energy are released from the flame.

Part 2. Explain Combustion by the Matter and Energy Process Tool

1. How does matter transform in burning? How does energy transform in burning? Please use the Matter and Energy Process Tool to analyze and then explain how matter and energy transform in the table below.

	Process	Scale	Energy Input	Energy Output	Matter Input	Matter Output
Burning Methane	Combustion	Atomic-molecular	CE of methane	Heat and light energy	Methane and O ₂	H ₂ O and CO ₂
Burning Butane	Combustion	Atomic-molecular	CE of butane	Heat and light energy	Butane and O ₂	H ₂ O and CO ₂
Burning Propane	Combustion	Atomic-molecular	CE of propane	Heat and light energy	Propane and O ₂	H ₂ O and CO ₂
Burning Ethanol	Combustion	Atomic-molecular	CE of ethanol	Heat and light energy	Ethanol and O ₂	H ₂ O and CO ₂

2. Inside a car engine, the gasoline burns in order to provide energy for the car to run.

What does the car need in order to run? Please use the Matter and Energy Process Tool to analyze and then explain how matter and energy transform as gasoline burns inside the engine in the table below.

	Process	Scale	Energy Input	Energy Output	Matter Input	Matter Output
Car Running	Combustion	Atomic-molecular	CE of gasoline	Heat and light energy	Gasoline & oxygen	H ₂ O and CO ₂

3. When the car is running, where does the motion energy come from?

The motion energy comes from the chemical energy of gasoline

4. When the car runs out of gasoline and stops, where has the matter of the gasoline gone?

The gasoline becomes water and carbon dioxide.

5. When the car runs out of gasoline and stops, where has the **ENERGY** of the gasoline gone? Please note that when the car stops running, there is no motion energy.

All the energy transforms into heat.

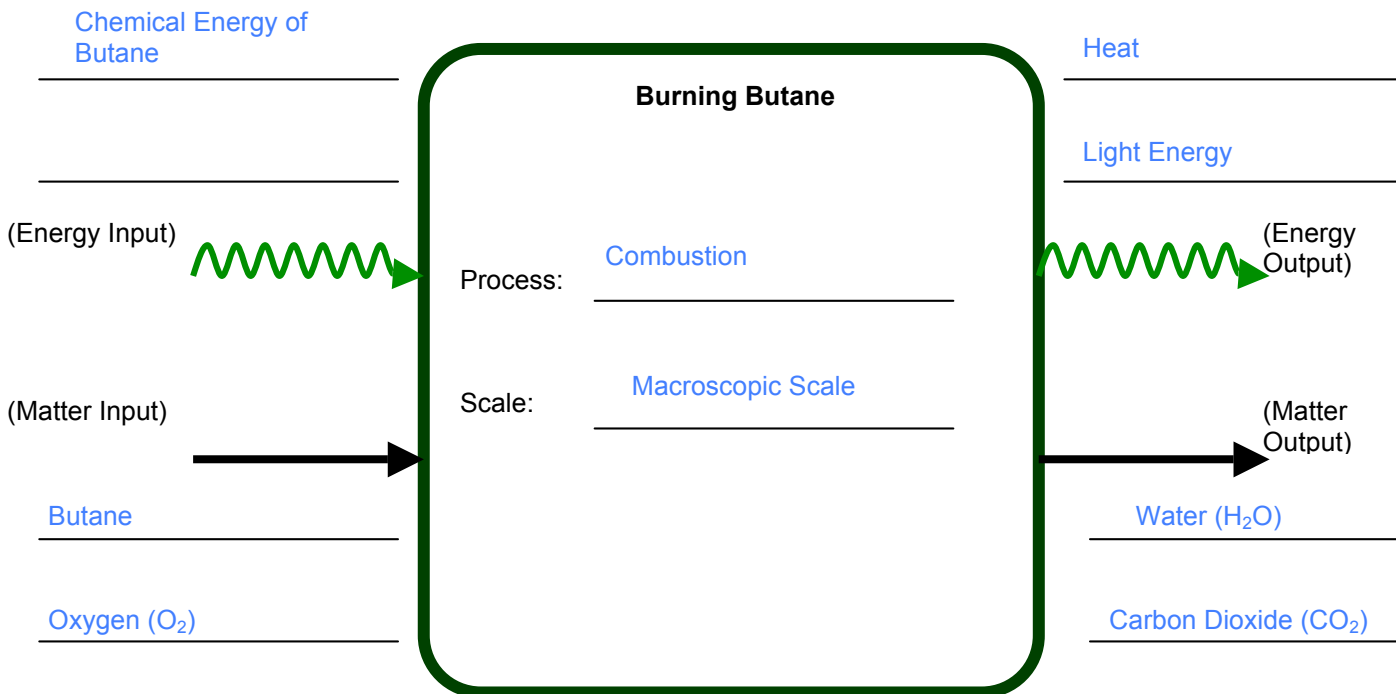
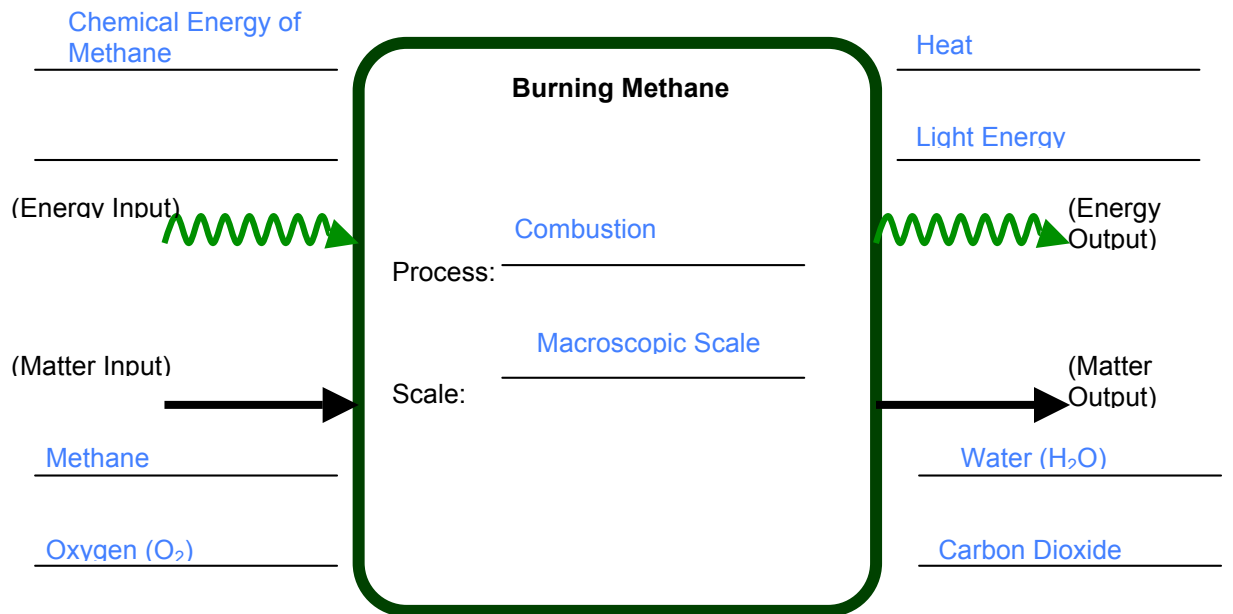
6. Why do people use gasoline instead of water to run their cars?

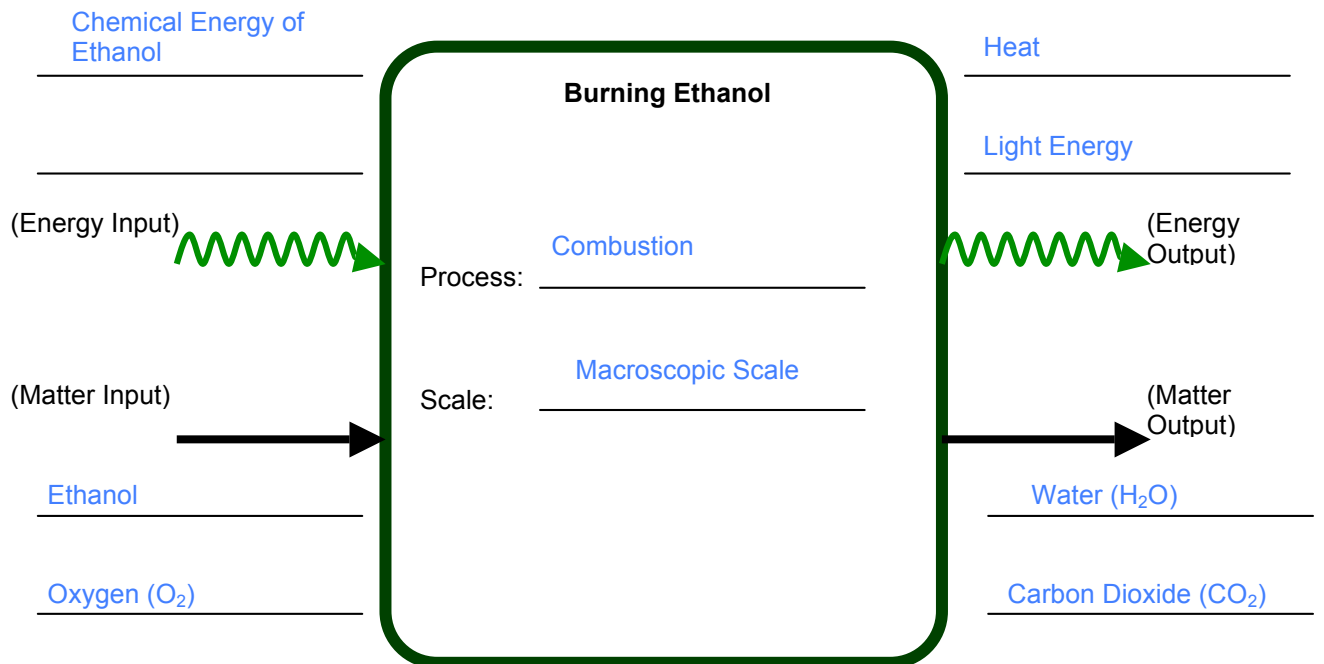
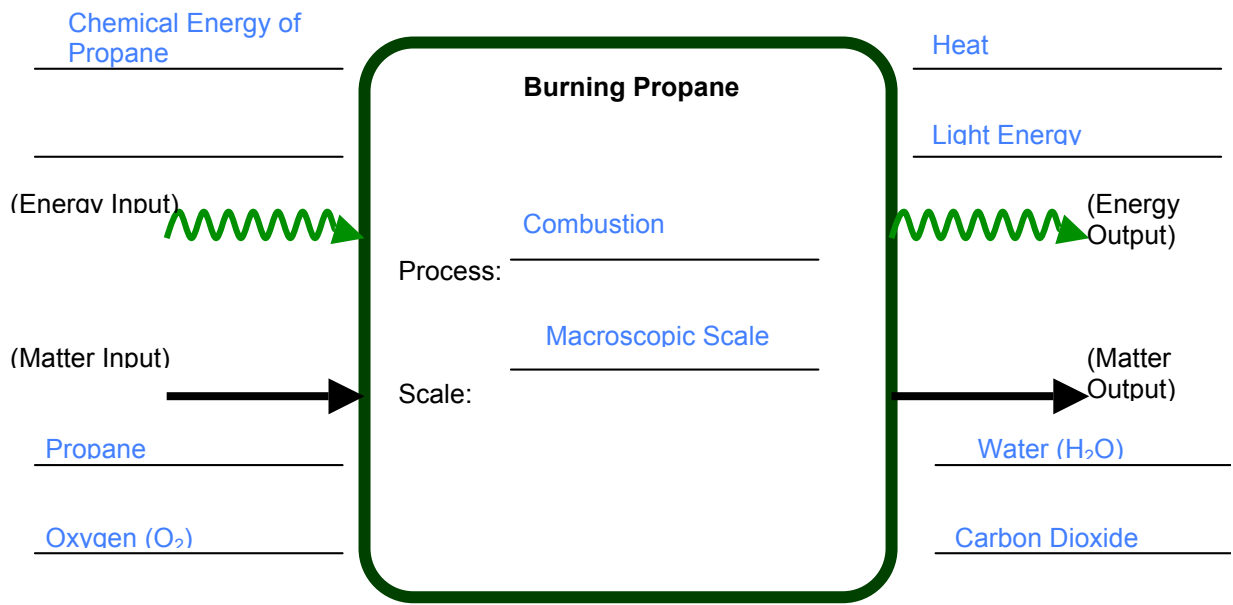
Gasoline contains energy, but water does not contain energy.

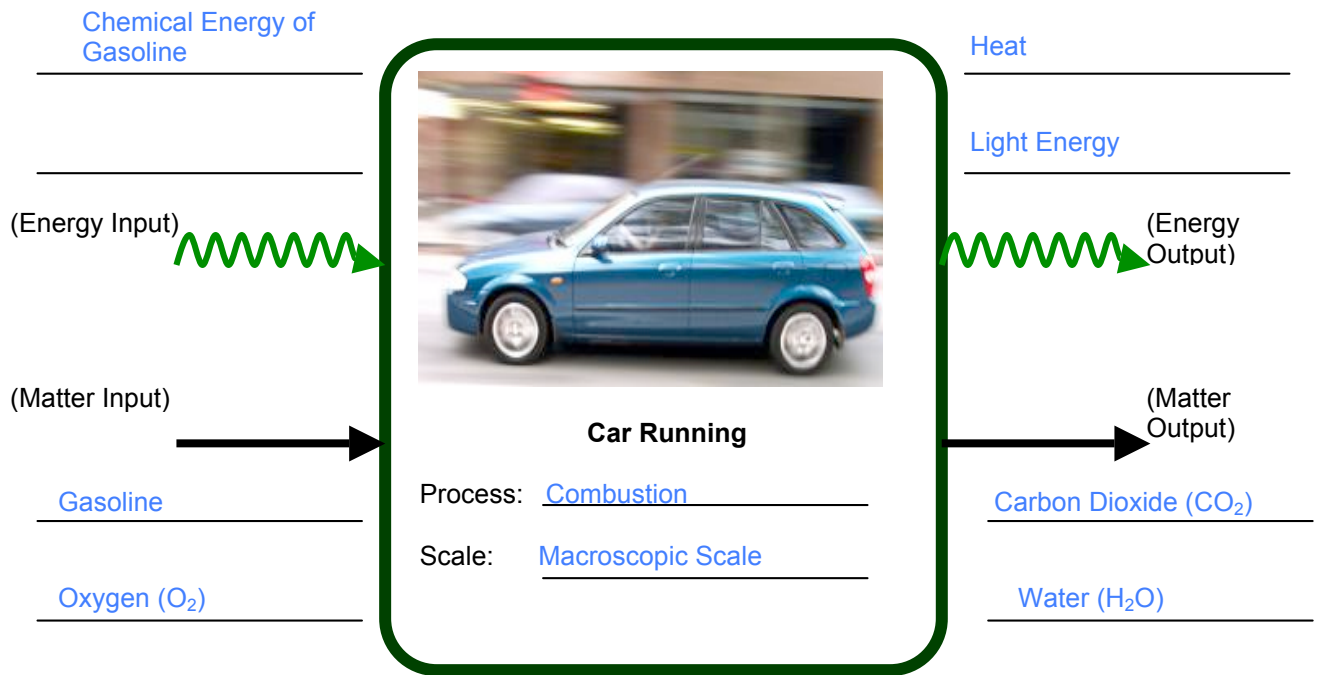
7. Is it possible that all the energy of gasoline can be transformed into the energy of car running? Why?

No. Because the chemical energy of gasoline cannot be 100% transforms into motion energy. Heat is always released.

Matter and Energy Process Tool Shown on the Board or PowerPoint- not student worksheet







Activity 7: Does Burning Release Energy: Modeling Combustion

General Overview:

Review/Introduction	~ 5 minutes
Why can fuels burn? – Molecules of fuels	~15 minutes
How do matter and energy change in burning?	~15 minutes
Small groups: <i>Modeling combustion</i>	~ 15 minutes
Whole group: Concluding discussion	~ 10 minutes

Estimated Time: 60 minutes

*Optional complement: combustion as bond breaking and forming ~10 minutes

Purpose:

In Activity 6, students observed burning different types of fuels. In this activity, students will construct a more sophisticated molecular-level explanation for burning fuels. This activity has two purposes:

1) *To identify energy-rich materials.*

Many students are able to identify fuels based on their daily experience. They know that fuels can burn because they contain energy, but they usually do not understand that the property of combustibility is determined by the atomic-molecular structure of fuels. Activity 7 will introduce the idea of using chemical bonds to identify energy-rich substances. By the end of this lesson, students will understand that energy-rich substances can provide energy for combustion because they contain high-energy bonds (C-C and C-H). Students are also expected to compare the available energy in molecules by looking at the number of C-C and C-H bonds.

2) *To explain matter transformation and energy transformation in combustion.*

Students have learned about substances involved in combustion – fuels, oxygen, water, and carbon dioxide. They have also learned using the Matter and Energy Process Tool to analyze matter transformation and energy transformation in burning. In Activity 7, they will continue to use this knowledge to investigate combustion process using *Molecular Model Kits* and *Flame PowerPoint*. The purpose is to help students to understand that chemical change is a process of atom re-arrangement and to distinguish matter transformation and energy transformation in the process. Many students have difficulty connecting the atomic-molecular chemical changes with the macroscopic phenomenon of flame burning. The *Flame PowerPoint* will help students to “zoom in” to see the components of the flame and understand that the flame is made of a mixture of molecules of the reactants and products in combustion. Then students will use molecular kits to practice relevant chemical equations. They will also compare the reactants and products in the process and identify energy-rich molecules and construct the explanation of energy transformation – chemical energy of fuel molecules transforms into heat and light energy in combustion.

Materials:

Powers of Ten Flame PowerPoint

Student copies of *Does combustion release energy?*
Molecular model kits (1 set per group)
Directions for Building Models overhead transparency

Advance Preparation/ Safety Considerations:

- Make student copies of *Does combustion release energy?* If not provided by MSU
- Assemble modeling kits that contain appropriate number of “atoms” and bonds”- each group should receive 12 hydrogen, 18 oxygen, and 6 carbons and 36-40 springs. In addition, students will have 2-nitrogen.

Procedures/Suggestions:

Introduction/Review

~ 5 minutes

1. *Introduction/Review.* Take about five minutes to review what students learned yesterday as they observed the burning of different fuel sources. Ask them about the observations they made that indicate the presence of reactants and products. Ask them to explain what they learned by using the Matter and Energy Process Tool to demonstrate how matter and energy change during combustion.

Why can fuels burn? – Molecules of Fuels

~ 15 minutes

2. Students read the article about different types of fuels and finish the questions in part 1 – *Why Can Fuels Burn?* Use the Flame PowerPoint (Slide 1, 2, and 3) to show students the structure of fuel molecules and elicit the idea that fuel molecules have a similar structure: They all contain C-C and C-H bonds.
3. Then introduce the concept of hydrocarbon: Hydrocarbon molecules all contain a *carbon backbone*. Hydrogen atoms are attached to that backbone. In this structure, the C-C and C-H bonds contain a lot of energy. Also make sure that students understand that each carbon atom has 4 electrons in its outer shell and thus can form 4 covalent bonds.

How do matter and energy change in burning

~ 15 minutes

4. Ask students: what is flame? Show Flame PowerPoint (Slide 4 – Zoom In). Slide 4 uses methane as an example to show the composition of flame. Explain to students that flame is a mixture of gases including methane, oxygen, carbon dioxide, and water vapor.
5. Remind students that in Activity 6, they learned that chemical reactions are a process of atom re-arrangement. Use the Flame PowerPoint (Slide 5 – Combustion as a Process of Atom Re-arrangement) to show the process of molecules breaking into atoms and atoms rearranging into new molecules. Then ask students to describe matter transformation in this process.
6. Use the Flame PowerPoint (Slide 6 – Energy Transformation in Combustion) to lead students to consider whether energy is released or absorbed in combustion. Students examine the molecules of both reactants and products and identify energy-rich materials. In this case, the energy-rich material is methane, since it contains C-H bonds. Then ask students what is the evidence of energy they observe in burning? Elicit the idea that in combustion, the chemical energy of fuels transforms into light energy and heat.

Modeling combustion~ 15 minutes

7. Tell students that today they will use model kits to model what is happening to the atoms and molecules during combustion. They are going to model the four fuel sources that they burned in the previous lesson. Remind them that the point of the modeling is to show conservation of matter as well as energy.
8. Divide students into groups and pass out molecular model kits. Remind students (from the air and fuel building activities, how to use the wooden atoms and springs to build molecules).
9. Before starting the small groups, tell students to think about the types of bonds that are in the reactants and the type of bonds in the products because that will help them decide what happens to energy during combustion. Either specify that C-C and C-H bonds are higher energy than O-C and O-H, or ask them to simply count the number of all types of bonds present in both reactants and products and let them come to the same conclusion.
10. Students build molecular models according to the worksheet. They compare the molecular structures of the reactants and products to identify whether chemical energy is present in the reactants or products and how it transforms.

Concluding discussion

~ 10 minutes

11. Take the last 10 minutes for class discussion and elicit the conclusions about the model-building activity and answers to the summary questions. When reactants contain chemical energy in high-energy bonds (C-C and C-H) and the products are not a source of chemical energy, the chemical reaction must release energy into the environment- remind students that energy cannot be created or destroyed, so the chemical energy of energy-rich materials transforms into light energy and heat, which is what they observe at the macroscopic level. Help students connect this to what they observed in the burning lab demonstrations.
12. Ask students how the atoms and molecules changed during the combustion process. Help students see that combustion does not create or destroy atoms or molecules, but just rearranges atoms into new molecules that are not sources of chemical energy. Help them see that burning is a chemical reaction in which a fuel source, often in liquid form, changes into gases.

If time, have students share their questions that are still unanswered, and see if other students have ideas about how to answer those questions.

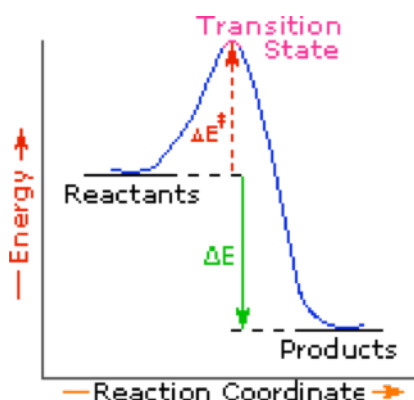
*Complementary part (Flame PowerPoint Slide 7):

If you would like to teach for a higher level of knowledge about combustion, you can teach the complementary part. It introduces the idea of activation energy and use “bond breaking and bond forming” to explain why combustion is an exothermic reaction. This is different from the method of comparing the energy of products and reactant to decide whether the reaction is exothermic or endothermic. If your students do not have a sophisticated understanding of energy transformation and matter transformation, it is very possible that teaching bond breaking and forming will arouse more confusions and misconceptions.

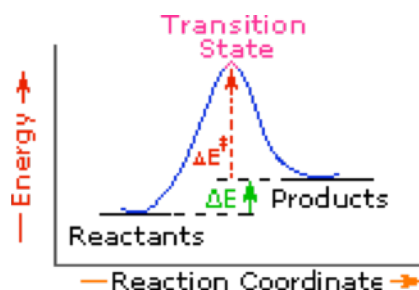
The complementary part deals with the following common misconception held by many high school students: energy is contained in bonds and energy is released when bonds break. It also explains why flame need to be initiated. Flame PowerPoint (slide 7) will help students to “see” the whole process of chemical change in terms of bond breaking and forming: A small amount of energy is required to break the bonds of fuel molecules and the bonds of oxygen. This makes the atoms (C, O, H) ‘free.’ Then these ‘free’ atoms bond together to form new molecules (CO₂ and H₂O). When the bonds form, a large amount of energy is released. Since much more energy is released than absorbed, combustion releases energy.

Examples of diagrams are below:

Exothermic Single Step Reaction



Endothermic Single Step Reaction



Name: _____ Hour: _____

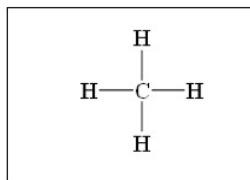
Does Burning Release Energy: Modeling Combustion

Part 1: Why Can Fuels Burn? – Molecules of Fuels

In your groups, you will use molecular model kits to model the process of combustion of different fuel sources. You will model the following four fuels:

1. Burning Methane.

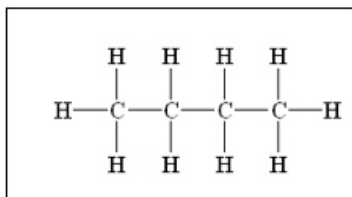
Methane, which takes up about 75% of natural gas, is used as energy source to heat your homes, cook food, or generate electricity.



Methane (CH₄)

2. Burning butane.

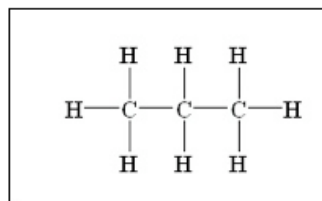
In your classroom, you have butane burner for your chemistry labs. People often use butane lighter to light things, when they are having outdoor activities.



Butane (C₄H₁₀)

3. Burning propane.

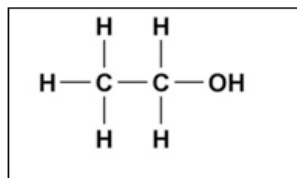
In the summertime, we often use gas grills to cook hamburgers and hot dogs. Many of the grills and camping stoves use propane fuel.



Propane (C₃H₈)

4. Burning ethanol.

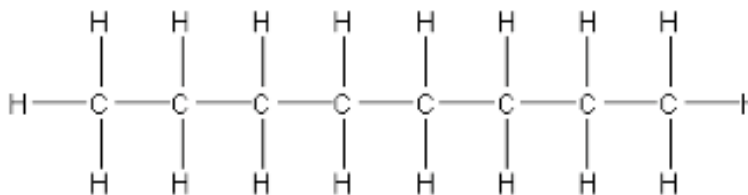
In recent years, there has been increasing publicity and support for using ethanol from corn as a fuel source for our automobiles. Currently, ethanol is mixed with gasoline and burned by engines in our vehicles to run.



Ethanol ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$)

5. Burning gasoline

Gasoline is a mixture of hydrocarbons, including heptane (C_7H_{16}) and octane (C_8H_{18}).⁸



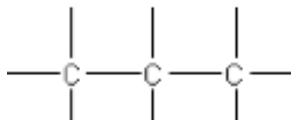
Octane (C_8H_{18})

⁸ Octane ratings concern the ability of different mixtures in gasoline to resist detonation or knock. Using a higher-level octane will not improve the gas mileage, since the total C-H and C-C bonds contained in the mixture will not change. In addition the “octane” referred to in gasoline ratings actually refers to 2,2,4-trimethyl pentane, meaning that it has a more branched structure than actual octane, allowing for a more even burning during combustion.

Questions

1. The handout on burning fuels provides information about molecules of different types of fuels. All these molecules belong to a class of substances – **hydrocarbons**. What is the similarity among the molecules? Please draw a picture to show the characteristic structure of hydrocarbons.

Answer:



2. Hydrocarbons are energy-rich materials, because they all contain certain chemical bonds. Please examine the molecules of different types of hydrocarbons. What are the chemical bonds that all of these fuels have in common?

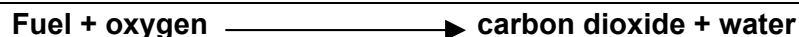
All molecules contain C-C and C-H bonds.

3. Examine the different molecules. How many bonds can one carbon atom form?

Four bonds

Part 2: Modeling Combustion

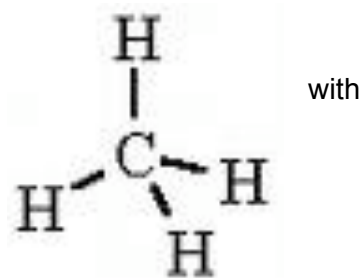
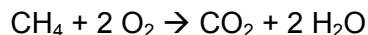
1. You have already burned some of these fuels and observed macroscopic changes in matter and energy. You will see what is really happening at the atomic-molecular level as these fuels burn. Matter transformation is described by the chemical equation of combustion as below.



You will now use your model kits to demonstrate this equation for each fuel source. As you build your models, make sure to complete the tables.

Chemical Change #1: Methane

Methane burns by combining with oxygen in the air to make carbon dioxide and water vapor. One methane molecule reacts with 2 oxygen molecules:



	Reactants and Products of the Chemical Change			Does the substance contain Energy	
	How many carbon atoms does it have?	How many oxygen atoms does it have?	How many hydrogen atoms does it have?	What type of bonds does the substance contain? (C-C, C-H, O-H, C-O, O=O)	Is this substance energy-rich? (yes or no)
<i>Begin with...</i>					
Methane	1	0	4	C-H	yes
Oxygen	0	4	0	O=O	no
<i>End with...</i>					
Carbon Dioxide	1	2	0	C-O	no
Water	0	2	4	O-H	no

Total amount of different atoms in reactants:

Carbon Atoms: 1 Oxygen Atoms: 4 Hydrogen Atoms: 4

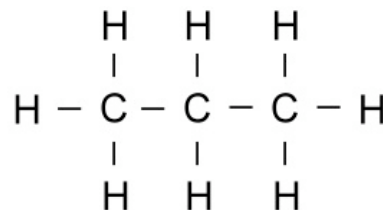
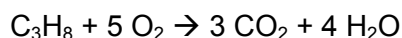
Total amount of different atoms in products:

Carbon Atoms: 1 Oxygen Atoms: 4 Hydrogen Atoms: 4

Which molecule(s) contain(s) energy? CH₄.

Chemical Change #2: Propane

Propane burns by combining with oxygen in the air to make carbon dioxide and water vapor. One propane molecule reacts with 5 oxygen molecules:



	Reactants and Products of the Chemical Change			Does the substance contain Energy	
	How many carbon atoms does it have?	How many oxygen atoms does it have?	How many hydrogen atoms does it have?	What type of bonds does the substance contain? (C-C, C-H, O-H, C-O, O=O)	Is this substance energy-rich? (yes or no)
<i>Begin with...</i>					
Propane	3	0	8	C-C, C-H	yes
Oxygen	0	10	0	O=O	no
<i>End with...</i>					
Carbon Dioxide	3	6	0	C-O	no
Water	0	4	8	O-H	no

Total amount of different atoms in reactants:

Carbon Atoms: 3 Oxygen Atoms: 10 Hydrogen Atoms: 8

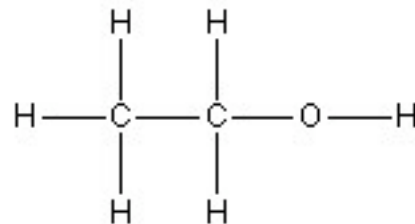
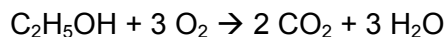
Total amount of different atoms in products:

Carbon Atoms: 3 Oxygen Atoms: 10 Hydrogen Atoms: 8

Which molecule(s) contain(s) energy? C₃H₈.

Chemical Change #3: Ethanol

Ethanol burns by combining with oxygen in the air to make carbon dioxide and water vapor. One ethanol molecule reacts with 3 oxygen molecules:



	Reactants and Products of the Chemical Change			Does the substance contain Energy	
	How many carbon atoms does it have?	How many oxygen atoms does it have?	How many hydrogen atoms does it have?	What type of bonds does the substance contain? (C-C, C-H, O-H, C-O, O=O)	Is this substance energy-rich? (yes or no)
<i>Begin with...</i>					
Ethanol	2	1	6	C-C, C-H, C-O, O-H	yes
Oxygen	0	6	0	O=O	no
<i>End with...</i>					
Carbon Dioxide	2	4	0	C-O	no
Water	0	3	6	O-H	no

Total amount of different atoms in reactants:

Carbon Atoms: 2 Oxygen Atoms: 7 Hydrogen Atoms: 6

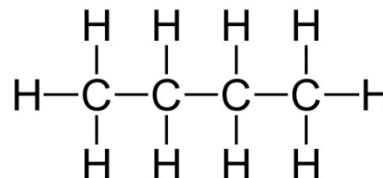
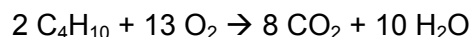
Total amount of different atoms in products:

Carbon Atoms: 2 Oxygen Atoms: 7 Hydrogen Atoms: 6

Which molecule(s) contain(s) energy? C₂H₅OH.

Chemical Change #4: Butane

Butane burns by combining with oxygen in the air to make carbon dioxide and water vapor. Two butane molecules react with 13 oxygen molecules:



	Reactants and Products of the Chemical Change			Does the substance contain Energy	
	How many carbon atoms does it have?	How many oxygen atoms does it have?	How many hydrogen atoms does it have?	What type of bonds does the substance contain? (C-C, C-H, O-H, C-O, O=O)	Is this substance energy-rich? (yes or no)
<i>Begin with...</i>					
Butane	8	0	20	C-C, C-H	yes
Oxygen	0	26	0	O=O	no
<i>End with...</i>					
Carbon Dioxide	8	16	0	C-O	no
Water	0	10	20	O-H	no

Total amount of different atoms in reactants:

Carbon Atoms: 8 Oxygen Atoms: 26 Hydrogen Atoms: 20

Total amount of different atoms in products:

Carbon Atoms: 8 Oxygen Atoms: 26 Hydrogen Atoms: 20

Which molecule(s) contain(s) energy? C₄H₁₀.

Summary Questions:

1. Each carbon dioxide molecule that is given off during combustion contains 1 carbon. Where was this carbon atom before it was in the carbon dioxide molecule?

It was in the molecules of different types of fuels.

2. Combustion is a process where energy-rich substances react with oxygen to make substances without high-energy bonds. What happens to energy in this process if it is no longer found as chemical energy?

It was released out as heat and light energy.

3. Compare the reactants and products of combustion. Are there high-energy bonds (C-C and C-H) contained in reactants? Are there high-energy bonds contained in the products?

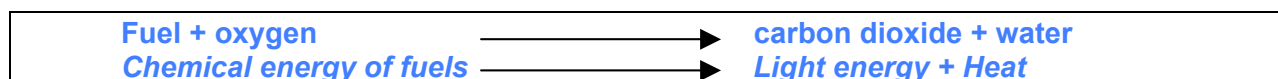
There are high-energy bonds (C-C and C-H) contained in the reactants, but not in the products.

4. You have made models of energy-rich materials that we burn. How do the molecules change when they are burned? What happens to the atoms?

The molecules change after the chemical reaction: the molecules of fuels react with oxygen and produce carbon dioxide and water.

The different types of atoms keep the same.

5. Please use two equations to show how matter transforms and how energy transforms during combustion. Then answer the following questions:



a) Compare the amount of different types of atoms before and after the chemical change. What pattern do you find?

The amount of different types of atoms kept the same.

b) Does the total amount of energy change after the chemical reaction?

The total amount of energy conserves. It transforms from chemical energy of fuels into light energy and heat.

QUESTION YOU STILL HAVE:

Do you still have questions about how matter or energy change during combustion? In the space below, write about new things you learned about combustion, or questions you have that were not answered during the previous activities.

Directions for Building Models:

Step 1: First build the “fuel” molecule.

Step 2: Use the remaining oxygen molecules to build O_2

Step 3: Once you have the reactants built, think about the atoms in each molecule and the bonds between atoms and complete part of the table.

Step 4: Use the reactants to “simulate” combustion of the fuel source. Recombine the atoms from the fuel molecule and oxygen molecules to make carbon dioxide and water.

Step 5: Look at the atoms in the products (carbon dioxide and water) and the bonds between atoms. Complete the rest of the table.

Step 6: Do steps 1-5 for each of the fuel molecules.

Step 7: Once you have completed all the fuel sources and tables, discuss and respond to the questions on the last page.

Activity 8: Identifying Energy-Rich Materials

Overview:

Reading *Identifying Energy-Rich Materials*
Energy Rich Materials

~15 minutes

~25 minutes

TOTAL TIME: 40 minutes

Purpose:

This activity allows students to continue practicing using high- and low-energy chemical bonds, but with a more explicit focus on the energy-storage molecules used by living cells. In this way it can serve as a bridge between the physical and chemical discussions that have been the gist of earlier lessons, and the working out of these principles in biological systems, setting the stage for examinations of metabolism and other processes in living organisms in upcoming modules.

Materials:

Student copies of the reading: *Identifying Energy-Rich Materials*
Student copies of *Energy-Rich Materials*

Advance Preparation:

Make copies of student worksheets if not provided by MSU

Procedures:

Identifying Energy-Rich Materials

15 minutes

As a group read through the handout titled, *Identifying energy-rich materials*. Focus subsequent discussion on insuring the students are clear on the source of stored energy in cells, namely solar energy captured in photosynthesis by plants and transferred to animals when they consume the energy compounds of plants or other animals. When cells of these compounds break apart, they release high-energy molecules. We call this process cellular respiration rather than combustion, but both processes use similar reactants and have the same products. A related point is to show the similar nature of fossil fuels to biological energy stores, except that their matter and energy were part of the biosphere millions of years ago. Modern humanity's rapid combustion of the energy molecules stored over a long period of time is at the heart of the changing global carbon cycle.

Energy-Rich Materials

25 minutes

Elicit students' ideas about why some materials can be used as energy sources for human survival and activities, while some materials cannot. Try to guide students into developing an explanation that uses the chemical bonds of the materials (i.e., all the energy-rich materials contain C-C and C-H bonds). If time allows, beginning to discuss the relative sizes of the energy molecules (glucose vs. lipid, for instance) will allow students to think about the density of high-energy bonds in a molecule, and their overall energy storage capacity. This plays out for students in such things as why the body stores energy primarily in fat, and why fat contains more calories than sugar on a weight basis. This is also a good place for students to share claims that occasionally surface about harnessing energy from low-energy compounds, such as hydrogen fuel cells that are sometimes talked about as producing fuel energy from water, ignoring the earlier sources of energy that have to be inputted to set up the fuel cell.

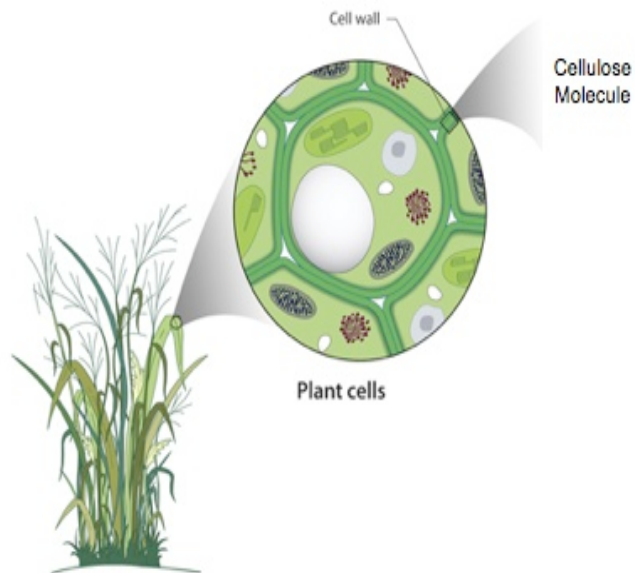
Identifying energy-rich materials

Part 1: Chemical Energy in Plants, Animals, and Fuels

Where do plants and animals store energy in their bodies? Plants and animals are made of cells. The cells are made of millions and even billions of molecules, all used for a wide variety of purposes. The majority of a cell's energy, however, is stored in several special types of molecules.

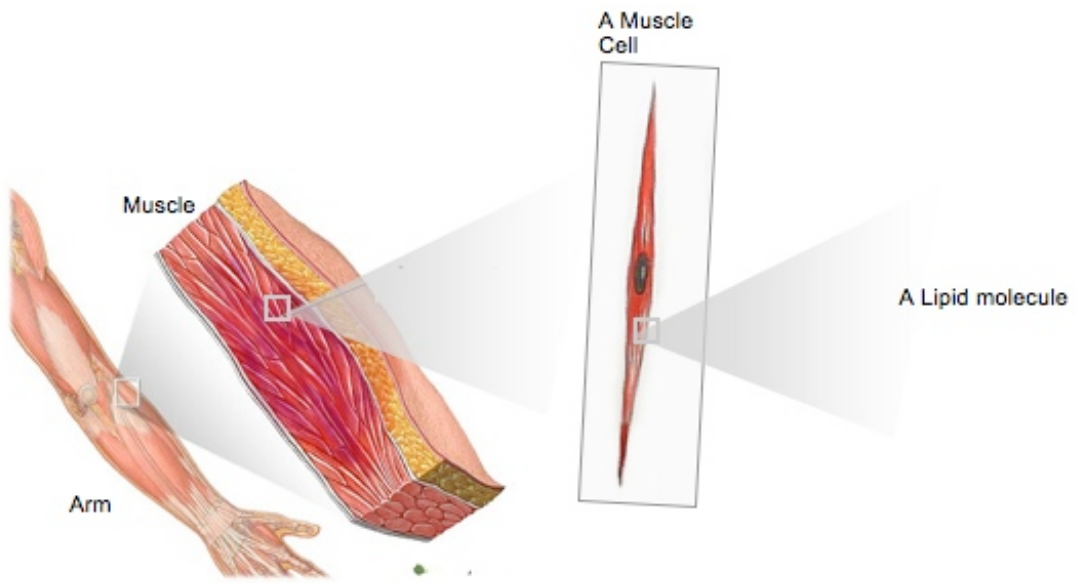
The picture below shows that leaves of corn plants are made of cells. These cells are able to capture light energy from the sun, and transform it into chemical energy through the process of photosynthesis. In this process, atoms found in carbon dioxide and water are used to make glucose molecules, which contain a lot of chemical energy. Eventually the glucose molecules become other types of molecules in plants, such as starch and cellulose. Cellulose molecules also contain a lot of chemical energy. Like glucose, cellulose is important to plants. Cellulose, however, is much less biologically accessible than glucose and starch for organisms to use as food, making it an excellent molecule for durability and structure, such as in plant cell walls, where it is the major chemical component (see picture below).

Plants also take in oxygen, because they need to be able to use the chemical energy in glucose and other molecules. Oxygen helps to release the chemical energy stored in these molecules. When these molecules react with oxygen, their chemical energy is used by the plant, and transformed into other forms of energy. At the same time, carbon dioxide and water are released out of the cell, and may eventually leave the plant.



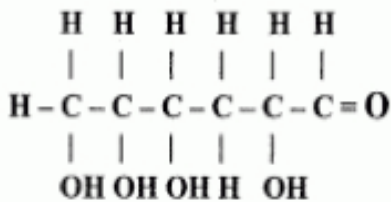
People and other animals store energy in their bodies in a similar way, using molecules such as glucose, glycogen (very similar structure to plant starch) and lipids (fats). The muscle of the person's arm is made of muscle cells. The muscle cells store millions of lipid molecules in specialized parts of the cell. Like cellulose molecules in plant cell walls, the lipid molecules also contain a lot of chemical energy. Unlike cellulose, though, lipids can be readily broken down by the cell and their stored energy released.

Just like plants, people need oxygen to release the chemical energy stored in the cells of their body. In the picture below, when the lipid molecule reacts with oxygen, its chemical energy is released for the person to use. At the same time, carbon dioxide and water are released out of the cell, and eventually leave the body.

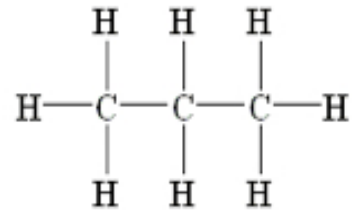


Part 3: C-C and C-H Bonds and Chemical Energy

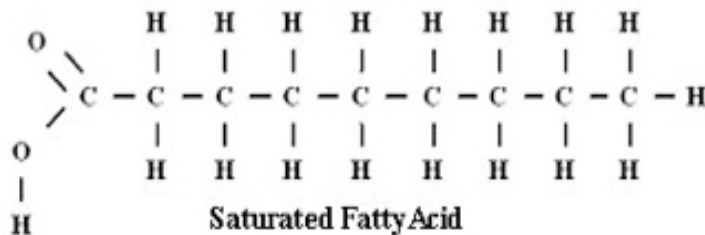
Look at some of the common molecules that make up plants, animals, and fossil fuels.



GLUCOSE



PROPANE



LIPID

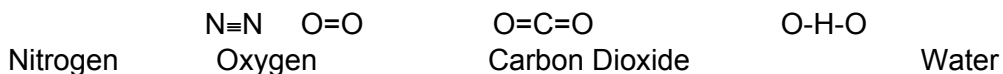
What do you notice about the atoms that are found in these materials?

What atoms are bonded to each other?

In general molecules that have C-C and C-H bonds have lots of energy. That means when you see a molecule where carbon is bonded to another carbon, or where carbon is bonded to hydrogen, that molecule has lots of chemical energy. Some molecules are not rich with chemical energy. These molecules contain O-H and O-C bonds. Materials that *only* include oxygen bonded to hydrogen or oxygen bonded to carbon are not chemical energy sources.

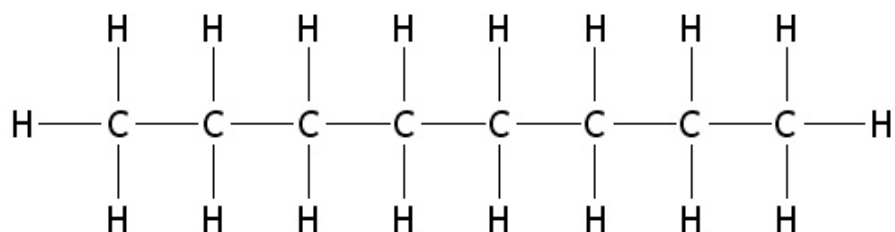
Name: _____ Hour: _____

Energy-Rich Materials



1. Look at the molecules that make up most of our air. Do you think these molecules are sources of chemical energy? Explain why or why not.

No, because these molecules do not contain C-C and C-H bonds.



2. a. This is an octane molecule found in gasoline. Is this molecule similar or different from the fuel molecules you built in the previous lesson? Explain why it is similar or different.

Yes. They are similar, because they all contain C-C and C-H bonds.

b. Which of the molecules in the reading (glucose, propane, lipid) is most similar to the octane molecule? What might this mean in terms of energy storage for plant and animal cells?

Propane, because propane molecules and octane molecules only contain C and H atoms, but glucose and lipid molecules also contain O atom

Look back at all the molecules you built using your model kits and other molecules you read about today. Which molecules have chemical energy and which ones do not? Complete the table below.

Which molecules have chemical energy?	Which are NOT sources of chemical energy?
butane, propane, ethanol, octane, methane,	nitrogen, oxygen, carbon dioxide, water

Summary Questions:

1. What makes the molecules with chemical energy similar?

They all contain C-C and C-H bonds.

2. How are molecules with chemical energy different from the molecules without chemical energy?

Molecules with chemical energy contain C-C and C-H bonds, but molecules without chemical energy do not contain these bonds.