

A PHYSICS ALPHABET
ABBREVIATIONS AND UNITS USED IN THIS BOOK*

Quantity (with symbol)	Unit	Quantity (with symbol)	Unit		
Area (e.g. surface area)	A	m^2	Normal reaction force	N	N
Acceleration	a	m/s^2	Pressure	P	$\text{Pa} = \text{N/m}^2$
Specific heat capacity	c	$\text{J/(kg } ^\circ\text{C)}$	Power	P	W
Energy or Work	E	J	Momentum	p	kg m/s
Extension	e	m	Charge	Q	C
Frequency	f	Hz	Resistance	R	Ω
Force	F	N	Displacement	s	m
Friction force	F_F	N	Temperature	T	$^\circ\text{C}$
Gravitational field	g	N/kg	Time period	T	s
Height	h	m	Time	t	s
Current	I	A	Potential or p.d.	V	V
Spring constant	k	N/m	Volume	V	m^3
Moment	M	Nm	Speed or velocity	v	m/s
Mass	m	kg	Weight	W	N

Potential is also called voltage, and a potential difference (p.d.) can also be called a voltage difference.

Quantity (with symbol)	Unit
Wavelength	λ (lambda)
Friction co-efficient	μ (mu)
Density	ρ (rho)

Δ (delta) means _____. So Δh means _____.

	$1 \text{ km} = 1000 \text{ m}$	$1 \text{ Mm} = 10^6 \text{ m}$	$1 \text{ Gm} = 10^9 \text{ m}$
$1 \text{ cm} = 0.01 \text{ m}$	$1 \text{ mm} = 0.001 \text{ m}$	$1 \mu\text{m} = 10^{-6} \text{ m}$	$1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-9} \text{ m}$

Units with powers. Note for example:

1 cm^2 means $1 \text{ cm} \times 1 \text{ cm} = 0.01 \text{ m} \times 0.01 \text{ m} = 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$

*A list of formulae and data is given on the inside back cover.

FORMULAE AND DATA[†]

The meaning of all symbols in the formulae, and the units used, are given on the inside of the cover. If you need to revise a formula, turn to the page listed alongside it in this table.

Velocity and Displacement	Energy or Work Done
$\Delta s = v \Delta t$	P 11 $\Delta E = F \Delta s$ P 35
Acceleration and Velocity	Gravitational Potential Energy
$\Delta v = a \Delta t$	$\Delta E = W \Delta h = mg \Delta h$ P 37
Weight	Energy and Power
$W = mg$	P 17 $\Delta E = P \Delta t$ P 38
Force and Acceleration	Energy and Temperature change
$F = ma$	P 19 $\Delta E = mc\Delta T$ P 42
Momentum	Moment
$p = mv$	P 20 $M = Fs$ P 41
Momentum and Force	
$\Delta p = F \Delta t$	

Energy and Potential	Density
$E = QV$	$\rho = m/V$ P 43
Charge and Current	Friction
$\Delta Q = I \Delta t$	$F_F = \mu N$ P 45
Resistance	Springs and Force
$V = IR$	$F = ke$ P 47
Electrical Power	Pressure
$P = IV$	$P = F/A$ P 49

Frequency	Wave Equation
$f = 1/T$	P 50 $v = f\lambda$ P 51

In the questions on these worksheets, unless otherwise given, take

- Gravitational field strength on Earth (g) as 10 N/kg
- Acceleration of a dropped object without air resistance (g) as 10 m/s^2

Other data will be given on each worksheet when you need it.

[†]A list of quantities, symbols and data is given on the inside front cover.

Isaac Essential Physics

Step up to GCSE Physics

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Use this collection of worksheets in parallel with the electronic version at
https://isaacscience.org/books/step_up_phys. Marking of answers
and compilation of results is free on Isaac Science. Register as a student or
as a teacher to gain full functionality and support.



Note for the Student

Physics is the part of Science which uses maths the most. Most physics ideas can be written down as equations more easily than they can be written down in words. The courses you study later (like GCSE) will require you to use many equations to solve problems.

In each two-page section, an idea is explained. You then have a worked example and then a set of questions to answer. Practising the questions will build your confidence. You can then make a flying start to GCSE.

Note for the Teacher

The material in this book builds on concepts which have already been introduced to students in a qualitative fashion. This book places these ideas on a more mathematical footing.

Students, teachers and schools are welcome to use this material with students prior to beginning formal GCSE (or equivalent) programmes of study to provide a good foundation. Equally, it may be used alongside other resources as the early parts of GCSE courses are taught. It also has a role as extension and challenge material for younger pupils, and can be used as a bank of practice material for older students needing to gain confidence.

All questions are also available at https://isaacscience.org/books/step_up_phys. Teachers may set questions to their classes and monitor progress. Equally, students completing questions on the website receive immediate feedback on their answers. A pdf version of the notes without the red text is available at https://isaacscience.org/books/step_up_phys for projection in class during class discussion.

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Force and Motion

1 Displacement

Displacement s measures the _____ of something.

When something _____ its displacement _____.

In our questions, the direction of a displacement is given by its sign:

+ means 'on the right'

- means 'on the left'

If the change of displacement is _____, the object is moving to the _____.

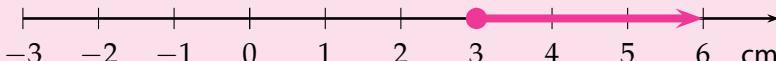
If the change is _____, the object is moving to the _____.

Δ (delta) means _____.

$$\text{change in displacement } (\Delta s) = s_{\text{final}} - s_{\text{starting}}$$

If it ends up back at the starting point, the total displacement is _____. The total distance travelled will not be zero if it moved.

Example 1 – Calculate the change in displacement for the motion shown below. State the distance travelled.



Object moved from $s_{\text{starting}} = +3 \text{ cm}$ to $s_{\text{final}} = +6 \text{ cm}$,

Change in displacement $\Delta s = 6 \text{ cm} - 3 \text{ cm} = +3 \text{ cm}$

Distance moved = 3 cm

Example 2 – An object moves directly from $s = +3 \text{ cm}$ to $s = -5 \text{ cm}$.

Calculate the change in displacement. State the distance travelled.

Change in displacement $\Delta s = -5 \text{ cm} - (3 \text{ cm}) = -8 \text{ cm}$

Distance moved = 8 cm

Example 3 – Calculate the change in displacement for the two-stage motion shown below. State the distance travelled.



Starting position $s_{\text{starting}} = 3 \text{ cm}$, final position $s_{\text{final}} = -1 \text{ cm}$

Change in displacement $\Delta s = (-1 \text{ cm}) - 3 \text{ cm} = -4 \text{ cm}$

Distance moved $= 3 \text{ cm} + 7 \text{ cm} = 10 \text{ cm}$

2 Units of Distance

Distances can be measured in different units. To convert from one unit to another, you multiply or divide by a conversion factor.

Example 1 – There are 1.61 km in one mile. What is 5 miles in km?

$$1.61 \text{ km} = 1.00 \text{ miles}$$

multiply by 5 on each side

$$5 \times 1.61 \text{ km} = 5.00 \text{ miles}$$

$$5 \text{ miles} = 5 \times 1.61 \text{ km} = 8.05 \text{ km}$$

Example 2 – There are 1.61 km in one mile. What is 45 km in miles?

$$1.61 \text{ km} = 1.00 \text{ miles}$$

divide by 1.61 on each side

$$1.00 \text{ km} = \frac{1.00 \text{ miles}}{1.61}$$

multiply by 45 on each side

$$45 \text{ km} = \frac{1.00 \text{ miles}}{1.61} \times 45 = 28.0 \text{ miles}$$

The final line could be written

$$45.00 \text{ km} = \frac{1.00 \text{ miles}}{1.61 \text{ km}} \times 45 \text{ km}$$

The km units ‘cancel out’ on the right. If we wanted to convert miles to kilometres, we would multiply by $\frac{1.61 \text{ km}}{1.00 \text{ miles}}$.

Example 3 – Convert 14 miles into nautical miles?

$$14 \text{ miles} = 14 \text{ miles} \times \frac{1.61 \text{ km}}{1.00 \text{ miles}} = 22.5 \text{ km}$$

$$22.5 \text{ km} = 22.5 \text{ km} \times \frac{1.00 \text{ nautical miles}}{1.85 \text{ km}} = 12.2 \text{ nautical miles}$$

This could be done in one stage (NM means nautical miles):

$$14 \text{ miles} \times \frac{1.61 \text{ km}}{1.00 \text{ miles}} \times \frac{1.00 \text{ NM}}{1.85 \text{ km}} = 12.2 \text{ NM}$$

Remember: 1 mm = 0.001 m, 1 cm = 0.01 m, 1 km = 1000 m

3 Displacement – time graphs

On a _____ graph, we show where something is at different times.

The _____ s is plotted on the y or _____ ↑ axis.

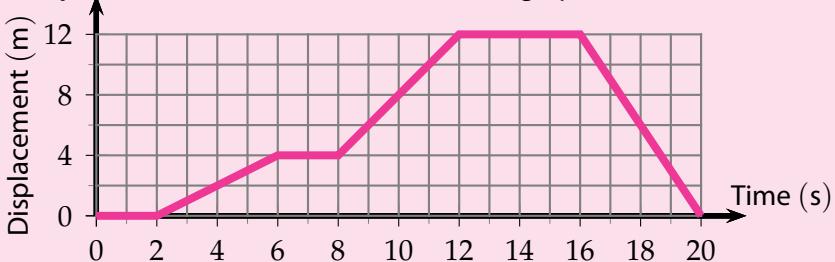
The _____ t is plotted on the x or _____ → axis.

_____ represent motion at a _____ (constant) _____.

Straight, _____ lines represent times when the object is _____.

The steeper the line, the faster the object.

Example – Describe the motion shown in this graph



The object remains _____ at $s = 0$ m for the first two seconds

The object starts moving at $t = 2$ s at a steady speed.

It reaches $s = 4$ m when $t = 6$ s.

It remains stationary for two more seconds (until $t = 8$ s).

It then starts moving at a _____.

It reaches $s = 12$ m four seconds later, at $t = 12$ s.

It stays there for 4 s, then _____ to its starting point at $t = 20$ s.

In this next graph, the displacement s measures how far a lift (elevator) is above the ground floor of a building. The floors are 4 m apart.



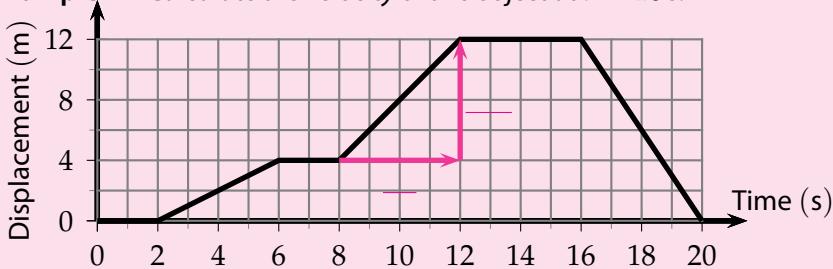
4 Velocity

The change in displacement Δs each second is called the _____ v . You can read off the Δs for one second on a straight part of a displacement – time graph.

You can also calculate the velocity by dividing the displacement change Δs by the time taken Δt . This gives the _____ each _____.

$$\text{velocity (m/s)} = \frac{\text{displacement change (m)}}{\text{time taken (s)}}, \text{ or } v = \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t}$$

Example 1 – Calculate the velocity of this object at $t = 10\text{ s}$.



10 s is part of a straight line between $t = 8\text{ s}$ and $t = 12\text{ s}$.

The time taken _____.

The displacement change _____.

$$\text{Velocity } v = \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t} = \frac{+8\text{ m}}{4\text{ s}} = +2\text{ m/s.}$$

The velocity is given by the _____ of the line on the displacement – time graph. Gradient is the change in the vertical \uparrow co-ordinate _____ the change in the horizontal \rightarrow co-ordinate _____.

In our questions, the direction of a velocity is given by its sign:

- + means 'moving forwards' or 'moving upwards'
- means 'moving backwards' or 'moving downwards'

The _____ is the magnitude (size) of the velocity (without its direction). If $v = -3 \text{ m/s}$, it means _____.
The speed is just _____ (without the – sign).

$$\text{average speed} = \frac{\text{total distance travelled}}{\text{total time taken}}$$

Example 2 – Calculate the average speed in the graph above.

Total distance = $12 \text{ m} + 12 \text{ m}$ (there and back) = 24 m

Total time = 20 s , so Average speed = $\frac{24 \text{ m}}{20 \text{ s}} = 1.2 \text{ m/s}$.

5 Re-arranging equations

Many equations in Physics involve three quantities. On these pages, we practise re-arranging equations so that we can calculate what we need.

Let's use the equation $A = b \times c$, usually written $A = bc$

If $b = 2$ and $c = 5$, then $A = b \times c = 2 \times 5 = 10$.

We can get $c = 5$ from $5 = \frac{10}{2}$ so $c = \frac{A}{b}$.

We can get $b = 2$ from $2 = \frac{10}{5}$ so $b = \frac{A}{c}$.

We can also use algebra:

$$\text{If } b = \frac{A}{c} \quad \curvearrowright \quad bc = \frac{A \cancel{c}}{\cancel{c}} \quad \text{then} \quad bc = A$$

and

$$\text{If } bc = A \quad \curvearrowright \quad \frac{bc}{\cancel{b}} = \frac{A}{\cancel{b}} \quad \text{then} \quad c = \frac{A}{b}$$

Re-arrangement causes the quantities to cross the $=$ sign on a diagonal:

$$\underline{b} = \frac{A}{c} \quad bc = A \quad \underline{bc} = A \quad c = \frac{A}{b}$$

Example 1 – If $B = fg$, write an equation for g .

Dividing both sides by f gives $\frac{B}{f} = \frac{fg}{f} = g$, so $g = \frac{B}{f}$

Example 2 – If $y = kx$ and $y = 0.25$ when $x = 0.4$, calculate k .

Rearrange $y = kx$ by dividing both sides by x : $\frac{y}{x} = k$

$$\text{So } k = \frac{y}{x} = \frac{0.25}{0.4} = 0.625$$

Example 3 – If $y = kx$, and $y = 90$ when $x = 6$, calculate y when $x = 4$.

Assume k does not change. Divide both sides by x to get $\frac{y}{x} = k$

so $k = \frac{90}{6} = 15$. Now use the new x : $y = kx = 15 \times 4 = 60$.

Example 4 - If $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$ and $a = 2$, $b = 6$ and $c = 12$, calculate d .

Multiply both sides by bd giving $ad = bc$. Now divide by a , so $d = \frac{bc}{a}$

Now put in the data to give $d = \frac{6 \times 12}{2} = 36$

6 Calculating velocities

On page 7, we introduced the formula for _____. This is the _____

$$\text{velocity (m/s)} = \frac{\text{displacement change (m)}}{\text{time taken (s)}}, \text{ or } v = \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t}$$

Since the velocity is the displacement change _____, you can calculate the displacement change _____:

$$\text{displacement change (m)} = \text{velocity (m/s)} \times \text{time taken (s)}, \text{ or } \Delta s = v \Delta t$$

The time taken can also be worked out. To do this, you divide the _____ by the _____. This is the same as dividing by the _____. So

$$\text{time taken (s)} = \frac{\text{displacement change (m)}}{\text{velocity (m/s)}}, \text{ or } \Delta t = \frac{\Delta s}{v}$$

Now, we put these three equations next to each other:

$$v = \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t} \quad \Delta s = v \Delta t \quad \Delta t = \frac{\Delta s}{v}$$

This is the same equation written three ways, each with a different subject.

Example 1 – How long does it take an object at +4 m/s to move +20 m?

We want to know t , so take $\Delta s = v \Delta t$ and divide both sides by v to give

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta s}{v} = \frac{+20 \text{ m}}{+4 \text{ m/s}} = 5 \text{ s}$$

Units: $1 \text{ km} = 1000 \text{ m}$ $1 \text{ cm} = 0.01 \text{ m}$ $1 \text{ mm} = 0.001 \text{ m}$
 $1 \text{ mile} = 1610 \text{ m}$ $1 \text{ nautical mile} = 1850 \text{ m}$ $1 \text{ inch} = 0.025 \text{ m}$

Example 2 – How far (in km) will a train travel in 45 min at 230 mph?

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta s &= v \Delta t = \frac{230 \text{ miles}}{1 \text{ hr}} \times 45 \text{ min} = \frac{230 \times 1610 \text{ m}}{1 \times 60 \text{ min}} \times 45 \text{ min} \\ &= \frac{230 \times 1610 \text{ m} \times 45 \text{ min}}{60 \text{ min}} = 280 000 \text{ m} = 280 \text{ km} \end{aligned}$$

7 Velocity – time graphs

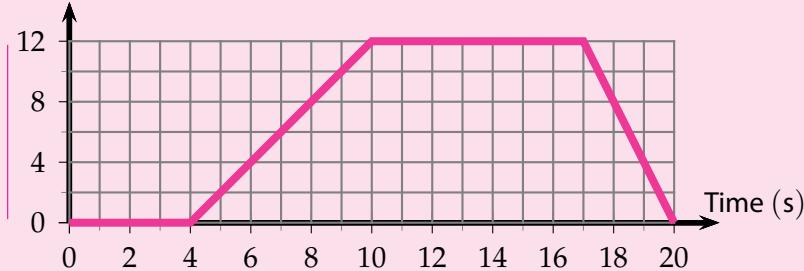
It can be helpful to show an object's velocity at different times.

The _____ v is plotted on the y or _____ ↑ axis.

The _____ t is plotted on the x or _____ → axis.

_____ represent motion at a _____.
Horizontal lines _____ represent an object _____.

Example – Describe the motion shown in this graph



The object is _____ ($v = 0 \text{ m/s}$) for the first four seconds

At $t = 4 \text{ s}$ the object begins to speed up. It _____.

It reaches a velocity of $v = 12 \text{ m/s}$ when $t = 10 \text{ s}$.

It keeps going at that speed for 7 s

During this time, it travels _____.

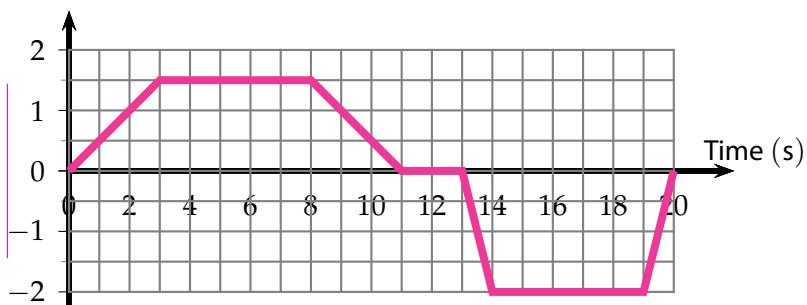
At $t = 17 \text{ s}$, it _____. It _____.

It comes to rest at $t = 20 \text{ s}$.

The _____ the line, the _____ the acceleration or deceleration.

A straight (not horizontal) line represents a _____. The change in velocity is the same each second.

This graph shows the velocity of a hoist used to lift building materials on a construction site. _____ values of v are used when the hoist is _____.



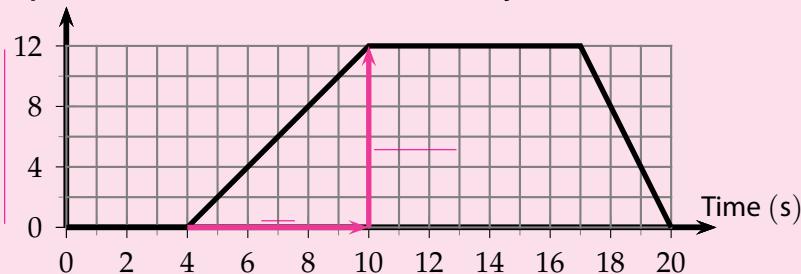
8 Acceleration

The change in velocity Δv each second is called the _____ a . You can read off the Δv for one second on a straight part of a velocity – time graph.

You can also calculate the acceleration by dividing the velocity change Δv by the time taken Δt . This gives the _____ each _____.

$$\text{acceleration } (\text{m/s}^2) = \frac{\text{velocity change } (\text{m/s})}{\text{time taken } (\text{s})}, \text{ or } a = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t}$$

Example – Calculate the acceleration of this object at $t = 6 \text{ s}$.



6 s is part of a steady acceleration between $t = 4 \text{ s}$ and $t = 10 \text{ s}$.

The time taken for this acceleration _____.

In this time, the velocity change _____.

$$\text{Acceleration } a = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = \frac{+12 \text{ m/s}}{6 \text{ s}} = +2 \text{ m/s}^2.$$

The acceleration is given by the _____ of the line on the velocity time graph. Gradient is the change in the vertical \uparrow co-ordinate _____ the change in the horizontal \rightarrow co-ordinate. In our questions, the direction of a velocity is given by its sign:

- + means v is getting _____
- means v is getting _____

An acceleration of -3 m/s^2 could refer to an object _____ while going _____. It could also describe an object _____ while _____.

9 Calculating accelerations

On page 14, we introduced the formula for _____ . This is the _____

$$\text{acceleration } (\text{m/s}^2) = \frac{\text{velocity change } (\text{m/s})}{\text{time taken } (\text{s})}, \text{ or } a = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t}$$

As the acceleration is the velocity change _____ , you can work out the velocity change:

$$\text{velocity change } (\text{m/s}) = \text{acceleration } (\text{m/s}^2) \times \text{time } (\text{s}), \text{ or } \Delta v = a \Delta t$$

The time taken can also be calculated. To do this, you divide the _____ by the _____ . This is the same as dividing by the _____ .

So $\text{time } (\text{s}) = \frac{\text{velocity change } (\text{m/s})}{\text{acceleration } (\text{m/s}^2)}, \text{ or } \Delta t = \frac{\Delta v}{a}$

Now, we put these three equations next to each other:

$$a = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} \quad \Delta v = a \Delta t \quad \Delta t = \frac{\Delta v}{a}$$

This is the same equation written three ways, each with a different subject.

Example 1 – An object's velocity is +10 m/s. How much time does it take to reach +30 m/s with an acceleration of $a = +5 \text{ m/s}^2$?

The change in velocity needed is $\Delta v = 30 - 10 = 20 \text{ m/s}$

We want to know t , so take $\Delta v = a \Delta t$ and divide both sides by a to give

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta v}{a} = \frac{+20 \text{ m/s}}{+5 \text{ m/s}^2} = 4 \text{ s}$$

Example 2 – A motorcycle can accelerate from rest to 60 mph in 3.4 s. Calculate its acceleration in m/s^2 . 1 mile = 1610 m.

$$\Delta v = 60 \text{ mph} = \frac{60 \text{ miles}}{1 \text{ h}} = \frac{60 \times 1610 \text{ m}}{60 \times 60 \text{ s}} = 26.8 \text{ m/s}$$

$$a = \frac{\Delta v}{t} = \frac{26.8 \text{ m/s}}{3.4 \text{ s}} = 7.9 \text{ m/s}^2$$

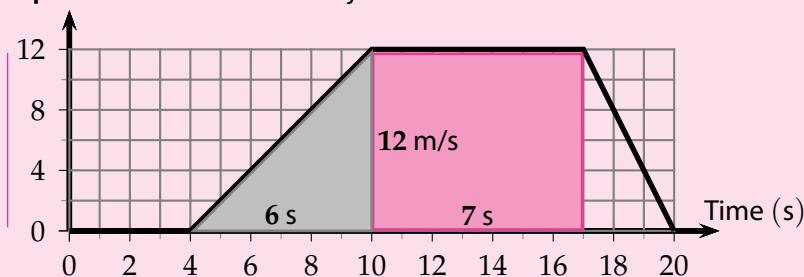
10 Displacement from a velocity – time graph

Velocity is the displacement change _____. This means that you can work out the displacement change from the velocity:

$$\text{Displacement change (m)} = \text{Velocity (m/s)} \times \text{Time taken (s)}, \text{ or } \Delta s = v \Delta t$$

This works in any part of the graph where the velocity is constant.

Example 1 – How far does the object move between $t = 10\text{ s}$ and 17 s ?



Between these times, the velocity is constant: $v = +12\text{ m/s}$.

$$\text{Displacement change } \Delta s = v \Delta t = +12\text{ m/s} \times 7\text{ s} = +84\text{ m.}$$

This displacement change is also equal to the area of the coloured rectangle.

So the _____ = _____ under a _____.

Next we look at a part of the graph when the velocity is changing:

Example 2 – How far does the object move between $t = 4\text{ s}$ and 10 s ?

Method 1 – Area under the line is area of the gray triangle

$$\text{Area of triangle} = \frac{1}{2} \times \text{base} \times \text{height} = \frac{1}{2} \times \text{_____ s} \times (\text{_____ m/s}) = \text{_____ m}$$

Method 2 – Velocity changes _____ from _____ to _____

$$\text{so average velocity} = \frac{\text{_____}}{2} = \text{_____ m/s}$$

$$\text{Displacement change} = \text{Average velocity} \times \text{Time}$$

$$= \text{_____ m/s} \times \text{_____ s} = \text{_____ m}$$

11 Weight and resultant force

W is the force of _____. It is measured in newtons (N).

m is the quantity of material. Mass is measured in kilograms (kg).

The weight of an object depends on its _____. It also depends on the strength of the local _____.

Gravitational field strength g measures the weight of a _____ at that place.

Weight and mass are related to the field strength by this equation:

$$\text{weight(N)} = \text{mass(kg)} \times \text{field strength (N/kg)}, \text{ or } W = mg$$

This equation can be re-written as shown on page 9 as

$$g = \frac{W}{m}$$

$$W = mg$$

$$m = \frac{W}{g}$$

Example 1 – Calculate the weight of a small (100 g) apple on Earth, where $g = 10 \text{ N/kg}$. Also calculate the weight on Mars, where $g = 3.7 \text{ N/kg}$.

There are 1000 g in 1 kg, so $m = 0.1 \text{ kg}$. Masses must be given in _____.

On Earth, $W = mg = 0.1 \text{ kg} \times 10 \text{ N/kg} = 1.0 \text{ N}$

On Mars, $W = mg = 0.1 \text{ kg} \times 3.7 \text{ N/kg} = 0.37 \text{ N}$

Isn't it wonderful that the weight of a small apple is ≈ 1 newton!

If there is more than one force, we calculate the _____. This is the single force which would do the same job.



The resultant force is to the _____ as $3 > 1$ N.

The 1 N to the left cancels out 1 N of the 3 N pulling right.

This leaves a resultant force of $3 - 1 = 2$ N to the right.

Or we can use + to mean →. Then – means ←.

The forces are -1 N and $+3 \text{ N}$. These add to $+2 \text{ N}$.



Example 2 – On Earth, a large (200 g) apple is underwater. It has an upwards 2.5 N force on it. Calculate the resultant force.

Weight $W = mg = 0.2 \text{ kg} \times 10 \text{ N/kg} = 2.0 \text{ N}$

Weight is -2.0 N if we use $+$ for \uparrow and $-$ for \downarrow

Upwards force is $+2.5 \text{ N}$

Resultant (total) force $= (-2.0) + (+2.5) = +0.5 \text{ N}$

That is 0.5 N _____.

12 Force and acceleration

 (balanced forces) } means that { and } don't change.

Example – A bus travels North on a flat road at 30 mph. Its engine provides 2 kN forwards. How much force (backwards) resists motion?

The bus is at a _____ and not _____. So

- the _____ is constant,
- there is _____ resultant force, and
- the resistance must balance the engine's thrust. Force = 2 kN.

 (unbalanced forces) } means that { , or will change.
the object will _____.

Let's find out which box has the larger acceleration.

$6 \text{ N} \leftarrow \overset{\text{2 kg}}{\circlearrowright} \rightarrow 10 \text{ N}$ <p>Resultant force = $10 - 6 = 4 \text{ N}$</p> $\frac{4 \text{ N}}{2 \text{ kg}} = 2 \text{ N on each kilogram}$	$350 \text{ N} \leftarrow \overset{\text{100 kg}}{\square} \rightarrow 400 \text{ N}$ <p>Resultant force = $400 - 350 = 50 \text{ N}$</p> $\frac{50 \text{ N}}{100 \text{ kg}} = 0.5 \text{ N on each kilogram}$
---	---

The 2 kg object will accelerate more rapidly.

When we measure force in newtons, the acceleration equals the resultant force on each kilogram. We have an equation:

$$\text{acceleration (m/s}^2\text{)} = \frac{\text{resultant force (N)}}{\text{mass (kg)}}, \text{ or } a = \frac{F}{m}$$

The objects in the example have accelerations of 2 m/s^2 and 0.5 m/s^2 .

The equation can be re-written as shown on page 9 as

$$a = \frac{F}{m} \qquad F = m a \qquad m = \frac{F}{a}$$

Resultant force is _____ in the direction of motion

If resultant force is { in the direction of motion, object _____.
against the motion, object _____.
to the side, object ____ (changes ____).

13 Momentum

Momentum p measures your ‘amount of motion’.

- A car travelling at 30 mph has less ‘motion’ than at 50 mph.
- A 700 kg car has less ‘motion’ than a 12 400 kg bus at the same speed.

We take mass m and velocity v into account:

$$\text{momentum (kg m/s)} = \text{mass (kg)} \times \text{velocity (m/s)}, \text{ or } p = mv$$

In our questions, the direction of a velocity or momentum is given by its sign:

- + means ‘moving to the East’ or ‘moving upwards’
- means ‘moving to the West’ or ‘moving downwards’

Example 1 – Calculate the momentum of a 750 kg car travelling at 15 m/s to the West.

$$\text{Velocity} = -15 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\text{Momentum} = \text{mass} \times \text{velocity} = 750 \text{ kg} \times (-15 \text{ m/s}) = -11250 \text{ kg m/s}$$

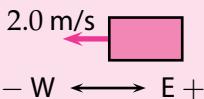
Example 2 – Calculate the velocity of a 90 kg pumpkin if it has a momentum of 1080 kg m/s upwards.

$$\text{Momentum} = +1080 \text{ kg m/s} = \text{mass} \times \text{velocity}$$

$$\text{therefore } 1080 \text{ kg m/s} = 90 \text{ kg} \times \text{velocity}$$

$$\text{so velocity} = \frac{1080 \text{ kg m/s}}{90 \text{ kg}} = +12 \text{ m/s, that is 12 m/s upwards.}$$

Example 3 – A 0.84 kg motion trolley’s velocity changes from 2.0 m/s West to 5.0 m/s East? What is the change of momentum?



Start: With the - sign, we write $v = -2.0 \text{ m/s}$
 $p = 0.84 \text{ kg} \times (-2.0 \text{ m/s}) = -1.68 \text{ kg m/s}$



End: With the + sign, we write $v = +5.0 \text{ m/s}$
 $p = 0.84 \text{ kg} \times (+5.0 \text{ m/s}) = +4.20 \text{ kg m/s}$

$$\text{Change in momentum} = 4.20 - (-1.68) = +5.88 \text{ kg m/s}$$

$$\text{Change in momentum} = 5.88 \text{ kg m/s East}$$

In the next two questions, use + to mean ‘upwards’, and – for ‘downwards’.

14 Momentum, impulse and force

To give an object 4000 kg m/s of momentum, you could

- apply a 4000 N force for 1 second,
- apply a 2000 N force for 2 seconds, or
- apply a 1000 N force for 4 seconds.

If we measure force in newtons,

$$\text{resultant force} \times \text{time} = \text{change of momentum}, \text{ or } Ft = \Delta p$$

The quantity _____ is called the _____.

Example – A 65 kg cyclist on a 15 kg bike is travelling at 5 m/s. She applies a 100 N resultant force for 8 s. How fast is she going now?

$$\text{Impulse} = 100 \text{ N} \times 8 \text{ s} = 800 \text{ N s}, \text{ which is the same as } 800 \text{ kg m/s}$$

$$\text{Original momentum} = (65 + 15) \text{ kg} \times 5 \text{ m/s} = 400 \text{ kg m/s}$$

$$\text{New momentum} = 400 \text{ kg m/s} + 800 \text{ N s} = 1200 \text{ kg m/s}$$

$$\text{New velocity} = \frac{p}{m} = \frac{1200 \text{ kg m/s}}{80 \text{ kg}} = 15 \text{ m/s}$$

15 Force and acceleration from momentum

(balanced forces) } means that doesn't change.

Example 1 – A bus travels North on a flat road at 30 mph with its engine providing 2 kN forwards. What is the (backwards) force resisting motion?

The bus is at a **station** and not **on the road**, so

- the power is constant, so there is constant speed, so
 - resistance must balance the engine's thrust. Force = 2 kN.

If there is a **conservative force**, then the momentum **is conserved**.

resultant force = momentum change each second

Example 2 – Calculate the acceleration of this object.



The resultant force is $10 - 6 = 4 \text{ N}$

In 1 s the momentum gain is force \times time = 4 N \times 1 s = 4 kg m/s.

$$\text{Velocity gain} = \text{momentum gain} \div \text{mass} = 4 \text{ kg m/s} \div 2 \text{ kg} = 2 \text{ m/s.}$$

A gain of 2 m/s each second is an acceleration of 2 m/s^2 .

force = momentum change each second
 = mass \times velocity change each second
 = mass \times acceleration, or $F = ma$

Resultant force is $\begin{cases} \text{in the direction of motion, object } \\ \text{against the motion, object } \\ \text{to the side, object } \end{cases}$ (changes $\begin{cases} \text{direction of motion, object } \\ \text{against the motion, object } \\ \text{to the side, object } \end{cases}$).

Force and motion summary questions are on page 58.

Electricity

16 Energy, charge and potential

_____ Q travels around an electric circuit. It is measured in coulombs (C). Charge is given the symbol Q to represent the _____ of electrical ‘material’.

The energy of each coulomb of charge is called the _____ or _____. The potential change across a component is called a _____ (p.d.).

Energy E is measured in joules (J), Potential V is measured in volts (V):

$$\text{energy (J)} = \text{charge (C)} \times \text{potential (V)}, \text{or } E = QV$$

The potential, which measures electrically-stored energy,

- _____ when charge passes a _____
- _____ when charge passes a _____

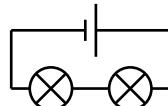
Example – A 230 V lamp takes 13.8 J of electrical energy. How much charge has passed?

The potential difference (p.d.) is 230 V. We have lost 13.8 J of energy.

Energy change = charge \times p.d., so $13.8 \text{ J} = \text{charge} \times 230 \text{ V}$

$$\text{Charge} = \frac{13.8 \text{ J}}{230 \text{ V}} = 0.060 \text{ C.}$$

In a _____ circuit, there are no _____. Each charge passes through all of the components (one after another). It loses some of its energy to each component.



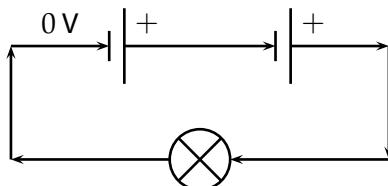
In a _____ circuit, the energy carried by each charge does not change as it

passes a junction. Not all charge takes the same route.

17 Potential in circuits

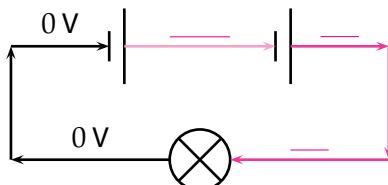
We use the idea of (of charge) to analyse circuits.

We label the negative terminal of the battery 0 V. Next, we draw arrows to show the direction of charge flow. This is round the circuit from the + of the battery.



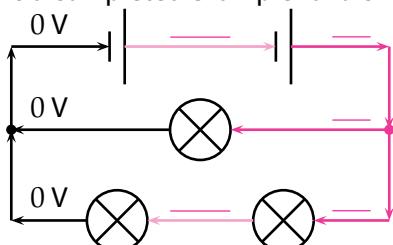
We follow the arrows, starting at the 0 V mark. Each cell +1.5 V. We label each wire with its potential. We use a colour code, here black means 0 V.

All points on a wire have the same potential. This is because charge loses very little energy while flowing down a wire.



The bulb connects a 3 V wire to a 0 V wire. The drop in potential as the charge goes through it is 3 V. For this lamp, 1.5 V means 'normal' brightness, so the lamp will be dimmer than normal.

Here is a completed example for a circuit with junctions:



Top bulb:
potential drop 3 V, bright.

Lower bulbs:
potential drop 1.5 V, normal.

We assume that the bulbs are identical. Therefore the wire in the middle at the bottom was _____ between 0 V and 3 V.

18 Charge and current

_____ Q travels around an electric circuit. It is measured in coulombs (C). Charge is given the symbol Q to represent the _____ of electrical ‘material’.

On page 1 s represented the displacement or position of an object. We used Δs for the _____ of the object’s position during a time period Δt . Here, in a similar way

Q is the _____ which has flown by time t ,
 ΔQ (delta Q) is the charge which flows during a _____ Δt .

_____ I is the charge which flows each second. It is measured in amps (A). Current is given the symbol I to represent the _____ of the charge flow.

$$\text{current (A)} = \frac{\text{charge flow (C)}}{\text{time taken (s)}}, \text{ or } I = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t}$$

This equation can be re-arranged using the methods on page 9 to give

$$I = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} \quad \Delta Q = I \Delta t \quad \Delta t = \frac{\Delta Q}{I}$$

Example – If 0.25 A flows for three minutes, calculate the charge.

The time must be put in seconds: $\Delta t = 3 \text{ min} = 3 \times 60 \text{ s} = 180 \text{ s}$

We use equation $\Delta Q = I \Delta t = 0.25 \text{ A} \times 180 \text{ s} = 45 \text{ C}$.

Battery or cell ‘capacity’ is usually measured in amp-hours (A h) or milliamp-hours (mA h). A 1000 mA h cell can supply 1000 mA for one hour, 500 mA for two hours, and so on. Capacity (A h) = Current (A) × Time (hours).

19 Large and small numbers

Negatively charged particles called _____ move in an electric circuit. Each one has a very small charge: $-0.000\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 16\ C$. In this section, we practise ways of working with large and small numbers. We begin with the use of prefixes like 'kilo' (k) in kilometre which tells us that $1\ km = 1000\ m$.

$$\begin{aligned}1000\ 000\ 000\ C &= 1\ GC = 1\ \text{gigacoulomb} = 10^9\ C \\1000\ 000\ C &= 1\ MC = 1\ \text{megacoulomb} = 10^6\ C \\1000\ C &= 1\ kC = 1\ \text{kilocoulomb} = 10^3\ C \\0.01\ C &= 1\ cC = 1\ \text{centicoulomb} = 10^{-2}\ C \\0.001\ C &= 1\ mC = 1\ \text{millicoulomb} = 10^{-3}\ C \\0.000\ 001\ C &= 1\ \mu C = 1\ \text{microcoulomb} = 10^{-6}\ C \\0.000\ 000\ 001\ C &= 1\ nC = 1\ \text{nanocoulomb} = 10^{-9}\ C\end{aligned}$$

Example 1 – Write $0.000\ 03\ C$ with the most suitable prefix.

$0.000\ 001\ C$ would be $1\ \mu C$, and our charge is 30 times larger, so we have $30\ \mu C$ ($0.03\ mC$ is equivalent but has leading zeroes).

For larger and smaller numbers, we usually use powers of ten.

Numbers larger than 1:

$$\begin{aligned}10^1 &= 10 \\10^2 &= 100 \\10^3 &= 1000\end{aligned}$$

Numbers smaller than 1:

$$\begin{aligned}10^{-1} &= 0.1 \\10^{-2} &= 0.01 \\10^{-3} &= 0.001\end{aligned}$$

When you ____ 1 to the power, the number gets _____.

When you _____ 1 from the power, the number gets _____.

Example 2 – Write $33\ 000\ 000\ C$ using a power of ten.

$$\begin{aligned}33\ 000\ 000 &= 3.3 \times 10\ 000\ 000 = 3.3 \times 10^7, \\ \text{so } 33\ 000\ 000\ C &= 3.3 \times 10^7\ C\end{aligned}$$

When using _____ we always make sure that the number multiplying the power of ten (3.3 in Example 2) is no smaller than 1, and is less than 10.

Example 3 – How many electrons are there if the total charge is -1 nC

$$\text{Total charge} = -10^{-9}\text{ C}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Number of electrons} &= \frac{\text{Total charge}}{\text{Charge of one electron}} = \frac{-1 \times 10^{-9}\text{ C}}{-1.6 \times 10^{-19}\text{ C}} \\ &= 6.25 \times 10^9\end{aligned}$$

As the electrons are negatively charged, they move around the circuit from the $-$ terminal of the cell to the $+$ terminal.

20 Current in circuits

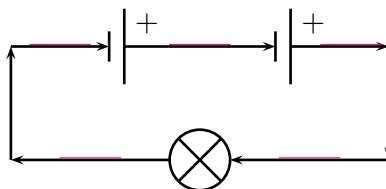
We look at the way in which _____ behaves in electric circuits.

Current is the movement of positive or negative charges. We draw arrows to show the direction any _____ charge would move.

+ charge will be _____ or _____ by the + terminal of the battery. It will be _____ or _____ the – terminal of the battery.

In a circuit, we draw arrows to show this direction from + to –. Inside the battery, _____ forces pull the charge the other way from – to + to complete the circuit.

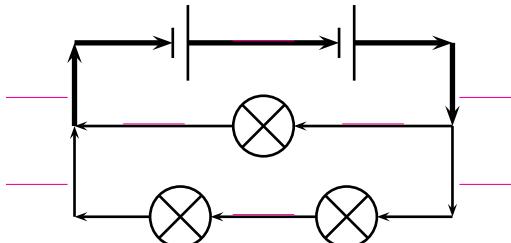
The first rule of charge and current is that _____ up.



In one second, 0.3 C goes into the light bulb from the + of the battery. 0.3 C also comes out the other end to go to the – (at a lower voltage).

The _____ going in is _____, and the current coming out is _____.

A _____ circuit has _____. The _____ current _____ any junction is the same as the _____ current _____ it.



At junction, current flowing in = 0.5 A, current flowing out = $0.3\text{ A} + 0.2\text{ A} = 0.5\text{ A}$

In this example the two branches are different. This is why the current reaching the junction does not split equally.

21 Resistance

The larger the _____ a component, the greater the _____ it. Components which are bad at conducting have a high _____. They need a larger potential difference across them to push a set current than a good conductor would.

Resistance R is measured in _____ (Ω).

$$\text{resistance } (\Omega) = \frac{\text{potential difference } (V)}{\text{current } (A)}, \text{ or } R = \frac{V}{I}$$

This equation can be re-arranged using the methods on page 9 to give

$$R = \frac{V}{I}$$

$$V = IR$$

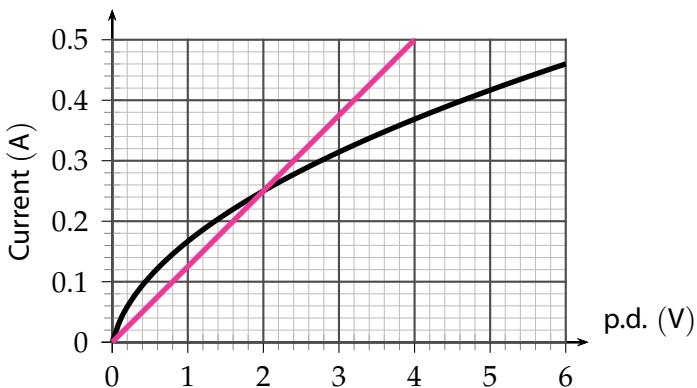
$$I = \frac{V}{R}$$

Example – A light bulb with a resistance of $960\ \Omega$ is connected to a $240\ V$ supply. Calculate the current.

We re-arrange $V = IR$ by dividing both sides by R to give

$$I = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{240\ V}{960\ \Omega} = 0.25\ A.$$

The resistance of most components depends on the current passing through them. However _____ and _____ held at a steady _____ have the same resistance at all useful currents. We say these obey _____, and call them _____ conductors. The graph shows the current through a lamp (black line) and resistor (_____) for different potential differences. Use this for questions ?? to ??.



22 Electrical Power

On page 23 we saw that energy $E = VQ$ is related to the potential difference (p.d.) V and total charge Q . For an extra charge ΔQ , which flows in time Δt the extra energy ΔE will be

$$\text{extra energy (J)} = \text{p.d. (V)} \times \text{extra charge (C)}, \text{ or } \Delta E = V \Delta Q$$

The energy used each second is called the _____ P and is measured in watts (W). For electricity, this means

$$\text{power} = \frac{\text{energy}}{\text{time taken}} = \text{p.d.} \times \frac{\text{extra charge}}{\text{time taken}} \quad P = \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t} = V \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t}$$

$$\text{power} = \text{p.d.} \times \text{current} \quad P = VI$$

where we used the fact that _____ from page 26. This equation can be re-arranged using the methods on page 9 to give

$$V = \frac{P}{I} \quad P = VI \quad I = \frac{P}{V}$$

Example – Calculate the current needed by a 2.4 V, 0.84 W light bulb.

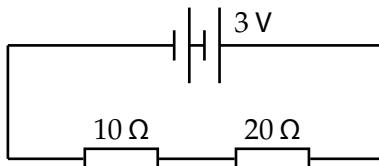
We re-arrange $P = VI$ by dividing both sides by V to give

$$I = \frac{P}{V} = \frac{0.84 \text{ W}}{2.4 \text{ V}} = 0.35 \text{ A.}$$

23 Sharing potential

On page 24 we saw that when a 3 V battery was connected to two bulbs in series, the _____ was _____ between them. The bulbs were identical, so the p.d. was shared _____. The p.d. across each was 1.5 V.

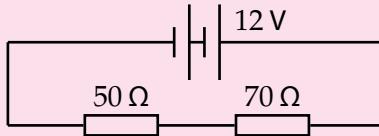
How is p.d. shared between components in series if they are different?



We work it out like this:

- the total resistance is $10\Omega + 20\Omega = 30\Omega$
- the 10Ω resistor has _____ of the total resistance
- so it takes _____ of the battery p.d. $\frac{1}{3} \times 3\text{ V} = 1\text{ V}$
- the 20Ω resistor has _____ of the total resistance
- so it takes _____ of the battery p.d. $\frac{2}{3} \times 3\text{ V} = 2\text{ V}$

Example – Calculate the p.d. across the 50Ω resistor.

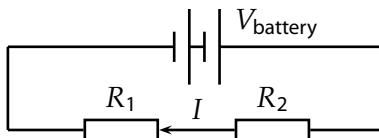


$$\text{Total resistance} = 50\Omega + 70\Omega = 120\Omega$$

The 50Ω resistor has a fraction $\frac{50\Omega}{120\Omega}$ of the total resistance.

$$\text{Its p.d.} = \frac{50\Omega}{120\Omega} \times 12\text{ V} = 5\text{ V}$$

We now explain the rule using the circuit below, where a current I flows through two resistors R_1 and R_2 in series.



The potential dropped across R_1 is given by _____ (see page 30)

The potential dropped across R_2 is given by _____

The battery p.d. $V_{\text{battery}} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} = IR_1 + IR_2 = I(R_1 + R_2)$.

So

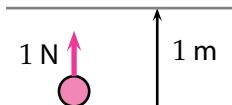
$$V_1 = I \times R_1 = \frac{V_{\text{battery}}}{R_1 + R_2} \times R_1 = \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2} \times V_{\text{battery}}$$

Electricity summary questions are on page 59.

Energy and Balance

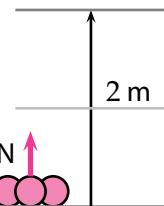
24 Work

In this section, we explore the link between energy and force. A _____ can cause stored _____ to be moved to another store. Energy E is measured in _____ (J).



A small apple weighs 1 N. We lift it 1 m.
This needs _____ of energy.

Three small apples weigh 3 N.
Lifting them 1 m would need _____ of energy.
Lifting them 2 m, requires _____ of energy.



The _____ an object in this way is called the _____:
 $\text{work (J)} = \text{force applied (N)} \times \text{displacement change (m)}$, $\Delta E = F \Delta s$

The equation can be re-arranged (see page 9) to give

$$F = \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta s}$$

$$\Delta E = F \Delta s$$

$$\Delta s = \frac{\Delta E}{F}$$

Example 1 – Calculate the energy given to a cart by its engine, which pulls it 25 m East with a force of 35 N in that direction.

If we use + to mean 'East' then $F = +35 \text{ N}$, and $\Delta s = +25 \text{ m}$, so
 $\Delta E = F \Delta s = 35 \text{ N} \times 25 \text{ m} = +875 \text{ J}$ so 875 J is given to the cart.

The displacement change Δs and force F have directions shown by + or -. If the force applied and the displacement are in opposite directions, Δs and F will have _____ signs, so ΔE will be _____. Energy will be _____ the object's stores. We say, work is done _____ it.

Example 2 – Calculate the work done by a cycle which stops in 8.0 m thanks to 180 N from its brakes.

Use + to mean 'forwards'. Then $\Delta s = +8.0 \text{ m}$.

The force is in the other direction, so $F = -180 \text{ N}$

$$\Delta E = F \Delta s = -180 \text{ N} \times 8.0 \text{ m} = -1440 \text{ J. } 1440 \text{ J of work is done by it.}$$

Forces at _____ to motion do _____. Example: you don't need engines and fuel to _____ a car or truck. This fact becomes important when you solve problems in two dimensions.

25 Gravitational potential energy

When you lift an object, the force you apply (\uparrow) is in the direction of motion (\uparrow). _____ on it, giving it energy. This _____ its store of _____ (GPE).

Example – Calculate the increased store of GPE when you lift an 8.6 kg bucket of water 3.5 m up a ladder.

Minimum force needed to lift the bucket = weight

Weight = mass $\times g$ = 8.6 kg \times 10 N/kg = 86 N (see page 17)

Work = force applied \times displacement change = 86 N \times 3.5 m = 301 J

Gain in GPE = 301 J.

This is positive, as the displacement change is in the direction of the applied force (upwards). Usually, we write _____ to make it clear that we measure displacements upwards when calculating GPE.

We can also write

$$\begin{aligned}\text{change in GPE} &= \text{weight} \times \text{height change} \\ &= \text{mass} \times g \times \text{height change}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta E &= W \Delta h \\ &= mg \Delta h\end{aligned}$$

When you lower an object, you still have to support it. The force you apply (\uparrow) is opposite to the direction of motion (\downarrow). The object is now _____, giving you its energy. This _____ its store of gravitational energy.

If an object _____, you are not applying any force to it. Its own weight acts in the direction of motion, increasing its store of motion (_____) energy; at a cost of reducing its gravitational potential energy.

26 Power

Power P is the _____ (or energy transferred) _____. Power is measured in _____ (W).

$$\text{power} = \frac{\text{work done}}{\text{time taken}}, \text{ or } P = \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t}$$

Using the methods on page 9, this equation can be written

$$P = \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t}$$

$$\Delta E = P \Delta t$$

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta E}{P}$$

Example – Calculate the power needed to do 1200 J of work in four minutes.

We re-arrange $\Delta E = P \Delta t$ by dividing both sides by Δt to give

$$P = \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t} = \frac{1200 \text{ J}}{4 \times 60 \text{ s}} = 5.0 \text{ W.}$$

You may have noticed from the last question that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{power} &= \frac{\text{work done}}{\text{time taken}} = \text{force} \times \frac{\text{displacement}}{\text{time taken}} \\ &= \text{force} \times \text{velocity} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P &= \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t} = F \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t} \\ P &= Fv \end{aligned}$$

27 Energy flow and efficiency

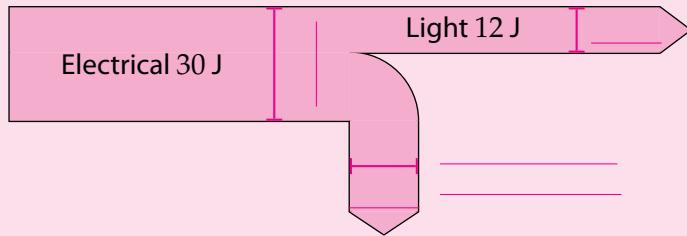
_____ stored can be given to another object or another store.
 Energy can not be _____ nor can it be _____.
 This means that the _____ energy does not change.
 We say _____.

Energy stored where we don't want it (or can't use it) is _____ energy.

The transfer of energy can be shown in a flow diagram.

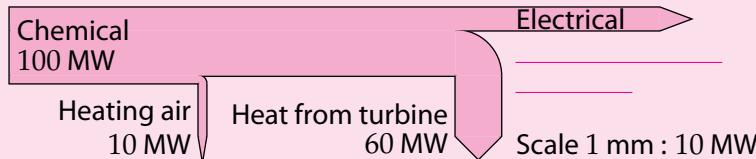
Example 1 – Electric current in a torch gives 30 J to a light bulb, which gives out 12 J as light. Draw a scale diagram showing the energy flow, and calculate the energy wasted.

The width of the line in our diagram shows the amount of energy. We draw our line 15 mm wide at the start. This represents 30 J. So 1 mm means 2 J.



We can draw diagrams using _____ rather than energy. This is the energy flow _____.

Example 2 – Calculate the electrical power generated in the power station.



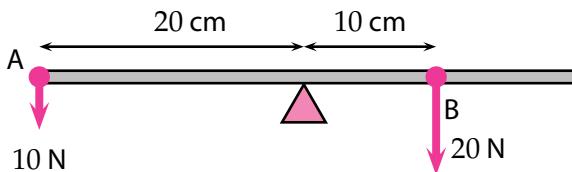
The percentage of the energy (or power) which does the job we wanted is called the _____. The solar panel in question ?? is _____ efficient, as half of the energy from the sunlight becomes useful electricity.

Example 3 – Calculate the efficiency of the motor in question ??.

The total energy is 1000 J. 300 J is wasted, so $1000 - 300 = 700$ J is used usefully. As a percentage of the total this is

$$\frac{\text{Useful energy}}{\text{Total energy}} \times 100\% = \frac{700 \text{ J}}{1000 \text{ J}} \times 100\% = 0.7 \times 100\% = 70\%.$$

28 Balancing and moments



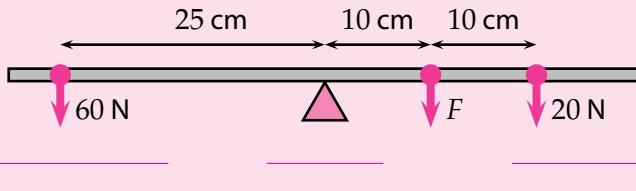
This beam balances because the force which is _____ is _____ from the pivot. The two forces have the same _____ about the pivot. The strength of a turning force is called its _____:

moment (N m) = force (N) \times displacement from pivot (m), or $M = Fs$

If you measure the distances in cm then the moments are measured in _____. Moments can be _____ \curvearrowright or _____ \curvearrowleft .

If the _____ and the _____ are _____, the beam _____.

Example – Calculate the missing force F needed to balance this beam.



The two moments we know add to $11 \text{ N m } \curvearrowright$.

To balance, F must have a $11 \text{ N m } \curvearrowleft$ moment

$$F \times 0.10 \text{ m} = 11 \text{ N m}, \text{ so } F = \frac{11 \text{ N m}}{0.10 \text{ m}} = 110 \text{ N downwards}$$

Next we use ideas about work (page 35) to explain balancing.

If it takes energy to change the angle of the beam, it is _____.

29 Energy and Temperature

When an object's temperature goes up, it melts or it boils, its store of _____ energy U increases. Temperature T is measured in degrees Celsius ($^{\circ}\text{C}$). It is a measure of the _____ internal energy of _____ in the object.

The change in internal energy ΔU of an object when the temperature goes up by $\Delta T = 1\ ^{\circ}\text{C}$ is called the _____ of the object*, and is measured in $\text{J}/{}^{\circ}\text{C}$. Your answer to question ?? (c) was the heat capacity of 2 kg of water.

Example 1 – A 3.0 kW electric radiator has a heat capacity of $30 \text{ kJ}/{}^{\circ}\text{C}$. The radiator is turned on for five minutes. Its temperature rises from $12\ ^{\circ}\text{C}$ to $21\ ^{\circ}\text{C}$. Work out how much energy is passed on to the air in the room.

Heater	Radiator	Air
$\Delta E = P \Delta t$ $= 3000 \text{ W} \times 300 \text{ s}$ $= 900 \text{ kJ}$	$\Delta T = 21 - 12 = 9\ ^{\circ}\text{C}$ $\Delta U = 9\ ^{\circ}\text{C} \times 30 \text{ kJ}/{}^{\circ}\text{C}$ $= 270 \text{ kJ}$	$900 \text{ kJ} - 270 \text{ kJ}$ $= 630 \text{ kJ}$

The diagram shows that the heater releases 900 kJ of which 270 kJ raises the temperature of the radiator, leaving 630 kJ to escape to the air.

The heat capacity of an object depends on how much material it contains, as well as what it is made of. In question ?? (d), you calculated the heat capacity of 1 kg of water. This is called the _____ heat capacity, as it refers to 1 kg.

Example 2 – It requires 240 kJ to warm 30 kg of bricks from $5.0\ ^{\circ}\text{C}$ to $15.0\ ^{\circ}\text{C}$. Calculate the specific heat capacity of brick.

$$\text{Temperature rise} = 15 - 5 = 10.0\ ^{\circ}\text{C}$$

$$\text{Heat capacity} = \frac{240 \text{ kJ}}{10\ ^{\circ}\text{C}} = 24 \text{ kJ}/{}^{\circ}\text{C}$$

$$\text{Specific heat capacity} = \frac{24 \text{ kJ}/{}^{\circ}\text{C}}{30 \text{ kg}} = 800 \text{ J/kg } {}^{\circ}\text{C}.$$

Energy summary questions are on page 60.

*providing the volume does not change. This is a good assumption for solids and liquids.

Materials and Forces

30 Density

ρ (rho) is the _____ (m^3 or cm^3) of a material.
Density is measured in kg/m^3 or g/cm^3 .

$$\text{density} = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}}, \text{ or } \rho = \frac{m}{V}$$

This equation can be re-arranged using the methods on page 9 to give

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V} \quad m = \rho V \quad V = \frac{m}{\rho}$$

Example 1 – A $3 \text{ cm} \times 5 \text{ cm} \times 10 \text{ cm}$ block has a mass of 300 g. What is the density?

$$\text{Volume } V = 3 \text{ cm} \times 5 \text{ cm} \times 10 \text{ cm} = 150 \text{ cm}^3$$

We re-arrange $m = \rho V$ by dividing both sides by V to give

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V} = \frac{300 \text{ g}}{150 \text{ cm}^3} = 2.0 \text{ g/cm}^3.$$

We need to be able to use cubic metres as well as cubic centimetres.

$$1 \text{ m} = 100 \text{ cm} \text{ and so } 1 \text{ m}^3 = (100 \text{ cm})^3 = 100^3 \text{ cm}^3 = 1000 000 \text{ cm}^3$$

Example 2 – Pure water has a density of 1.00 g/cm^3 . Calculate the mass of a cubic metre of water in kilograms.

1 cm^3 of water has a mass of 1 g.

1 $\text{m}^3 = 1000 000 \text{ cm}^3$, so 1 m^3 of water will have a mass of 1000 000 g.

1000 g = 1 kg, so this water will have a mass of 1000 kg.

We see from the example above that

$$1 \text{ g/cm}^3 = 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

31 Floating

We use ideas of force (page 17) and density (page 43) to look at buoyancy.

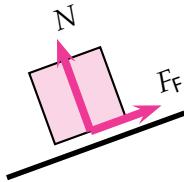
Any object in a liquid or a gas (a fluid) has an upwards force called _____. It is equal to the _____ of liquid or gas _____. This is the fluid which had to be moved out of the way to make room for the object. This idea is known as _____. Why is this rule true? Think about an object with mass m and volume V .

The weight of the object _____. We will write the density of the _____ as ρ . Mass of fluid displaced _____. Weight of fluid displaced _____.

The object will float if _____ which means _____.

In other words, it will float if it is _____ than the fluid.

32 Friction



When an object sits on a surface, there are two forces on it as a result of the contact.

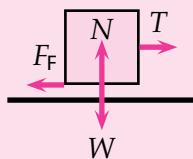
N the _____ force
_____ the surface, and
 F_f the _____ force resisting motion
_____ the surface.

The strength of the friction force depends on

- N (a large normal reaction means F_f can be larger),
- the texture of the surfaces (is it rough or smooth?), and
- whether the object is moving or not.

For _____ objects, the _____ (moving) friction F_f is calculated using the formula $F_f = \mu N$. μ (mu) is the _____.

Example 1 – A 2.0 kg block is being pushed along a horizontal surface at a steady speed with a force $T = 4.0$ N. Calculate μ .



Normal reaction N must balance weight

$$N = W = mg = 2.0 \text{ kg} \times 10 \text{ N/kg} = 20 \text{ N.}$$

Motion (velocity) is not changing, so $F_f = T = 4.0$ N

$$F_f = \mu N \text{ so } \mu = \frac{F_f}{N} = \frac{4.0 \text{ N}}{20 \text{ N}} = 0.2$$

Example 2 – Calculate the acceleration of a 25 kg mass being pushed along a $\mu = 0.20$ horizontal surface by a 70 N force.

Surface is horizontal, so $N = W = mg = 25 \text{ kg} \times 10 \text{ N/kg} = 250 \text{ N}$

Friction $F = \mu N = 0.20 \times 250 \text{ N} = 50 \text{ N}$

Resultant force (see page 17) = $70 - 50 = 20 \text{ N}$

$$\text{Acceleration (see page 19)} = \frac{\text{Resultant force}}{\text{Mass}} = \frac{20 \text{ N}}{25 \text{ kg}} = 0.80 \text{ m/s}^2.$$

For _____ objects, the formula $F_f = \mu N$ gives the _____ friction force the surface can provide. Here μ is the coefficient of _____.

μ for static friction _____ μ for dynamic friction on the same surface.

Example 3 – We push a stationary 60 kg sack on a horizontal floor with a 90 N force. Will it start to move if static $\mu = 0.25$?

The surface is horizontal, so $N = W = mg = 60 \text{ kg} \times 10 \text{ N/kg} = 600 \text{ N}$.

The maximum static friction is $F_f = \mu N = 0.25 \times 600 \text{ N} = 150 \text{ N}$,

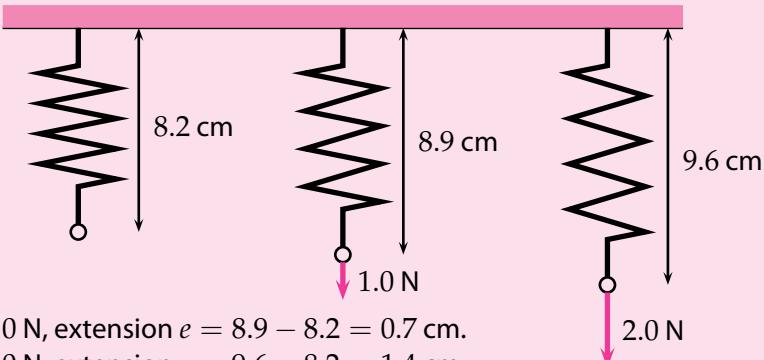
Our force is smaller than this, so the sack will not start moving.

33 Springs

When you pull a spring you put it in _____. It gets longer, and the extra length is called the _____ (e). It is measured in m or cm.

Example 1 – When a spring is not attached to anything it is 8.2 cm long.

When it supports a 1.0 N weight, its length is 8.9 cm. When it supports a 2.0 N weight, it is 9.6 cm long. Calculate the extension in each case.



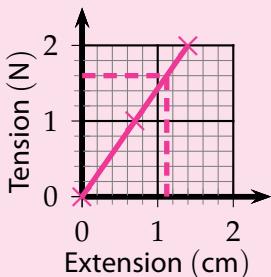
With 1.0 N, extension $e = 8.9 - 8.2 = 0.7$ cm.

With 2.0 N, extension $e = 9.6 - 8.2 = 1.4$ cm.

When calculating the extension, you always subtract the _____ length (not the previous measurement).

As long as you do not pass the _____, the spring will go back to its original length when released. The spring in the example obeys _____: when the force was doubled, the extension also doubled.

Example 2 – Plot a graph of tension against extension for the spring above, and work out the length of the spring when the tension is 1.6 N.



Reading the graph, a force of 1.6 N matches a 1.1 cm extension.

Now add the original length (8.2 cm) to get
 $\text{Length} = 1.1 + 8.2 = 9.3$ cm.

Or, we have $e = 0.7$ cm for 1 N. For 1.6 N we have $e = 1.6 \times 0.7$ cm = 1.12 cm \approx 1.1 cm.
 $\text{Length} = 1.1 + 8.2 = 9.3$ cm.

With some springs, they get shorter when you push them. This puts them in _____.

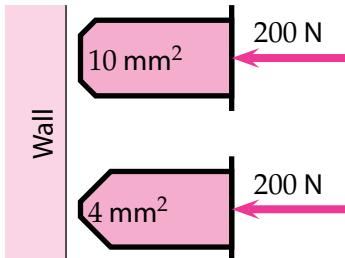
Example 3 – A spring obeys Hooke’s law. It extends by 12.3 cm with a tension of 7.5 N. Calculate the force when the extension is 3.0 cm.

$$\text{Tension for 1 cm is } \frac{7.5 \text{ N}}{12.3 \text{ cm}} = 0.610 \text{ N/cm.}$$

$$\text{For 3.0 cm, we need } 3.0 \text{ cm} \times 0.610 \text{ N/cm} = 1.8 \text{ N.}$$

The force needed to extend a spring by 1 cm (or alternatively 1 m) is called its _____ (k). It is measured in N/cm (or N/m).

34 Pressure



The picture shows two nails and a wall.
The two nails are struck with the same _____.

The _____ nail is more likely to go into the wall, as it is _____. It touches a smaller _____ of wall, so the force is more focused or concentrated.

The measurement of force on each unit of area is called _____ P .

$$\text{pressure} = \frac{\text{force}}{\text{area}}, \text{ or } P = \frac{F}{A}$$

If A is measured in m², P will be in N/m². 1 N/m² is also written 1 Pa.

If A is measured in cm², P will be in N/cm².

If A is measured in mm², P will be in N/mm².

Example 1 – Calculate the force needed to apply a pressure of 50 N/cm² over a 4 cm × 10 cm area. Area = 4 cm × 10 cm = 40 cm².

As Pressure = $\frac{\text{Force}}{\text{Area}}$, multiplying both sides by Area gives

$$\text{Force} = \text{Pressure} \times \text{Area} = 50 \text{ N/cm}^2 \times 40 \text{ cm}^2 = 2000 \text{ N}$$

When driving over a muddy field, large wheels are used to make the area of contact _____. The same _____ then causes less _____. The vehicle is less likely to sink in the mud and get stuck. When we want to compare pressures

in different units, we remember:

$$1 \text{ m} = 100 \text{ cm}. \text{ This means } 1 \text{ m}^2 = (100 \text{ cm})^2 = 100^2 \text{ cm}^2 = 10\,000 \text{ cm}^2$$

Example 2 – Convert a pressure of 10 N/cm² into Pa.

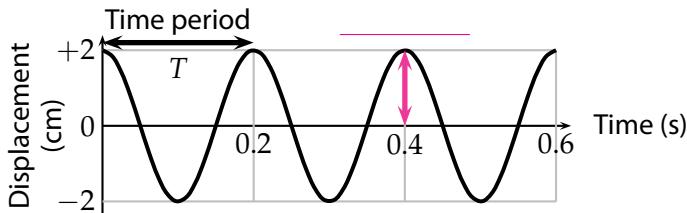
$$\frac{10 \text{ N}}{1 \text{ cm}^2} = \frac{10 \text{ N}}{(0.01 \text{ m})^2} = \frac{10 \text{ N}}{0.01^2 \text{ m}^2} = \frac{10 \text{ N}}{0.0001 \text{ m}^2} = 100\,000 \text{ N/m}^2$$

$$1 \text{ Pa} = 1 \text{ N/m}^2, \text{ so the answer is } 100\,000 \text{ Pa} = 100 \text{ kPa}.$$

Force and materials summary questions are on page 61.

Waves

35 Frequency



An _____ is a _____ motion. From the _____ graph, we see that the repeating part lasts _____. This is called the _____ T and is measured in seconds (s).

The largest displacement from the centre is called the _____. This oscillation has an amplitude of _____.

The number of times the motion repeats each second is called the _____ f and is measured in hertz (Hz).

Example – Calculate the frequency of the oscillation in the graph above.

The time period is $T = 0.2 \text{ s}$.

The number of times the motion repeats each second is $\frac{1.0 \text{ s}}{0.2 \text{ s}} = 5$.

The frequency is 5 Hz.

$$\text{frequency (Hz)} = \frac{1}{\text{time period (s)}}, \text{ or } f = \frac{1}{T}. \text{ Re-arranging gives } T = \frac{1}{f}.$$

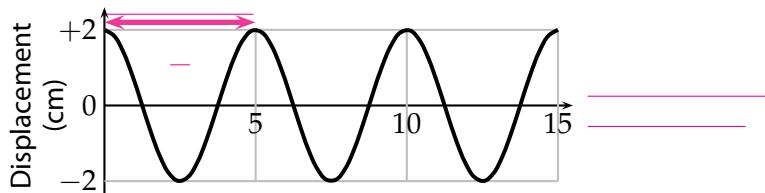
For large frequencies, $1 \text{ kHz} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$, $1 \text{ MHz} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$.

For small times, $1 \text{ ms} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$, $1 \mu\text{s} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ (see page 27).

36 Wavelength and the wave equation

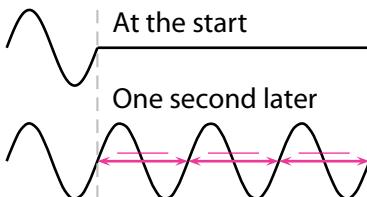
A _____ carries _____ from one place to another using oscillations. The wave can also carry _____.

If we take a photo of a wave, the length of the repeating section is called the _____. Its symbol is λ (lambda). The wavelength is the distance from one _____ to the next.



The wavelength of the wave above is _____.

If we know the _____ and _____ of a wave, we can work out its _____. The diagram shows the front of a wave going forward for one second.



Frequency is 3 Hz, wavelength is 2 m.
In one second, ___ new waves are made.
Length of new wave is _____.
The wave's front moves ___ each second.
The wave's speed is _____.
The formula for wave speed is

$$\text{speed (m/s)} = \text{frequency (Hz)} \times \text{wavelength (m)}, \text{ or } v = f\lambda.$$

This equation can be re-arranged using the methods on page 9 to give

$$f = \frac{v}{\lambda}$$

$$v = f\lambda$$

$$\lambda = \frac{v}{f}$$

Example – A wave's speed is 20 m/s and its wavelength is 0.40 m. What is its frequency?

We re-arrange $v = f\lambda$ by dividing both sides by λ to give

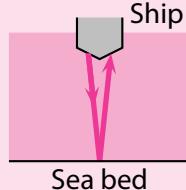
$$f = \frac{v}{\lambda} = \frac{20 \text{ m/s}}{0.4 \text{ m}} = 50 \text{ Hz.}$$

37 Echoes

You can measure the time taken for a wave to travel to a barrier, _____ off it and _____. If you know the _____ of the wave, you can work out the _____ to the barrier.

We use this idea to measure the _____ of the sea bed, to monitor where aircraft are in the sky, and to make medical images.

Example – An ultrasound pulse travels at 1400 m/s in sea water. It takes 0.61 s to travel downwards from a ship to the sea bed, reflect and return to the ship. How deep is the sea?



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Distance travelled} &= \text{speed} \times \text{time} \\ &= 1400 \text{ m/s} \times 0.61 \text{ s} = 854 \text{ m} \\ \text{This is distance travelled } &\underline{\hspace{2cm}}. \\ \text{Depth of sea} &= \frac{854 \text{ m}}{2} = 427 \text{ m}. \end{aligned}$$

We can write this as using a formula

$$\text{distance to barrier (m)} = \frac{\text{wave speed (m/s)} \times \text{time (s)}}{2}, \text{ or } s = \frac{vt}{2}$$

The _____ is needed because the wave travels the distance to the barrier _____.

In these questions, use these speeds:

- speed of sound (or ultrasound) in air = 330 m/s,
- speed of sound (or ultrasound) in water or the human body = 1400 m/s,
- speed of radio, light or microwaves in air (or space) = 300 000 000 m/s.

In these questions, you will need to know unit prefixes, as explained on page 27. The ones you will need here are

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \text{ ms} &= \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{ s} = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{ s} \\ 1 \mu\text{s} &= \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{ s} = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{ s} \\ 1 \text{ ns} &= \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{ s} = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{ s} \end{aligned}$$

Waves summary questions are on page 62.

Calculation Practice

38 Force and Motion Calculation Practice

39 Electricity Calculation Practice

40 Energy and Balance Calculation Practice

41 Materials and Forces Calculation Practice

Extra Questions

42 Force and Motion summary questions

43 Electricity summary questions

44 Energy summary questions

45 Materials and Forces summary questions

46 Waves summary questions

47 Challenge questions

These questions can be answered using the knowledge in this book, but creative thinking will also be needed. If you are not sure how to start, try

- drawing a diagram, and label any measurements or forces
- writing down any equations or principles which may be useful
- thinking what you can work out from what you know
- thinking what might be needed before you can get the answer
- changing the problem to make it easier, and solve that first

48 Dimensional analysis - algebra with units

We can check whether an equation is sensible by doing algebra with the units. On these pages we will use the notation:

$[F]$ means ‘units of F ’.

Example 1 – Two editions of a textbook have different formulae for the final speed v of an object after an acceleration a over a distance s . One says $v = 2as$, the other says $v^2 = 2as$. Which is more likely to be correct?

$$[2as] = [as] = [a] \times [s] = \frac{m}{s^2} \times m = \frac{m^2}{s^2} = \left(\frac{m}{s}\right)^2$$

This is the square of the unit of speed $[v^2]$, so we choose $v^2 = 2as$.

Plain numbers like 2 or π do not have units, so the 2 in the example above did not change the unit. We can also often predict the form of a formula.

Example 2 – A geographer measures the cross sectional area A of a river and its speed v , and multiplies them. What might Av represent?

$$[Av] = [A] \times [v] = m^2 \times \frac{m}{s} = \frac{m^3}{s} = \frac{[V]}{[t]}$$

This could be the volume V of water flowing past each second.

Some units have more than one way of being written. An example is the unit of power $W = J/s = V \times A$. To make analysing equations simpler, we need a unique form for each unit. To do this, we work out an equivalent for each named unit which only uses kg, m, s and A.

Example 3 – What is the unit of force (the newton N) when written with only kilograms, metres and seconds?

On page 19 we see that $F = ma$,
and so $N = [F] = [m] \times [a] = \text{kg} \times \text{m/s}^2 = \text{kg m/s}^2$.