



Physics

GCSE (9–1) | AQA | 8463



2016 specification
first exams in 2018

Targeting a Top Grade

in GCSE AQA Physics

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Teacher's Introduction

The aim of this resource is to provide your students with revision materials, guidance and practice to help them secure a grade 8/9 in GCSE (9–1) AQA Physics.

Remember!
Always check the exam board website for new information, including changes to the specification and sample assessment material.

As teachers, we always want our students to attain the highest grades possible. For many of your students entered for the Higher Tier paper, the challenge is to secure a grade 8/9. It is interesting as professionals to reflect that, on average, around 15% of candidates taking the Higher Tier paper will achieve grade 9, and around 18% will achieve grade 8. Data from AQA suggests that in both Paper 1 and Paper 2 candidates perform relatively poorly on questions associated with practical activities, and for Paper 2 extended responses can be an area where marks are often lost. As such, these resources focus additional attention on these areas and provide activities for your students to build their confidence in these key areas of assessment. Practice for answering questions based on practical work appears from Chapter 9 onwards.

Alongside general examination advice, reminders about good exam practice and an overview of the command words, the specification has been divided into 15 units. Each unit consists of the following:

- A student-focused introduction, setting out the key knowledge required to obtain a level 8/9
- Explanations, worked examples, challenges, tips and interesting facts – forming the main content of each unit.
- A set of tasks, questions and have-a-go ideas that help students to test their knowledge, understanding and application.
- Exam-style questions – a chance to practise.
- A set of final challenges to help students prepare for Year 1 of A Level.
- Answers to the exam-style questions.

All of these photocopiable sections are designed to be used either in class, during a tutorial, during one-to-one sessions or by the students working alone in self-study. They are equally valuable for students currently working at grades 6 and 7 and aiming for grade 8 or 9. Although the primary focus is on securing that 8/9, any Higher Tier student will find valuable support in these materials.

April 2022

Student Introduction

Securing a grade 8/9 in Physics is not just about knowing the right information, although that is important, but also about practice and focusing on the content that has in the past proved a barrier to success.

What is in the pack?

1. **Exam advice and guidance.** [Don't skip this bit; it will help with more than just the exam. It includes general advice on taking exams, some tips about sitting the exam and a few examples of questions and how to use that in your revision planning.
2. **Command words section.** Every exam question uses command words to inform you of what is expected of them for that question. Read this section to gain a better understanding of what is expected and much to do for each question.
3. **15 chapters** covering all the sections of Physics that you need to know about.

Each chapter contains:

- An introduction telling you what is in the chapter and what skills you will need to succeed.
 - The main content – explanations, diagrams, worked examples, tips and a summary of the syllabus.
 - Test yourself time – tasks, quick questions and quizzes to see how you're doing.
 - Practice exam-style questions – time to practise. Here, if you are serious, don't cheat. Do the questions without looking at books, notes or these resources (you can't cheat). Write on the paper, just like the real thing. There's no point practising under exam-style conditions.
 - Although no time limit is given for these, you can time yourself to see how long it takes. Remember, it is better to get them right now than to rush. However, in the real exam, the paper is expected to take you approximately one minute to answer.
4. **'A Level' challenge.** The final section has some self-challenge tasks and questions to prepare you for the first year of A Level Physics. Even if you don't plan to do A Level Physics, having a go at even some of the A Level it's going to make you feel a lot more confident in your own abilities and realise your aim at getting the top grade.
 5. **Answers.** All the answers to the exam-style questions for each chapter. Read these carefully and guidance on how to do your self-marking. Marking your answers is as valuable as answering the questions, providing you do it the right way. This section also includes answers to the tasks and other quick questions for each chapter.

Being the best at anything – sport, music, gaming or exams – is about practice and repetition. Most of all – if you get something wrong – don't give up, just keep trying.

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Exam advice

Revision – general advice

- ❖ Work somewhere comfortable – ideally at a desk.
- ❖ Do not study on your bed.
 - Why not? Not only is it too comfortable, but over time your subconscious links work with it, and this can affect some people’s ability to sleep. Getting a good night’s sleep is an important factor in exam success.
- ❖ Put your phone and tablet, etc. on silent. Better still, put them on ‘Do Not Disturb’. Your messages can wait for 15 minutes.
- ❖ Focus on one or two topics at a time – ideally the ones you feel least confident about. Don’t try to learn everything at once. Be disciplined and have a written plan.
- ❖ Music – this is a personal choice, but there are a few rules to follow:
 - Not too loud – it has to be background music. If your brain is concentrating on processing the music, it isn’t focusing on learning.
 - Try to avoid songs with lyrics – if you’re singing along, you aren’t using all your brain power for revision.
 - Don’t have any music playing when doing practice exam-style questions. You’ll listen to in the real exam, and the more realistic the conditions are when you practice, you will be in the exam and the better prepared you will be.

Timing your revision

This is really important to understand. When you revise is up to you – some people prefer mornings, others later in the evenings.

No one can concentrate for hours at a time. You might ‘work’ for two hours, but how much are you actually concentrating? On average, a person can focus for one minute for every minute about 25, then it starts to level off. So, most GCSE students can really only focus for about 25 minutes before they start to drift a little.

Try this:

15 minutes – revision of first topic; Chapter 1 of the content, for example.

5 minutes – break. Check your phone, get a drink, etc. – anything but revision.

5 minutes – recap of first topic. Do the tasks for a chapter, for example, or just try to recall on a blank piece of paper without looking at your notes. Then check your answers.

15 minutes – revision of second topic (or, for longer chapters, the second half of the first topic).

5 minutes – break.

5 minutes – recap of second topic.

15–20 minutes – complete practice exam-style questions and then self-mark them.

Finish – if you move on to another subject, make sure you leave a reasonable gap. Your brain does some ‘filing’ and resting before starting something different.

You might see this combination of symbols in the chapters; it is a reminder to stop, rest a little, recap and check before moving on.



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Some simple brain science

This may be physics, but a little biology lesson will help you understand more about

Revision starts with the process of remembering information. Then you can use it a helps you get an 8/9 in an exam. But first you have to know the facts, the definition

The brain has several memory systems; put in simple terms – immediate, medium- human brain evolved to survive in the wilds of the plains of Africa, and passing ex The brain functions to store useful information in the long-term memory that it e associates with a dramatic/traumatic event.

When we read, watch or listen to information it goes into our immediate memory so – just long enough to make sense of what is being said or watched. If we do so straight away, it gets passed to the medium-term memory. Here it stays with us f after a while, new information comes in and the brain has to decide what to keep use something in the medium-term memory soon, we just forget it, i.e. no learning we use it by answering a question, write or type it out, or speak to someone about then the brain thinks it might be worth keeping for a bit longer. The more often v more the brain thinks it is probably important, so it shifts it over to the long-term can start to say we have learnt something. This might be over several days or we

Do this: take a five-minute break, come back and rewrite what you just read about sentences, bullet points, a drawing or, if you're feeling creative, a song – it doesn't has to use the information and starts to think it's worth learning. However you re just thinking isn't enough – you must do something with the information.

Exam advice

Get a good night's sleep

- ✓ Don't be tempted to panic revise the night before.
- ✓ Look over your notes for 30 minutes then put them aside.
- ✓ Don't revise in the hour before you go to bed.
- ✓ Try not to use your phone, etc. just before bed – if you do, set it to night mode to

On the day – have breakfast/lunch. Your brain is an organ and it needs fuel and oxygen the body. Some people even do a little meditation – try it, it might be right for you.

Have everything ready – pens, pencil, calculator, ruler, eraser and a bottle of water summer and in the heat – dehydration affects brain function and reduces your ability water with you – but remember, the container cannot have any labels on it.

In the exam:

1. Make sure you are comfortable – if there is light in your eyes from a window, invigilator before the exam starts.
2. Check through the paper at the start – make sure you know how many questions back page – you would be amazed how many candidates miss the last question
3. Check for the page or insert with the equations and keep it to hand.
4. **Always show your working out** – even if you miscalculate an answer, you will answer and your calculations.
5. **For each question, check the number of marks available** – don't waste time writing
6. Look for **command words** – see the 'Command words' help sheet in this pack type of answer to provide and the amount of detail needed for a grade 9.
7. Most exams are designed to give you 10 minutes at the end to check your work finished, **check everything carefully**.

After the exam – forget it. Don't start panicking and trying to second-guess what

Concentrate on the next paper. When you get home, or during a short break, jot be honest with yourself – what did you find a challenge and what was easy? Use But don't worry about Paper 1.

After Paper 2, relax, and concentrate on the next subject.

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Command words

Command words are the words used in exams that tell candidates how they should answer a question, what they mean and use them in the exam to guide you on how to answer the question. They are needed for full marks.

<p>Calculate</p>	<p>Use the numbers from the question to work out an answer.</p> <p><i>Example: Calculate</i> the velocity of a train that travels a distance of 100 m in 10 s.</p> <p>The numbers to use are 100 m and 10 s</p> $\text{velocity} = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time}} \text{ or } v = \frac{d}{t}$ <p>So: $v = 100 \div 10 = 10 \text{ m/s}$</p>
<p>Choose</p>	<p>Select from a range of alternatives.</p> <p>Pick your answer from the options given in the question. This is basically picking the right one. Always check how many options you need to choose; it is not always just one.</p>
<p>Compare</p>	<p>A common error is to mention only one of the options, or discuss only the similarities and not both.</p> <p>Write about the similarities and differences between all the options given in the question.</p> <p><i>Example question: Compare</i> the processes of nuclear fission and nuclear fusion.</p> <p><i>Answer:</i> They both produce large amounts of energy from atoms (<i>similarities</i>). Fusion joins atoms of hydrogen to form helium to do this, whereas fission <u>splits</u> large radioactive atoms to do this, and <i>fusion</i> releases the energy (<i>difference</i>).</p>
<p>Define</p>	<p>Give the meaning of a word or phrase, like a dictionary explanation.</p> <p><i>Example: Define</i> the term specific heat capacity.</p> <p><i>Answer:</i> The amount of energy, in joules, needed to increase the temperature of 1 kg of a substance by 1°C.</p> <p>Tip: Knowing the meanings (definitions) of keywords in physics is an important part of communicating your understanding. Definitions are not a higher-level skill. Be confident in using the right words in the right places. As you revise, write down definitions in your notes, and write a definition for each one to go with it. Put these up around your room and read one or two of them every day.</p> <p>Note: It is important to write or type these yourself; don't copy and paste definitions. Copying words and producing the work yourself makes you think, and thinking aids longer-term memory, i.e. you learn.</p>
<p>Describe</p>	<p>Write about the topic in the question – an event, a fact or a practical – and explain it.</p> <p><i>Question:</i> Describe how you would measure the resistance of a wire, using a power supply, an ammeter and a voltmeter.</p> <p><i>Answer:</i> Place the wire in series with a power supply such as a battery or a power pack, and an ammeter in series with the wire and the voltmeter in parallel with the wire. Record the readings on both meters.</p> <p>Use the equation $V = IR$ such that $R = V / I$ to calculate the resistance of the wire.</p> <p>Tip: As with all exam questions, check the number of marks given for the question. Give the detail to give. Generally, one mark is given for each important point that the question asks you to write about.</p>
<p>Design</p>	<p>Suggest how a practical could be carried out.</p> <p>This is asking you to put together a method or plan for an experiment. Think about the experiments you have done in class with your teacher.</p>

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Determine	Use given data or information to obtain an answer; this might come from a mistake is to misread the data from the axis of a graph. This is a key scientific skill.
Draw	Draw a diagram to illustrate your understanding. Examples would be to draw an isotope, or a set-up for an investigation. You don't have to be an artist, but do remember to label the key elements.
Estimate	Use the data/information provided in the question to suggest an approximate answer to a question. You are not expected to show any calculations. Tip: Look at the accuracy of the data provided. If it is to one or two decimal places, round to the same level of accuracy – never be more accurate, i.e. if the data is given to 2 dp. Check the question – does it tell you how accurate you need to be? To provide a range, e.g. $2.5\text{ V} \pm 0.25\text{ V}$?
Evaluate	Use your knowledge and understanding as well as the information given to evaluate the evidence for and against an idea. Tip: Marks are NOT awarded for your opinion – there is no right or wrong answer. Marks are awarded for your arguments and your use of data and knowledge. There will be marks for the evidence. Don't defend your personal opinion – be impartial and try to see both sides.
Explain	Give clear reasons for an opinion or idea, based on your knowledge and understanding. Occasionally you may be asked to do this using a diagram.
Give	This is a short answer, stating something. It could be a value from a table or a simple statement. These questions do not require a long explanation or justification.
Identify	Name or identify an object or a point on a graph. These are short answers and do not require an explanation.
Justify	Make use of the information given and your knowledge to explain why you think something is true. Try to refer to data if it is available. These questions require longer answers.
Label	Add appropriate labels to a diagram. Take care to check the details of what is being asked.
Measure	Use the diagram or image provided to find the size of an object. Take care to check the units that have been provided.
Name	Very short, often one-word answers, asking you to identify something. You must give your answer.
Plan	This is instructing you to write a method for an experiment or investigation. Aim for the maximum number of marks given and aim to say one key thing for each mark. Check whether the question asks for specific details, such as a list of equipment, how to measure a given quality, etc.
Plot	Use the data provided, often in a table, to draw or complete a graph. Check the scale for each axis and the data table carefully before beginning. Marks are awarded for these types of question, and most are simply given for accuracy. Check whether the question asks for a line to be drawn with the data points or a line of best fit.
Predict	Use the information given along with your knowledge to suggest what might happen. There may be more than one correct answer – your prediction just has to be reasonable.
Show	Draw a conclusion to data or information but give a sensible and reasonable explanation for how you come to that conclusion. One way to approach these questions is to use a simple structure. Give your conclusion then join this to your reasons with the word <i>because</i> .
Sketch	A quick drawing with minimum details. It may help to add a couple of labels to your sketch.
Suggest	This will be linked to new situations relating to something you have studied. You are not expected to revise. You have to use your knowledge and understanding to suggest a solution.
Use	This command tells you that you must make use of the information given in the question. The marks are for applying the information provided. Don't waste valuable time coming up with or recalling your own examples – you must use the information in the question.
Write	Very short answers, possibly only one word or a phrase. No explanation is required.

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Equations

You will need to know and be able to use the equations below (not all of them are)

$$\text{weight} = \text{mass} \times \text{gravitational field strength}$$

$$\text{work done} = \text{force} \times \text{distance}$$

$$\text{force applied to a spring} = \text{spring constant} \times \text{extension}$$

$$\text{moment of a force} = \text{force} \times \text{perpendicular distance}$$

$$\text{pressure} = \text{force normal to a surface} \div \text{area}$$

$$\text{distance travelled} = \text{speed} \times \text{time}$$

$$\text{acceleration} = \text{change in velocity} \div \text{time taken}$$

$$\text{resultant force} = \text{mass} \times \text{acceleration}$$

$$\text{momentum} = \text{mass} \times \text{velocity}$$

$$\text{kinetic energy} = 0.5 \times \text{mass} \times \text{speed}^2$$

$$\text{gravitational potential energy} = \text{mass} \times \text{gravitational field strength} \times \text{height}$$

$$\text{power} = \text{energy transferred} \div \text{time}$$

$$\text{power} = \text{work done} \div \text{time}$$

$$\text{efficiency} = \frac{\text{useful power output}}{\text{total power input}}$$

$$\text{wave speed} = \text{frequency} \times \text{wavelength}$$

$$\text{charge flow} = \text{current} \times \text{time}$$

$$\text{potential difference} = \text{current} \times \text{resistance}$$

$$\text{power} = \text{potential difference} \times \text{current}$$

$$\text{power} = \text{current}^2 \times \text{resistance}$$

$$\text{energy transferred} = \text{power} \times \text{time}$$

$$\text{energy transferred} = \text{charge flow} \times \text{potential difference}$$

$$\text{density} = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}}$$

The following equations will be provided in the exam, but you should know what the

$$\text{pressure due to a column of liquid} = \text{height of column} \times \text{density of liquid} \times \text{gravitational field strength}$$

$$(\text{final velocity})^2 - (\text{initial velocity})^2 = 2 \times \text{acceleration} \times \text{distance}$$

$$\text{force} = \text{change in momentum} \div \text{time taken}$$

$$\text{elastic potential energy} = 0.5 \times \text{spring constant} \times \text{extension}^2$$

$$\text{change in thermal energy} = \text{mass} \times \text{specific heat capacity} \times \text{temperature change}$$

$$\text{period} = \frac{1}{\text{frequency}}$$

$$\text{magnification} = \frac{\text{image height}}{\text{object height}}$$

$$\text{force on a conductor at right angles to a magnetic field carrying a current} = \text{magnetic flux density} \times \text{current} \times \text{length}$$

$$\text{thermal energy for a change of state} = \text{mass} \times \text{specific latent heat}$$

$$\text{potential difference across primary coil} \div \text{potential difference across secondary coil}$$

$$= \text{number of turns on primary coil} \div \text{number of turns on secondary coil}$$

$$\text{potential difference across primary coil} \times \text{current in primary coil}$$

$$= \text{potential difference across secondary coil} \times \text{current in secondary coil}$$

For gases:

$$\text{pressure} \times \text{volume} = \text{constant}$$

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Chapter 1: Energy

Introduction

This section looks at the higher-level concepts in the first unit on energy. The focus is on your skills in recalling, rearranging and applying formula.

It is important to recall that energy cannot be created or destroyed. Instead, it is transferred from one form to another; for example, a light bulb changes electrical energy into heat and light. The more energy (in this case the bulb) the more of the initial energy is converted to a useful energy. Improving to improve the efficiency of systems is a higher-level skill.

Equations used in this chapter

$$\text{kinetic energy} = \frac{1}{2} \times \text{mass} \times \text{velocity}^2$$

$$\text{gravitational potential energy} = \text{mass} \times \text{gravity} \times \text{height}$$

$$\text{change in energy} = \text{mass} \times \text{specific heat capacity} \times \text{change in temperature}$$

$$\text{efficiency} = \frac{\text{useful energy output (or transferred out)}}{\text{total energy input (or transferred in)}} (\times 100 \%)$$

Kinetic and gravitational potential energy

- **Kinetic energy** is the energy an object has due to **movement**.
- **Gravitational potential energy** is the energy an object has because of its **height**.

Imagine cycling up a hill – to get to the top, your body uses **chemical energy** from your muscles. As you pedal and move, you are transferring **the chemical energy** into **kinetic energy**. This energy is transferred to **gravitational potential energy** as you gain height. When you reach the top and stop, you are no longer moving, all the **kinetic energy** is 'gone'. But energy cannot be destroyed, so it has been transferred to the **gravitational potential energy**. Answer: The **kinetic energy** has been transferred to the **gravitational potential energy** as you go higher up than you were at the start.

In reality, some of the energy has been lost as **thermal energy** due to friction between the moving parts of the bike, the tyres and the surface, and between you, the bike and the air (air resistance). At GCSE all this is ignored for the calculations, but you should be aware of it for written answers and suggesting improvements to efficiency in mechanical systems.

On the way down the hill, you can freewheel without pedalling at all. The kinetic energy comes from the gravitational potential energy as you move downhill. Your speed at the bottom of the hill depends only on the height, h , of the hill. Mass has been cancelled out. $g = 9.8 \text{ N}$, so height, h , is the only variable.

We can say that: $E_k = E_p$ or $\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = mgh$

but the **mass** term in each equation cancels out the other, so in this example we can say as follows, overleaf:

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gravity = 9.8 N/kg height of hill (h) = 20 m

$$E_k = E_p$$

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = mgh$$

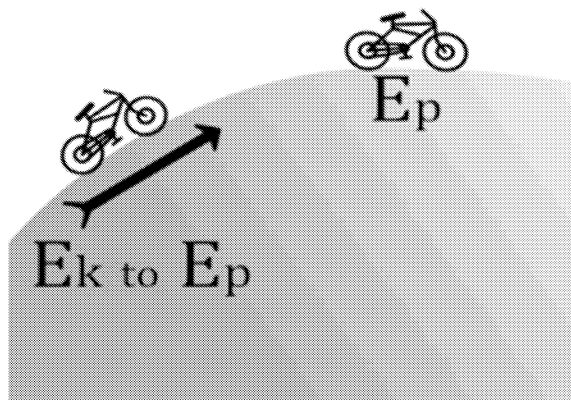
$$\frac{1}{2}v^2 = gh$$

$$v^2 = 2gh$$

$$v = \sqrt{2gh}$$

$$v = \sqrt{(2 \times 9.8 \times 20)}$$

$$v = 19.8 \text{ m/s}$$



Key s
a key
9. Se
section
for m

Task A

A roller coaster cart of mass 500 kg is pulled up to a height of 15 m at the start of a height of 5 m in the first section.

1. What is the maximum theoretical speed of the cart at the bottom of the first section? Show your working out.
2. What could the designers do to bring the real speed closer to the theoretical speed?
3. What could the owners do when maintaining the ride to increase the actual speed? Give your suggestion.
4. A student says, 'The ride would be much faster when it's full as it would be heavier.' Do you agree with them? Explain your answer.
5. In reality, the velocity would be lower than the value calculated. Why?

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Specific heat capacity

Specific heat capacity (SHC) – denoted by ‘ c ’ in equations – is a property of all materials that indicates how quickly (or slowly) the material changes temperature.

The higher the value of ‘ c ’, the more energy it takes to change the temperature of the material.

SHC is defined as **the amount of energy needed to increase the temperature of 1 kg of a material by 1 °C**, measured in *joules per kilogram per degree Celsius* (J/kg/°C).

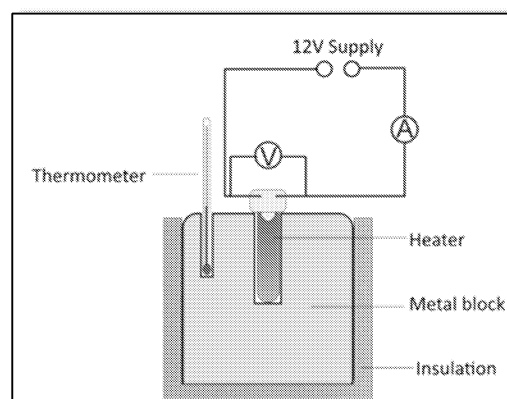
There are two ways to think about this:

1. Some materials need more energy than others to heat them up, e.g. water needs 4200 J per kg per 1 °C, whereas air needs a little over 1000 J per kg per °C.
2. It affects how quickly a material warms up or cools down. Water heats up and cools down more slowly than land at the same ambient temperature because water has a higher specific heat capacity. It takes more energy from its surroundings to heat up than the land does.

Formula:

$\Delta E = mc \Delta \theta$ where m = mass, c = specific heat capacity, θ = temperature

The symbol Δ (delta) in any equation means ‘a change in’ the value of the variable. So ΔE means the change in energy, and $\Delta \theta$ means the change in temperature.



Using this apparatus, data can be collected to find the specific heat capacity of various materials.

Below is an example of the data for aluminium. This is an example of how to use the equation.

- Material: aluminium of mass 0.5 kg
- Starting temperature, 21 °C
- End temperature, 23.03 °C
- Energy supplied, 1000 J – this is the energy supplied by the heater.

Worked example: Find the specific heat capacity of aluminium.

$$\Delta E = mc\Delta\theta$$

$$c = \frac{\Delta E}{m \Delta\theta} \quad c = \frac{1000}{0.5 \times (23.03 - 21.00)} \quad c = \frac{1000}{0.5 \times 2.03}$$

$$c = \frac{1000}{1.015} \quad c = 985 \text{ J/kg/}^\circ\text{C}$$

Before you read anything else:

Turn over this page – on a scrap of paper write a definition of specific heat capacity and the equation. Check your answers.

Do not cheat – you have to write it or type it, not just think it.

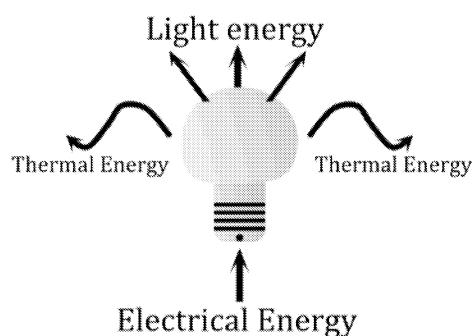
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Efficiency

In order for actions to take place in any system, there must be a transfer of energy. The initial energy or input energy is normally changed into a useful form of energy and waste energy that doesn't perform a useful or required function.

Example: light bulb



Input energy – electrical
Output energies – thermal and light

The useful energy is the light. The more energy. The more efficient the bulb, the more energy is transferred to light energy.

The efficiency is calculated using the following formula. It can be expressed as de

$$\text{efficiency} = \frac{\text{useful energy output (or transferred out)}}{\text{total energy input (or transferred in)}}$$

To gain a higher grade it is important to understand and be able to explain how si efficient. Often this is a question of how to reduce the loss of thermal energy pro dissipated into the air or water around the object.

Mechanical system: Thermal energy is lost by friction between moving parts of th system and between the moving object and the air or water through which it is m

Solutions:

- Designs that reduce contact between moving parts
- Use of lubricants such as oil, grease and low-friction bearings made from plas
- Aerodynamic (hydrodynamic in water) objects – streamlined outlines

Electrical systems: Thermal energy is lost due to the resistance of the component

Solutions:

- Replace components with lower-resistant alternatives
- Reduce the current flowing through the components

Note: using the electrical item less / turning it off when not in use **does not** chang and, therefore, suggesting this as a solution would not gain any marks in an exam

Task B

A manufacturer has built a new kettle – it has a capacity of 1 L and has a stylish When tested, 400 kJ of energy was supplied to heat the full kettle from 20 °C to

1. How much energy should be required to heat the water to boiling point in t specific heat capacity of 4200 J/kg/°C? [assume 1 mL of water has a mass
2. Why is there a difference between the energy required to heat the water a measured?
3. Suggest a change in the design of the kettle that would make it more efficie

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Exam-style questions

1.

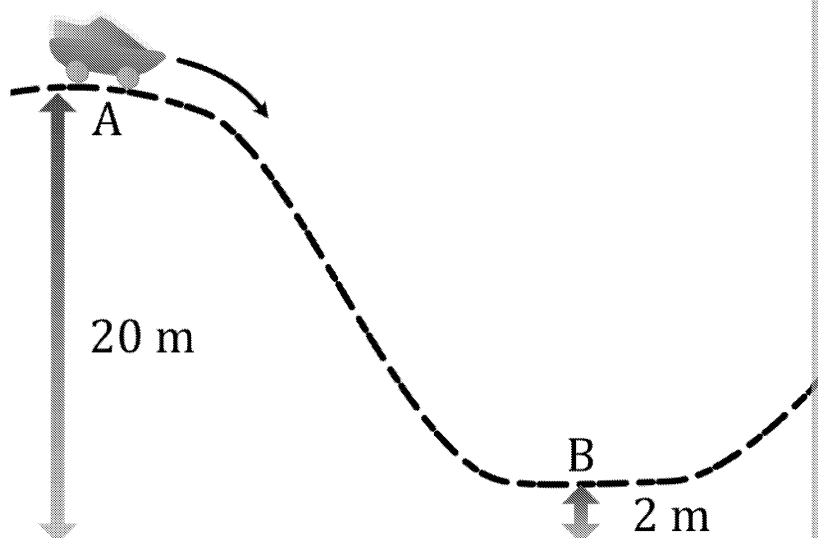


Figure 1

Figure 1 shows the plans for a section of a new roller coaster ride.

- a. State the energy transfer taking place as the cart descends from point A

.....
.....

- b. Assuming the cart has a mass of 200 kg, calculate the gravitational potential energy at point A.

- c. The owner wishes to know the speed of the cart at the bottom of this section. Assuming no loss of energy due to friction, **calculate** the speed of the cart when it reaches point B.

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2.

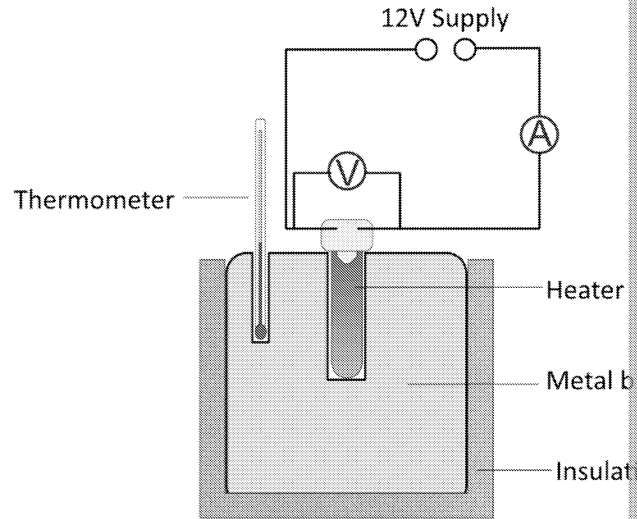


Figure 2

Figure 2 shows the set-up for an experiment to determine the specific heat capacity of a metal. The data from the ammeter and the voltmeter can be used to determine the energy transferred to the metal block.

- a. Why is the metal block surrounded by a layer of insulation?
.....
.....
- b. Define the term specific heat capacity.
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- c. During the investigation, a 1 kg block of iron is used and 5000 J of energy is transferred to the metal block. The student records a starting temperature of 20 °C and a final temperature of 30 °C. Calculate the specific heat capacity of the iron used in this experiment?

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3. As a cyclist moves along a road they are transferring energy from chemical energy to kinetic energy. However, some energy is lost to thermal energy due to friction and air resistance.

a. State one way that the cyclist could improve the efficiency of the bike. Calculate the efficiency of the energy transferred in this system.

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b. A cyclist of mass 70 kg uses 1000 J of chemical energy to travel at a speed of 10 m/s. Calculate the percentage efficiency of this energy transfer?

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Chapter 2: National and energy resources

Introduction

Access to affordable, sustainable energy is now a serious issue. The demand for energy is growing, and, with a growing population and an increasing dependence on the Internet and cloud data storage, this is set to rise rapidly over the coming decades.

One of the key skills required to gain a 9 in Physics is the ability to review, **analyse** arguments and **compare** situations and solutions to problems. Therefore, in this chapter you will be asked to analyse and answer 'compare' and 'justify' questions based on data in the form of graphs.

Reading graphs

Graphs present a 'picture' of how variables affect each other or how one variable affects another. There are four basic patterns to look for in any graph.

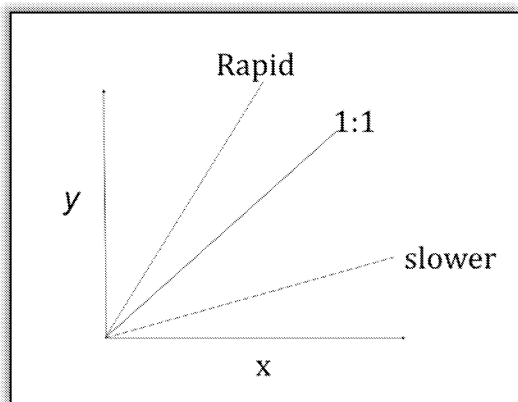


Figure 1 – increasing

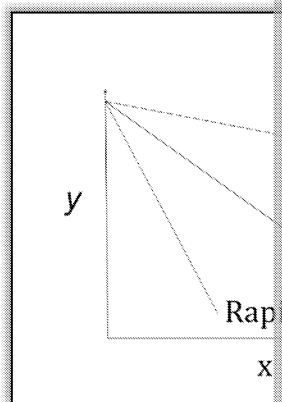


Figure 2 – decreasing

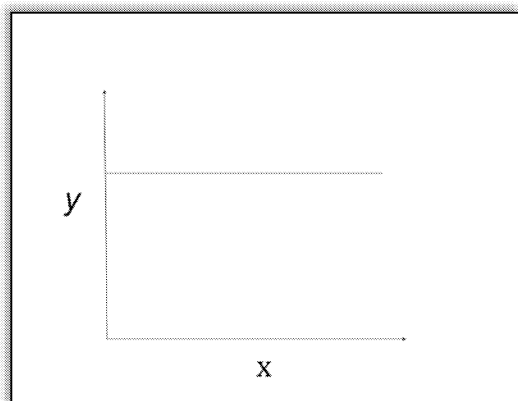


Figure 3 – no effect

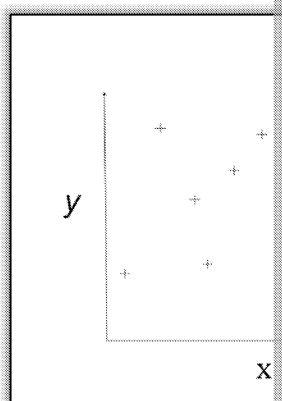


Figure 4 – no relationship

Figure 1 shows that as x increases in value so does y .

Figure 2 shows the reverse – the value of y decreases as the value of x increases.

Figure 3 shows that x has no effect on the value of y .

Figure 4 is a scatter diagram. There is no pattern in the data. x and y are not linked.

Using these four basic structures can help you to phrase an answer when describing a graph. Remember in real data figures 1, 2 and 3 might be combined to show that y is affected by x in different values.


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Type of energy source

These are grouped into **renewable** and **non-renewable** resources. Non-renewable resources are gone forever.

Non-renewables (finite – they will run out)	Renewables
Fossil fuels • Coal • Oil (petrol, diesel, jet fuel, etc.) • Natural gas	 • Solar • Wind • Tidal • Wave • Biomass and biofuels • Geothermal • Hydroelectric • Hydrogen fuel cells
Nuclear fuels for fission • Plutonium • Uranium • Thorium, etc.	

Don't confuse renewables with low carbon – biofuels still release CO₂ during combustion etc. produces a large amount of greenhouse gases too.

Each of these can be used to perform different functions, such as:

- **Production of electricity** – all of them can be used to generate electricity.
- **Transport** – oil-based products, and increasingly electricity. Remember, generating the electricity has to be generated and this could be producing CO₂.
- **Domestic** – heating and cooking.

Before looking at some real data, take a few moments to think about UK and global energy trends. Jot down your initial ideas.

- What has happened to UK energy demand overall since 2000?
- Is this the same for the rest of the world?
- What percentage of the energy produced in the UK comes from renewable resources?



The UK actually uses less energy per person now than it did in 2000. Why might this be? Just jot down a few ideas – remember, thinking of and recalling ideas helps you to learn, and in an exam you will not be able to look anything up so a bit of practice now is good preparation.

Units used to compare energy usage on large scales

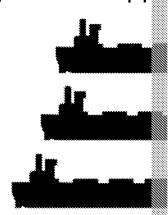
Kilowatt-hour (kWh) – used for electricity usage, e.g. a 5 kW kettle used for 10 minutes uses 0.5 kWh.

Joule (J) – the standard SI unit of energy is only used occasionally; this is simply because the numbers would be so large they would be too confusing to use, e.g. in 2019 the UK used 5 945 200 000 000 000 J. This is too inconvenient.

Millions of tonnes of oil equivalent (Mtoe) – when comparing very different energy sources like coal and solar, the amount of energy is compared to how much energy can be supplied by burning a million tonnes of crude oil.

In joules, that is a massive 4.1868×10^{16} J!

Put another way, that's roughly the same as **3.7 oil tankers'** worth of energy.



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Data interpretation

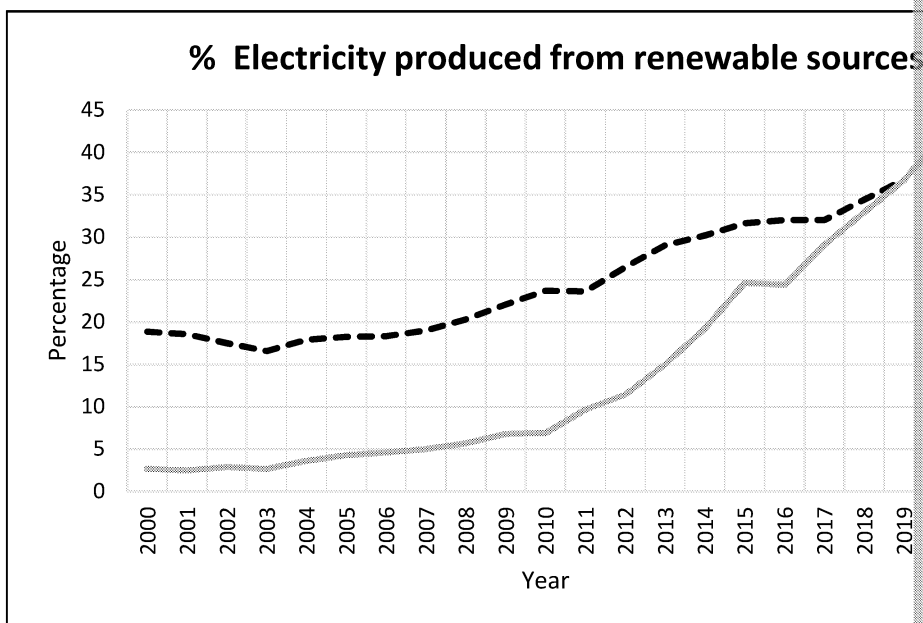


Figure 5

Figure 5 shows what percentage of electricity generated in the UK and in Europe is from **renewable energy** sources.

Example question 1

Describe the change in percentage of electricity generated from renewable energy sources in the UK between 2000 and 2020.

Tip: Because the command word in the question is **describe**, you only need to say what the values are to explain why it changes or to justify your answer – just literally describe what has happened. Look for **overall trends** and any **sudden changes**.

Example answer: In 2000, the UK produced around 2.5 % of its electricity from renewable energy sources. By 2020, this had risen to 42 % [overall trend]. It increased steadily from 2000 to 2010, then increased more rapidly [sudden change].

Example question 2

Compare the changes in percentage of electricity produced by renewable energy sources in the UK between 2000 and 2019.

Tip: **Compare** questions require you to write about **both** options (Europe and the UK). If the trends are the same, then any **differences** in the values are also important.

Example answer: The percentage of electricity produced from renewable sources in the UK increases from 2000 to 2019 [similarity in both data trends]. However, in 2000 Europe produced 18.5 % of its electricity from renewables; in the UK, it was only 2.5 % [difference]. By 2019, the UK and Europe produced 36 % and 38 % from renewables [similarity]; therefore, the increase for the UK was greater over the 19-year period [difference].

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Task A

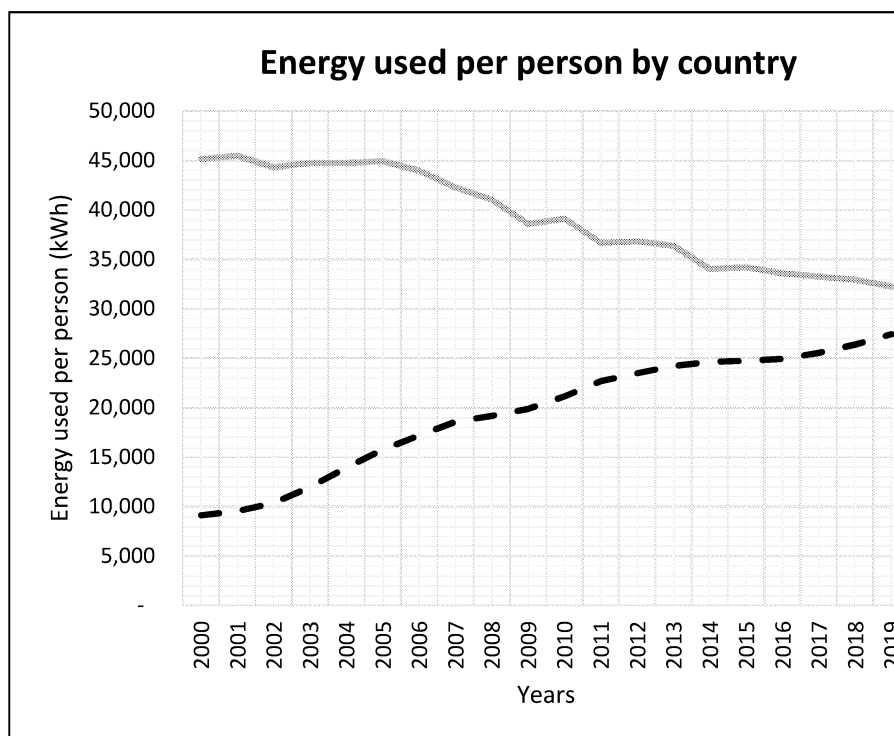


Figure 6

This graph illustrates how the energy used by China and the UK has changed between 2000 and 2019. The data is shown as kilowatt-hours per person. In 2000, the UK had a population of 67.9 million. Over the same period of time, China's population has increased from 1.2 billion to 1.439 billion.

1. Compare the energy used per person in the UK and China from 2000 to 2019. Justify your answer.
2. Suggest two reasons why the energy used per person is changing in China. Justify your answer.
3. The trend in the data suggests that the UK is now using less energy per person. On average, how much is this changing per year, and why do you think it is changing? Give two suggestions.

Tip: Make sure in part 1 you are comparing the two countries. What do they have in common? What are they different? Try to use a few values taken from the graph to help explain and illustrate your answer.

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Environmental impact of different energy sources

All energy sources have an impact on the environment – there is no such thing as a free energy source. It is a matter of balance between impact on the environment and the benefits of the energy source. The impact can be divided into four main areas of consideration:

- **Construction** – building the infrastructure for extraction, production or generation
 - A wind farm needs land or seabed to sit on. The concrete has to be brought in, it sets, etc.
- **Extraction** – the processes need to collect or access the energy source.
 - Oil extraction burns off excess gas and produces CO₂, etc.
 - All sources need land and/or seabed to build on.
 - Uranium, coal and gas all need to be mined, causing damage to the land.
- **Transport/storage**
 - Oil needs either to be shipped or to flow through pipelines. Electricity needs to be transported from the generation site to point of use, such as your house.
- **Point of use**
 - Burning a fuel – fossil fuels and biomass produce CO₂ and other airborne pollutants. Nuclear produces nuclear waste that is radioactive for millions of years.
 - Making magnets for electricity production creates heavy metal toxic waste. This is a problem in certain provinces in China, for example.

Task B

One area of concern over the use of wind farms has been the impact that the structures and the rotating blades could have on birds as they fly through a wind farm. One study collected data on the causes of death to birds and used this to estimate the annual global death rate for different causes of death to birds, not including natural causes or predation from wild animals.

Cause	Annual deaths (estimate)
Aeroplanes	25,000
Buildings/windows	550,000,000
Cats	100,000,000
Communication towers	4,500,000
Overhead power lines	130 000,000
Pesticides	67,000,000
Vehicles	80,000,000
Wind turbines	28,500

Research suggests that birds avoid wind turbines, with some flying over the flight path by several kilometres. However, one study is that the noise from the turbines is detected by the birds and they avoid them.

If this is true it has implications for wind farms near nature reserves and sites of endangered species and migration routes.

1. How many birds on average are estimated to be killed by each of the following causes of death? Give your answer in standard form.
 - a. Wind turbines
 - b. Cats
 - c. Communication towers
2. The research team concluded that wind farms have no significant impact on the environment as a result of building and operating wind farms.

Do you agree with this conclusion? Use the data provided to justify your opinion.

Exam-style questions

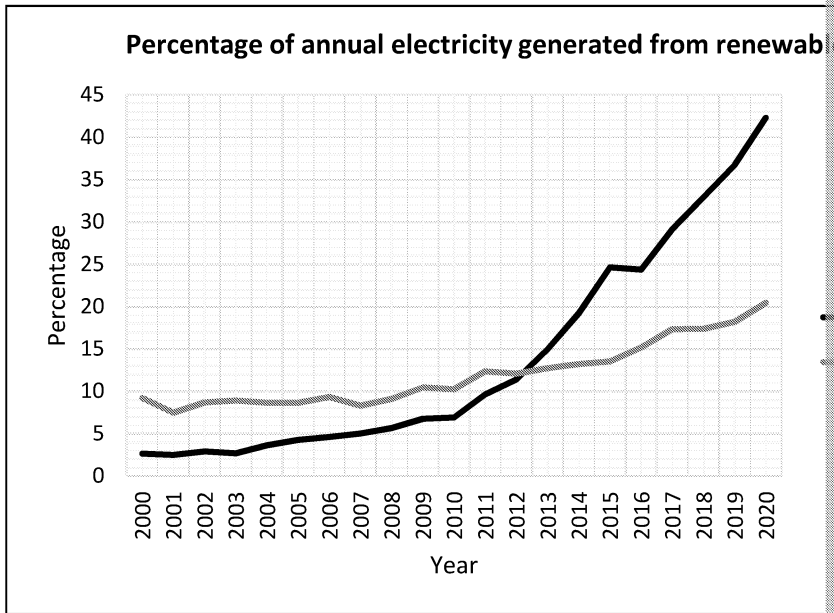


Figure 1

1. Over the last two decades, the use of renewable energy sources to generate electricity has become common in many countries around the world. Figure 1 shows the percentage of electricity generated from renewable sources in the UK and the USA since 2000.

a. Give two examples of renewable energy sources that could be used in both the UK and the USA.

1.
2.

b. In what year did the UK and the USA generate the same amount of electricity from renewable sources?

.....

c. In 2000, the UK gained only 9 % of its energy from renewable sources. Name four other energy sources that were used to make up the other 91 %.

1.
2.
3.
4.

d. Describe the changes in the UK use of renewable energy sources from 2000 to 2020.

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e. Compare the change in use of renewable energy sources between the U

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Year	Oil	Gas	Coal	Nuclear	Solar	Hydro	Wind
2000	955	1013	427	236	0.003		
2019	863	788	73	139	31		

Table 1: UK energy consumption (Mtoe)

a. In 2000, which energy source had the highest level of consumption?

.....

b. Which of the non-renewable sources is not classed as a fossil fuel?

.....

c. Figure 2 below shows the data for 2000. Complete the graph using the data from Table 1. The first set of data has been added for you as an example.

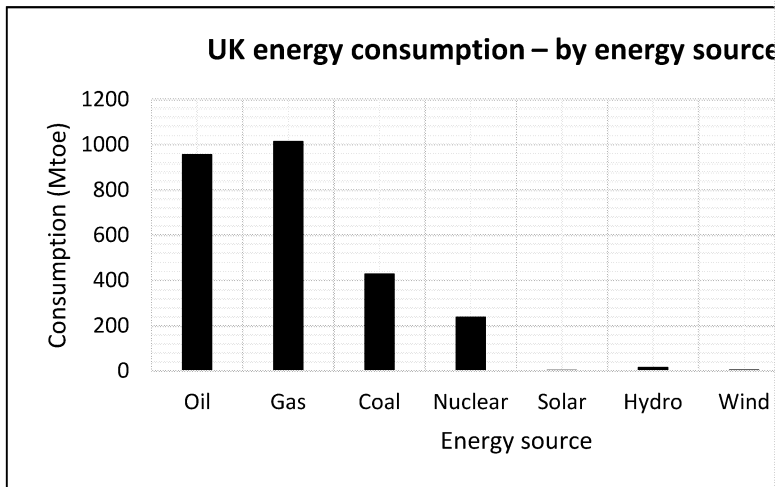


Figure 2

d. The UK government believes that the UK is moving to a sustainable energy source. This is also better for the environment. Do you agree with this statement? Justify your answer.

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Chapter 3: Power in electricity and transformers

Introduction

This chapter focuses on two key aspects of the topic of electricity: **electrical power** and **transformers**. As well as focusing on an understanding of the theory for each of these, you will have the chance to further develop your skills in manipulating equations and applying them to problems.

To understand these two topics it is important to have a clear understanding of some of the basic concepts of electricity.

Electrical current denoted in equations by the symbol I .

Definition: Electrical current is a flow of electrical charge.

The size of the electric current in a circuit depends on the rate of flow of electrons. In most circuits, the charge is carried by the free electrons in the conductor.

Potential difference (p.d.) or voltage denoted in equations by the symbol V .

Definition: The amount of energy transferred between points in a circuit.

A useful way to think about p.d. is to imagine it as the 'force' that makes the electrons move in a circuit. So, if the circuit stays the same, and then if you increase the p.d. (voltage), the current flowing in the circuit increases. (This is Ohm's law.)

A higher p.d. means more energy is being transferred in the circuit.

Electrical power

Power in physics is a measure of the **rate of transfer of energy**. Rate always means how often something happens. So **power is how much energy is transferred, how quickly**.

In a circuit, the amount of energy transferred is the *potential difference* – this tells you how much energy is transferred. You also need to know how quickly this happens. The energy is 'carried' by the charged particles. The amount of energy that moves is measured by the current.

So, electrical power = how much energy is transferred \times how quickly it is transferred

giving the equation: *power = potential difference \times current (or $P = VI$)*

Power is measured in watts (W) – this is the same as joules per second.

Example: Two bulbs both produce the **same amount of light**; however, one is a modern LED and the other is a traditional filament bulb.

Each second the LED transfers 5 J of energy to produce the light, but the filament bulb needs to transfer 60 J each second.

Given that mains electricity in the UK is 230 V, what is the current flowing through the filament bulb?

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power = voltage \times current $P = VI$

$$P = 60 \text{ W}, V = 230 \text{ V}$$

$$P = VI$$

$$\therefore I = \frac{P}{V}$$

$$I = 60 \div 230$$

$$I = 0.26 \text{ A}$$

Calculate the current in the LED.

The equation for power can also be expressed as $P = I^2 R$ where R is the resistance.

Explanation

Recall Ohm's law equation: $V = IR$ (potential difference = current \times resistance)

If V is substituted by this in the power equation it becomes $P = (IR) \times I = I^2 R$

Example of finding the resistance of a component

What is the resistance of the 60 W bulb?

We have already worked out the current in this bulb as 0.26 A

$$\text{So if } P = I^2 R \text{ then } R = P \div I^2 \therefore R = 60 \div (0.26)^2 = 887.6 \text{ } \Omega$$

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Energy transfer in everyday appliances

In most real situations, knowing the energy transferred is more important than the power. After all, when the electricity bill arrives it is the energy that we are paying for, not the power.

The power rating on a device tells us how much energy is transferred per second. To find the energy transfer we need to know how long the device was operating for.

$$\text{energy transferred} = \text{power} \times \text{time} \quad \text{or} \quad E = Pt$$

Example: A 5 W LED bulb lights up a room for four hours. How much energy is transferred in this time?

$$E = Pt$$

$$P = 5 \text{ W}, t = (4 \text{ hours} \times 60 \text{ minutes} \times 60 \text{ seconds}) = 14\,400 \text{ s}$$

$$E = Pt$$

$$E = 5 \times 14\,400$$

$$E = 72\,000 \text{ J} \equiv 72 \text{ kJ}$$

Task A

A standard kettle transfers energy to boil the water. On the base of the kettle is a heating element – shown in the diagram. Use this information to answer the following questions.

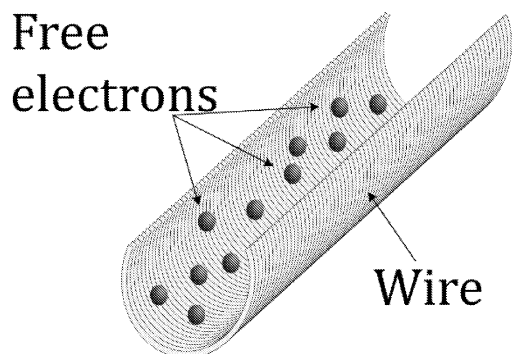
1. What is the power rating of the kettle, in watts?
2. Calculate the current flowing in the kettle's circuit.
3. Assuming the kettle takes five minutes to boil the water, how much energy has been transferred in this time?
4. What is the total resistance of the kettle's circuits?

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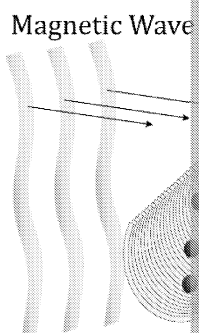


Induced potential

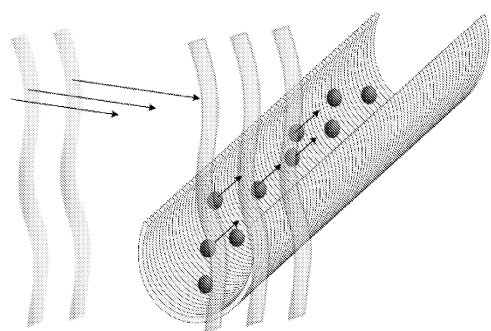
If a magnetic field moves relative to a conductor, a current is induced in it, provided the conductor is part of a closed circuit. So waving a magnet over a wire makes the charge (electrons) move in the wire; moving a wire through a magnetic field does the same. The opposite is also true, so any current flowing in a wire, etc. produces a magnetic field.



No current: the free electrons are not flowing in the wire; no charge is flowing.

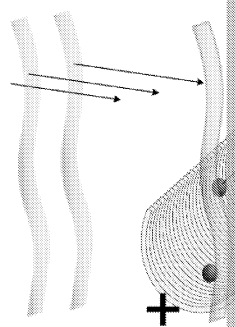


A magnetic field is moving past the wire.



As the magnetic field passes through the wire it induces movement in the electrons. The charge is now flowing, so a current has been induced.

The flow is at **right angles** to the magnetic field.



The flow of charge towards the positive end creates a potential difference. One end is more positive than the other.

It is important to remember that induction of a current will also happen if the magnet (or conductor) moves through it. The conductor and the magnetic field must move relative to each other.

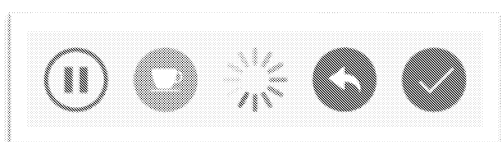
The motion of the charge results in a difference in the electrical potential across the wire. This difference has also been induced, meaning energy is being transferred as the current flows.

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Controlling the induced potential and current

- Magnetic field strength
- Speed of relative motion of the magnetic field and the conductor
- Amount of conductor affected – in a generator, etc., this is the number of coils
- Direction of motion – unlike the other factors this does not affect the size of the induced current, but the direction of flow of the current and the polarity of the p.d. which is '–'



This might be a good time to pause and come back and think about the work on this page (draw it, write bullet points – your notes and correct them if needed) on revision.

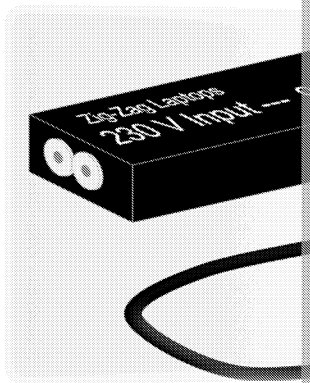
Applications of the generator effect

The induction of a p.d. and a current is also known as the **generator effect**. There is this in the real world:

- generating electricity (AC and DC)
- microphones
- transformers

Transformers

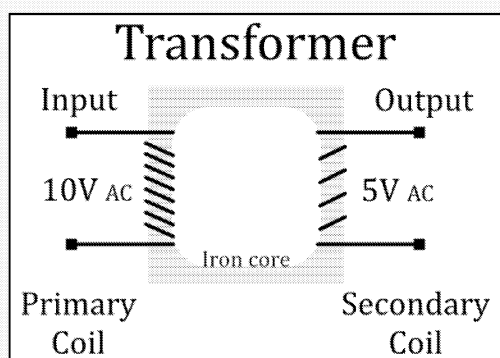
Most modern homes have a wide variety of electrical devices, cookers, TVs, mobile phones, etc. All of these need a different voltage to operate correctly, but in the UK the supply to the house is fixed at 230 V. So we need to be able to vary the voltage for different uses.



The national grid supplies electricity to homes, industry, schools, hospitals, etc. The overhead power lines have to run at very high voltages (400 000 V) to reduce the loss of energy due to heat, but your house needs only a 230 V supply.

Transformers are used to either **step up (boost)** or **step down (lower)** the voltage. All transformers operate in the same way.

Transformer design



- The main section is a **laminated iron core** (it's a laminated core? See the next page to find out.)
- One side has a coil of wire wrapped around it - the **primary coil**. This is the **input** side.
- On the opposite side is the **secondary coil** - the **output** side.

Critical fact: No electricity flows through the iron core. The primary and secondary coils are connected to the input and output respectively.

How a transformer works – it's all about induction

Transformers only work with alternating current (AC) electricity.

The alternating p.d. in the primary coil → induces a fluctuating¹ magnetic field in the iron core.

The fluctuating magnetic field is present in all parts of the iron core.

The fluctuating magnetic field → induces an alternating p.d. in the secondary coil.

Question: Why do transformers only work with AC electricity, not DC?



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↑ Step-up transformers have fewer coils on the primary coil compared to the secondary coil (less to more, up – coils and voltage)

↓ Step-down transformers have more coils on the primary coil compared to the secondary coil (more to less, down – coils and voltage)

Calculating voltage changes in transformers

The principle is very simple – the ratio of the number of turns on each coil is the same as the ratio in voltage.

8 : 4 number of turns on coils – ratio is 2 : 1

10 : 5 input V : output V – ratio is 2 : 1

Real transformers use hundreds or even thousands of coils.

Variables:

n_p – number of coils on the primary coil

n_s – number of coils on the secondary coil

V_p – voltage across the primary coil

V_s – voltage across the secondary coil

$\left[\frac{V_p}{V_s} = \frac{n_p}{n_s} \right]$ this equation will be given in the exam on the equation sheet.

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Worked example

A transformer has 200 turns on the primary coil and 1000 turns on the secondary coil. What is the output voltage for a 230 V input?

$$\left[\frac{V_p}{V_s} = \frac{n_p}{n_s} \right] \therefore V_s = \frac{V_p \times n_s}{n_p}$$

$$V_s = (230 \times 1000) \div 200 = \underline{1150 V}$$

Alternative – using ratio

$$200 V : 1000 V \equiv 1 : 5$$

$$\therefore 230 V \times 5 = 1150 V$$

Power and transformers

In theory, the electrical power output from a transformer should be equal to the electrical power input. If we know the input voltage and current we can say that:

$$V_p \times I_p = V_s \times I_s \text{ – where } I_p \text{ and } I_s \text{ represent the primary and secondary currents}$$

In the above example, if the input current was 10 A, what is the output current?

$$V_p \times I_p = V_s \times I_s \therefore I_s = \frac{V_p \times I_p}{V_s}$$

$$I_s = (230 \times 10) \div 1150 = 2 A$$

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Task B

The diagram to the right shows part of the rating plate for a laptop. Unfortunately, the details showing the input current have been rubbed away.

1. The technician needs to replace the fuse for this laptop. Which fuse should they use – 0.5 A, 1 A, 3 A or 5 A? Show how you worked out the answer to this question.
2. The input coil has 1179 coils; how many coils must be on the secondary coil to achieve the change in voltage shown on this rating plate?
3. What is the electrical power rating of this device based on the output data? nearest integer.
4. If it was operating for 24 hours, how much energy would the laptop transfer (standard form).

Input: 2
Output

CE

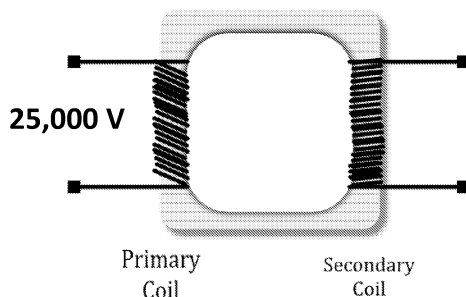
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Exam-style questions

1. A conventional power station generates electricity at 25,000 V. The transmission lines use 400,000 V. A transformer is used for this process.



- a. What type of transformer is used in this example?
-
- b. If the primary coil has 2000 turns, how many turns are needed on the secondary coil to increase the voltage from 25,000 V to the 400,000 V required for transmission?

- c. Is the input voltage AC or DC?
-
- d. Explain how this transformer is able to increase the voltage from 25,000 V to 400,000 V.

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2. A standard domestic electrical cooker uses 230 V at 13 A from the home's mains supply.

- a. What is the power rating of this cooker?

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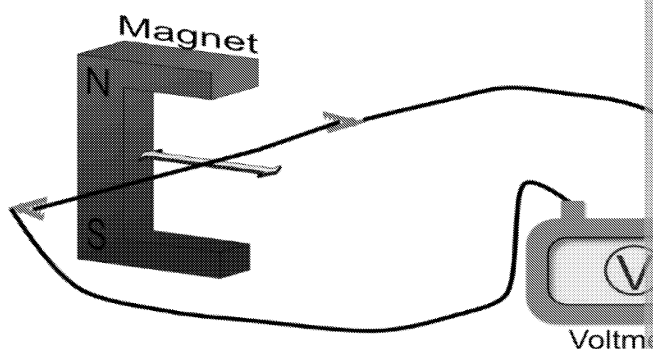
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b. The cooker is used to prepare a meal and is used for 1 hour 45 minutes. How much energy is transferred in this time by the cooker?

c. Calculate the resistance of the element that is used by the cooker if it has a current of 10 A.

3. A student is investigating the properties of electricity. They have a strong U-shaped magnet and a wire connected to a voltmeter between the poles as indicated in the diagram below. The wire is connected to a voltmeter.



a. State what will happen to the reading on the voltmeter in this experiment as the wire moves to the right, as shown by the arrow.

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b. What would happen to the reading on the voltmeter if the wire was moved to the left between the north and south poles of the magnet?

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c. Explain the differences in these two observations.

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Chapter 4: Static electric electrical fields

Introduction

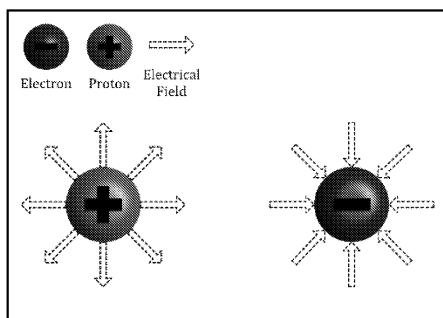
Electrical fields exist around charged particles or objects within which a force can act on particles. In this section you will concentrate on understanding how these fields act on other charged objects.

In this chapter you will concentrate on improving your skills at providing grade 9 answers to questions that require explanation and use of definitions. It is also a good opportunity to use your own diagrams to help illustrate more complex answers.

Radial electrical fields

All charged particles such as electrons and protons have an electric field that radiates out from them. The strength of this field decreases with the distance from the particle.

All drawings of this idea of a field around a particle use arrows to represent the field. The direction that a positively charged particle would move if placed inside this field is the direction of the field.



Electrical field arrows point

- away from the positive
- towards the negative

← This type of field around a charge is as a **radial field**.

Two **unlike** charges and the forces act in the same direction to pull the particles together; the particles **attract** each other.



Two positive charges and the **forces push against** each other to **repel** the particles.



Two negative charges and the **forces push away** from each other to **repel** the particles.



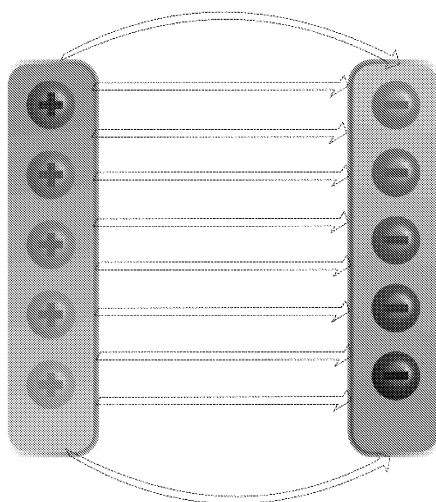
The closer the particles are, the stronger the force and so the greater the speed of **contact forces**.

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Linear uniform fields



When two objects of opposite charge are placed together an electrical field exists between them.

If the objects are free to move they will attract each other.

If they are fixed then the field remains between them.

The field will affect the motion of any charged particles in the field.

A beam of electrons would be pulled in towards the positive plate; in this example, they would bend towards the left.

Question:

What would happen to the electrical field if the two charged plates in the diagram above were brought closer together?

How might you show this on the diagram?



This idea is used in a cathode ray (electron beam) tube. They were used in TV sets to illuminate dots of fluorescent-coloured materials – this was used to create an image on the screen.

Task A

As part of your practice for writing longer answers in the formal exam, in this task you will write a written presentation.

In your presentation you need to explain:

- what an electrical field is
- the effect of an electrical field on charged particles
- the difference between a radial field and a uniform field

If you have someone to present or show this to who is not a physicist, try seeing if you can explain it to them.

The answer sheet gives you the key ideas that you should have covered, but how you should include at least one diagram of your own design.

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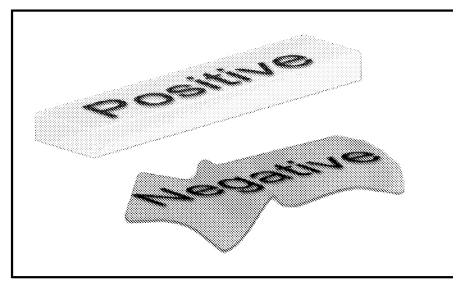
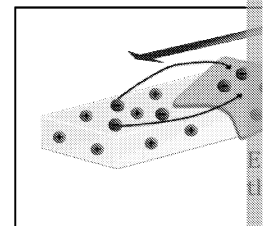
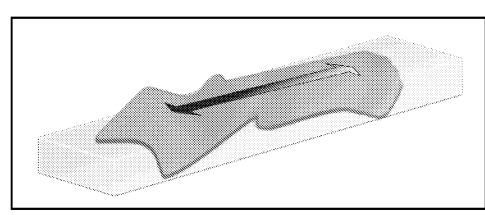
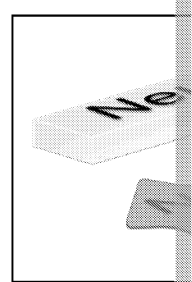
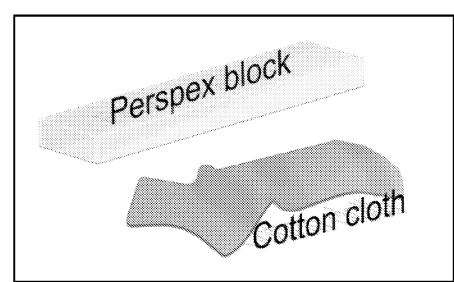
Static electricity

Normally objects are electrically neutral. This is because they have an **even number** of charged particles in them that are **evenly distributed**.

If this balance is changed, the objects will become charged. This can happen in three ways:

1. Electrons (negative) are added → negative
2. Electrons are removed → positive
3. Electrons are moved from one end/side to the other → a polarised

Although protons could be moved to create a charged object, they are much larger and are held in the nucleus of the atom; electrons are much smaller and not as tightly held by many nuclei.

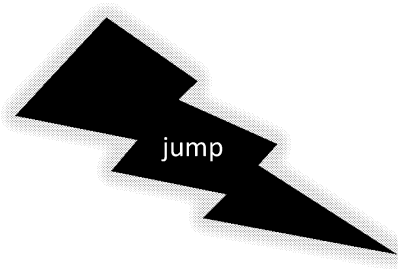


The act of rubbing the cloth on the Perspex creates friction; this force moves electrons from the Perspex to the cloth, leading to a static charge on each of the objects.

All charged objects try to return to a neutral state by allowing excess electrons to flow away, or by gaining extra electrons from their surroundings, such as the air or any solid objects they are touching.

Did you know?
The sound of a spark is caused by the superheated air that glows – it's the same as sound from a lightning bolt.

A spark is a dramatic example of this. Negative on this side (extra electrons).



Neutral objects know...

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¹ polarised means that there is a difference in the charge across the object (as in a magnet)

Task B

In this application of the use of static electricity, the metal plate to be sprayed with paint from the spray gun can be charged.

The plate is given a positive charge via the wire connected at the base.

The paint in the spray gun can be charged too.

- In this example, what charge would be given to the paint? Explain your answer.
- What would need to happen to the metal plate in order for it to become positively charged?
- This system is used in many manufacturing processes that require the paint to be applied to a surface. It is especially useful for objects with complex shapes, such as a car body. Explain how this system is useful in this situation and why it results in less wastage of paint during the spraying process. Use a diagram to help illustrate your answer.

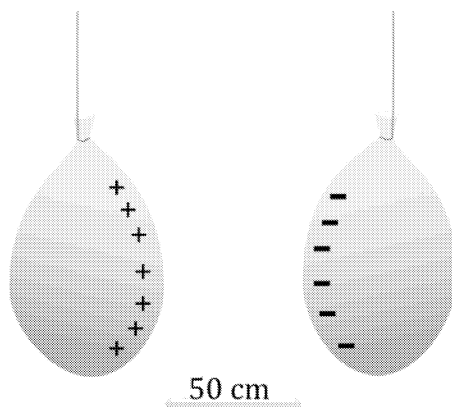
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Exam-style questions

1.



A group of students are investigating the effects of static electricity on the motion of balloons. Two balloons are suspended from freely moving pieces of string. Both balloons were rubbed with cloths made from different materials. Their respective charges are shown.

- a. Explain what effect the rubbing with the cloth had on the right-hand side balloon's charge state shown.

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- b. At the start of the investigation the balloons are stationary and 50 cm apart. They are then moved closer together, and at 10 cm apart the balloons swing on their strings. Above, draw arrows to show the direction of movement of each balloon.

- c. Using a suitable diagram, explain in terms of electrical fields why the balloons swing.

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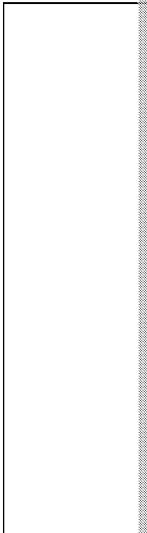
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- d. One of the students suggests that once the balloons touch they will lose their charges and swing back to their original positions. State whether you agree with this statement and explain why.

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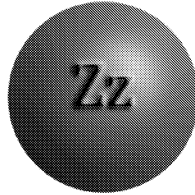
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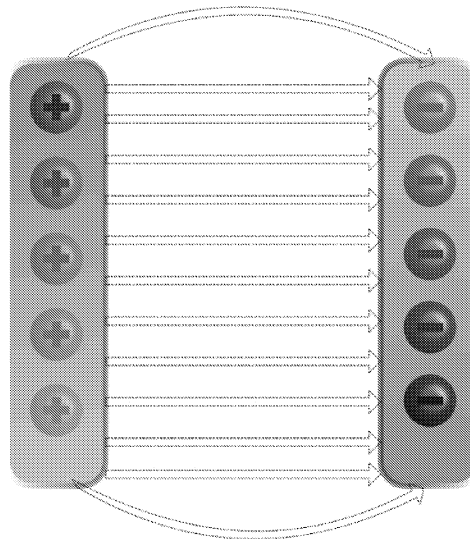
2. During a high-energy collision of atoms, a new subatomic particle is discovered. Physicists notice that it was repelled in the presence of stationary electrons.
- a. What does this suggest about the electrical charge of the zagatron?

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- b. On the diagram below, draw arrows to indicate the possible electrical field from the information discovered about it so far.



- c. i. On the diagram below, draw a line to show how a beam of zagatrons would pass between the charged plates from the bottom upwards.



- ii. Explain why this is likely to happen in terms of forces involved and electrical fields.

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- iii. Is the force experienced by the beam of zagatrons a contact force or a non-contact force?

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Chapter 5: Temperature change in a closed system and specific heat capacity

Introduction

In this chapter you will look at latent heat capacity of materials and how this affects materials. A recap of specific heat capacity is included here as it is related to latent heat.

In addition this is a chance to further develop your skills in understanding and using scientific language to write grade 9 answers.

Temperature and internal energy

To understand this module it is important to understand the concept of *temperature*, *internal energy* and the motion of the particles in the material.

All atoms/molecules above absolute zero are in motion, from vibration in solids to random motion in gases. This is the basis of the *kinetic theory of matter*.

The total of the *kinetic energy* and the *potential energy* of all the moving particles is its *internal energy*. This internal energy is measured as its **temperature**.

If we **add thermal energy** to a material this **increases the total internal energy of the material** and its **temperature increases**. (Heating up)

If we allow some of the internal energy to escape to the surroundings as thermal energy, the **total internal energy of the material decreases** and its **temperature of the material decreases**. (Cooling down)

Task A

Complete the following sentences:

When a beaker of water is heated by a Bunsen burner, the **total internal energy** of the water **increases** (the **kinetic energy** of the water molecules **increases**). This means the **temperature of the water increases**. This is measured as an **increase in temperature**.

How quickly will a material change temperature?

How quickly these changes take place is a measure of the specific heat capacity of the material.

- Metals have low specific heat capacities so change their internal energy quickly (change in internal energy is high).
- Water has a high specific heat capacity so changes its internal energy slowly (change in internal energy is low).

Question:

Given the same amount of additional thermal energy from a heater, which material will change temperature the most – aluminium or water?

Answer:

In Chapter 1 you used the formula for specific heat capacity:

$\Delta E = mc\Delta t$ or *change in energy = mass × specific heat capacity × change in temperature*

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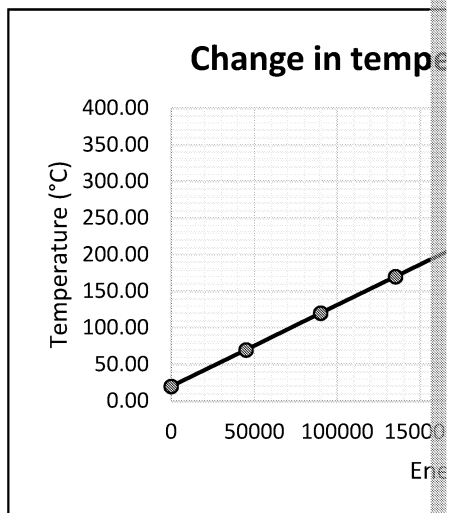
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1 kg of water was heated from 20 °C using a heater connected to a joule meter; for every 45,000 additional joules of energy.

The data is shown below.

Energy (J)	Temperature (°C)
0	20.00
45 000	30.71
90 000	41.43
135 000	52.14
180 000	62.86
225 000	73.57
270 000	84.29
315 000	95.00



Task B

1. Describe the change in the temperature of the water in relation to the energy added.
2. Aluminium has a specific heat capacity of 900 J/kg/°C. If this experiment was repeated with aluminium, how would the gradient of the line on the graph **compare** to the gradient of the line for water?

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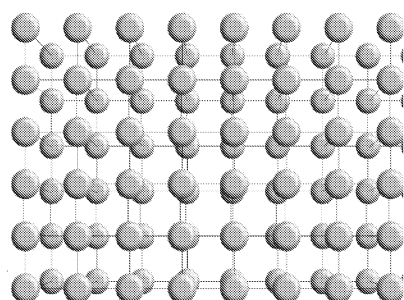
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Specific latent heat

In both experiments described previously, the temperatures were controlled to ensure that the material did not change state, i.e. the water remained liquid and the aluminium remained solid.

What happens to the internal structure of a material as it changes state?

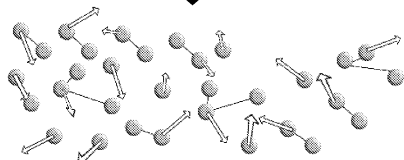


Solid: The molecules are in a close structure. As they take in thermal energy they increase their internal energy of the material.

Any thermal energy added is used to make the molecules vibrate. Thus the temperature increases in a uniform way.



Melting



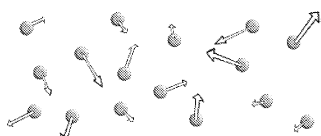
The thermal energy is used to break the bonds between the molecules. There is no increase in temperature.

Liquid: There are still some bonds remaining between the molecules of the substance.

Any added thermal energy increases the molecular energy and so does the temperature.



Boiling



The bonds are being broken.

The thermal energy is used to break the remaining bonds. There is no increase in temperature.

Gas: Additional thermal energy increases the molecular energy, increasing the internal energy, which leads to an increase in temperature.

During each change in state:

- there is **no change in temperature**
- the energy is being used to break the bonds during melting and boiling

When a material is cooling down – gas to liquid to solid – the opposite is true. All the energy comes from the formation of the bonds not the slowing down of the particles.

The amount of energy used or released to change state is known as the **specific latent heat**. This is measured in **joules per kilogram, J/kg**.

Latent heat of fusion: the amount of energy required for 1 kg of a material to change from solid to liquid with no change in temperature. (*Melting and freezing*)

Latent heat of vaporisation: the amount of energy required for 1 kg of a material to change from liquid to gas (or vapour) with no change in temperature. (*Boiling and condensing*)

Both are calculated using the same formula:

$$E = mL \quad \text{energy for change in state} = \text{mass} \times \text{specific latent heat}$$

The value of 'L' is different for fusion and vaporisation for each material.

e.g. Water – $L_{(fusion)} = 334\,000 \text{ J/kg}$ $L_{(vaporisation)} = 2\,260\,000 \text{ J/kg}$

So, for 1 L (1 kg) of water to go from water to steam at 100 °C takes 2260 kJ of energy.

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Worked example

How much energy in total has to be supplied to turn 0.1 kg of ice into steam at 100 °C?

To make the numbers easier to work with we will use kilojoules rather than joules.

Melting ice to water

$$E = mL_{(f)} \text{ where } m = 0.1 \text{ kg } L_{(f)} = 334 \text{ kJ/kg}$$

$$E = 0.1 \times 334 = 33.4 \text{ kJ (to melt the ice to water)}$$

Heating water from 0 °C to 100 °C

$$\Delta E = mc \Delta t \text{ where } m = 0.1 \text{ kg, } c = 4.2 \text{ kJ/kg/}^\circ\text{C and } \Delta t = 100$$

$$\Delta E = 0.1 \times 4.2 \times 100 = 42 \text{ kJ}$$

Boiling water to steam at 100 °C

$$E = mL_{(v)} \text{ where } m = 0.1 \text{ kg and } L_{(v)} = 2260 \text{ kJ/kg}$$

$$E = 0.1 \times 2260 = 226 \text{ kJ}$$

$$\text{Total} = 33.4 + 42 + 226 = 301.4 \text{ kJ}$$

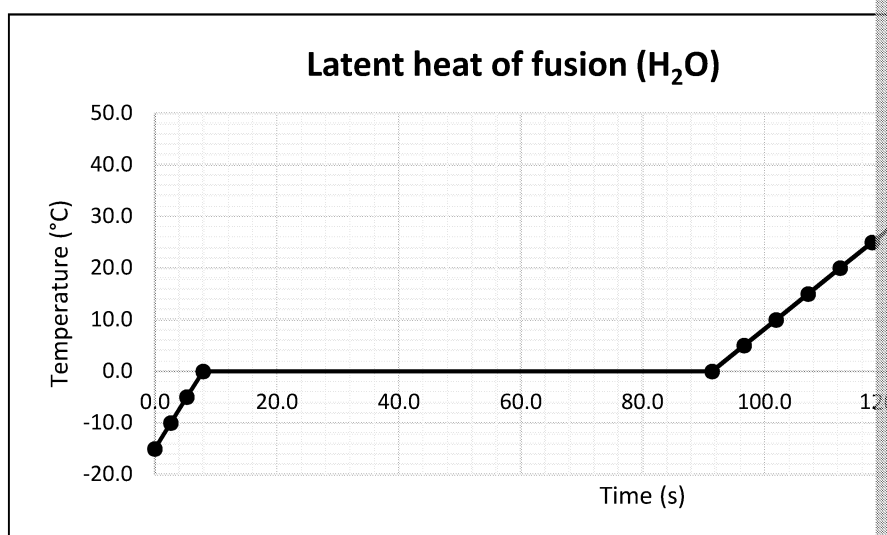
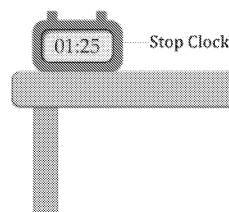
Note how most of the energy supplied (nearly 75 % of the energy) is actually just to boil the water rather than heating the water.

Observing latent heat

To observe the latent heat of fusion for water, a sample of ice can be gently heated and the temperature recorded over time.

To the right is an example of the equipment and set-up that can be used.

In this example, the heater and the thermometer were 'frozen' into the ice before the experiment began. The data from the investigation is shown below.



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The period of time where the temperature remains on zero represents the time to point any supplied energy from the heater is not changing the temperature of the

From the graph it is possible to calculate the latent heat of fusion.

The graph levels out at 0 °C after 7.9 s and remains at this temperature until 91.4 s. The heater has a power of 2000 W and the mass of ice is 0.5 kg.

Recall that energy = power \times time ($E = Pt$) $\therefore E = 2000 \times (91.4 - 7.9) = 167\,000$ J

energy = mass \times latent heat of fusion

$$E = mL_f$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore L_f &= E \div m = 167\,000 \div 0.5 \\ &= 334\,000 \text{ J/kg} \equiv 334 \text{ kJ/kg} - \text{latent heat of fusion for water} \end{aligned}$$

Task C

The aforementioned investigation was continued until the water had boiled and the temperature had risen to 110.0 °C. Use this information to calculate the latent heat of vaporisation of this water sample.

Time (s)	Temp (°C)
133.4	40.0
138.7	45.0
143.9	50.0
149.2	55.0
154.4	60.0
159.7	65.0
164.9	70.0
170.2	75.0
175.4	80.0
180.7	85.0
185.9	90.0
191.2	95.0
196.4	100.0
763.5	100.0
764.0	105.0
766.5	110.0

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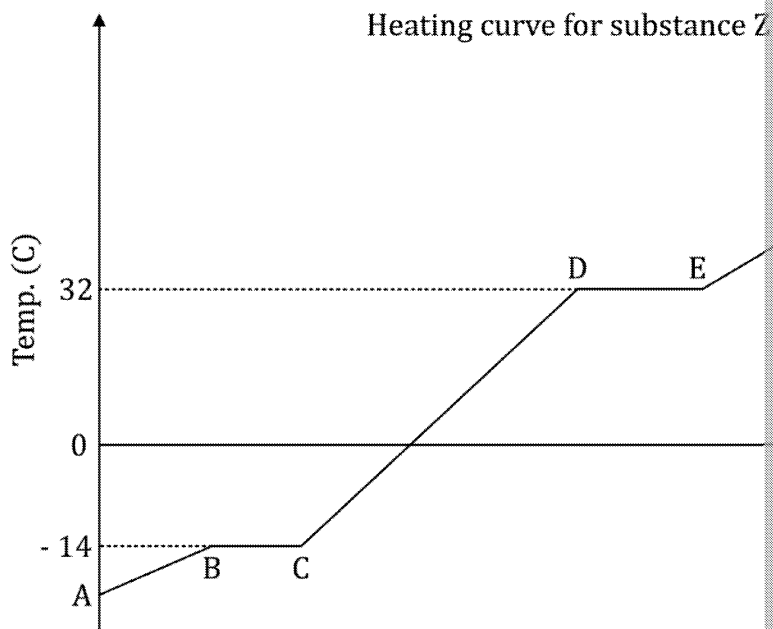


Exam-style questions

1. a. Define the term latent heat of vaporisation.

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- b. The graph below shows the temperature of substance Z as it is heated.



- i. Explain what is happening to substance Z in sections **CD** and **DE** of the graph.

Section **CD**:

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Section **DE**:

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- ii. What is the melting point of substance Z?

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- iii. What is the state of substance Z in section **EF** of the graph?

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- c. Explain what effect the thermal energy supplied from the heater is having on substance Z from section **AB** of the graph.

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2. A sample of stearic acid of mass 20 g is heated using a 60 W heater from 20 °C.

- a. What apparatus could be used to measure the temperature of the stearic acid?

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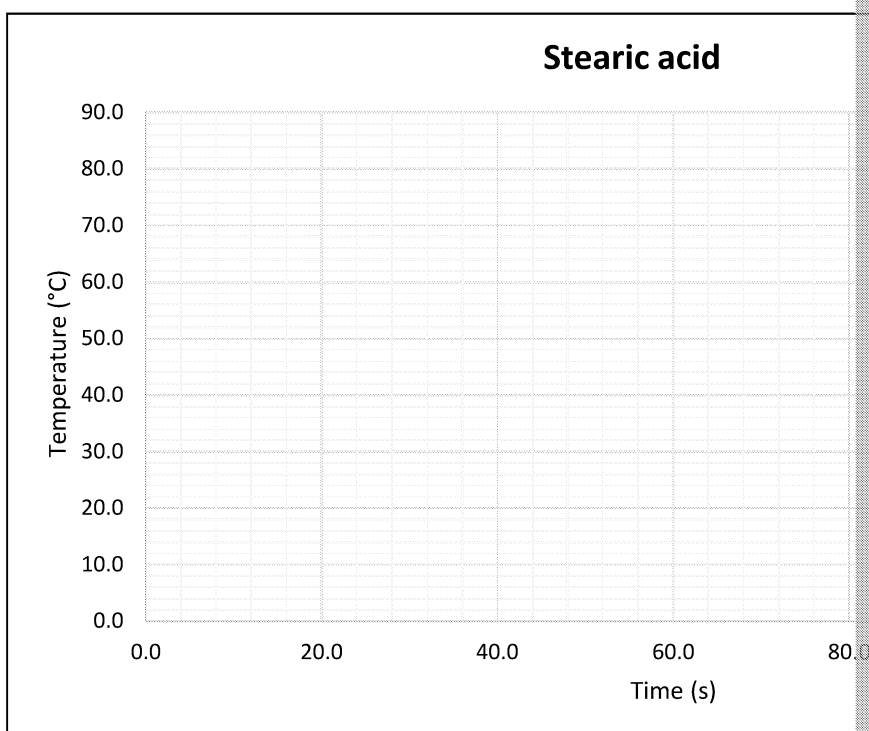
- b. Suggest one piece of personal safety equipment that should be used when carrying out this experiment.

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- c. The data from this investigation is presented in the table below.

Temperature (°C)	Time (s)
20.0	0.0
30.0	7.7
40.0	15.3
50.0	23.0
60.0	30.7
69.3	37.8
69.3	104.1
80.0	111.8

- i. Use this data to plot a graph using the axes provided.



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ii. From the data, state the melting point of the stearic acid. Justify this from the graph.

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iii. Given that the stearic acid was heated using a 60 W heater, calculate the specific latent heat of the stearic acid. Show all your calculations.

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3. a. Define the term specific heat capacity.

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b. Compare the terms specific heat capacity and specific latent heat.

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Chapter 6: Increasing the of a gas

Introduction

This section looks at the higher-level theory of how gases are affected by forces, to simple practical applications such as the bicycle pump.

There are further opportunities to practise using and manipulating equations and style questions that require the use of theory to be applied to specific real-world

Key ideas and concepts required for this chapter

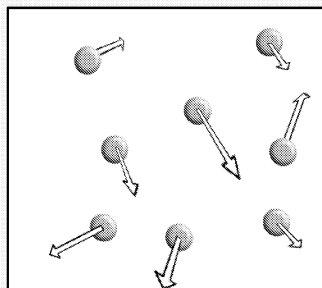
Work is the transfer of energy to a system by the application of a force. Work is

$$(work = force \times distance\ moved \quad W = Fs)$$

Pressure is a measure of the force applied to an object over a given area. Pressure

$$(pressure = \frac{force}{area} \quad p = \frac{F}{A})$$

Gas – has particles that are moving quickly and in a random manner. The speed of the particles increases with temperature. Particles of a gas collide with each other and the surfaces of any container they are in.



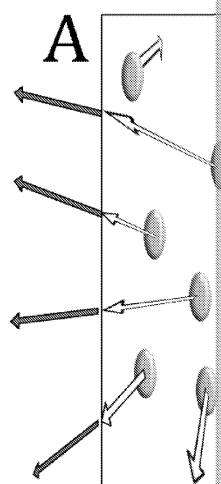
Pressure in a gas

Imagine a box containing a single gas. The box is sealed so that no gas can enter or leave; there is a fixed mass of gas in the box. It is at a constant temperature.

Look at side A.

The particles are moving randomly. When a particle collides with the side, it pushes on it, applying a small force that tries to move the wall outwards.

Although each collision creates only a small push, there are millions of particles so the total effect can be very large. The combined 'pushes' from the collisions creates a force spread out over the whole area of the wall.



A force over an area is pressure – $p = \frac{F}{A}$

The pressure exerted on the walls depends on:

- the number of collisions
 - the speed of the collisions
 - the **area** of the wall
- } Force

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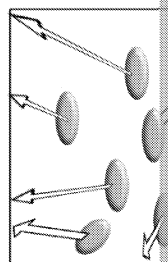


What would happen to the pressure if only the size of the box was changed?

The mass of gas (number of particles) and the temperature (speed of the particles)

Two key factors have changed.

1. The area of wall 'A' has reduced.
2. The space for the particles to move about in has reduced, increasing the chances of them colliding with the wall.



Question: What two things (factors) have **not** changed?

The volume has reduced, meaning there are more collisions, and the area of the wall is smaller; therefore, the pressure has increased.

In a gas the pressure is inversely proportional to the volume. As the volume goes down, the pressure goes up. As the volume goes up, the pressure goes down.

This is expressed as the formula:

$$pV = \text{constant} \quad (\text{pressure} \times \text{volume} = \text{constant}) \quad \text{This is known as Boyle's law}$$

Worked example

A diver begins an ascent from 20 m to the surface holding a balloon with a volume of 1 L. What would the volume of the balloon be on the surface?

At 20 m the pressure is approx. 303 kPa

At the surface it is approx. 101 kPa

At 20 m $pV = \text{constant} = 303\,000 \times 1 = 303\,000$

At the surface, V must still equal 303,000 but the pressure is now only 101,000

so $pV = 303\,000 \therefore V = 303\,000 \div 101\,000 = 3\text{ L}$

The pressure dropped by a factor of three; therefore, the volume increased by a factor of three. The product of the two would remain constant.

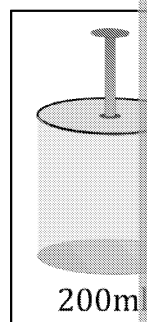
Did you know?

Boyle's law explains why divers should not hold their breath when ascending.

If they did, as they come to the surface, the air in their lungs would expand and could cause them to be injured.

Task A

- a. A 200 mL syringe is sealed at one end. Assuming that the temperature remains constant and that the gas in the syringe is at atmospheric pressure (approx. 101,000 Pa), what would be the pressure of the gas if the syringe plunger was used to reduce the volume of the gas to 50 mL? Show your calculations.
- b. What two factors have changed in this system that result in this change in the pressure of the gas in the syringe?



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Work and pressure in a gas

The idea that as the volume of a gas is reduced the pressure goes up in proportion assuming nothing else is allowed to change can easily be felt if you squeeze a balloon – if you get the pressure high enough the balloon bursts.

In the real world we can't simply ignore the effect that the force we are applying to the balloon or the syringe is having on the gas particles. Any time a force is applied we are doing **work** – that is, we are **transferring energy**.

That energy has to do something – it can't be destroyed (first law of thermodynamics – more on this in the A Level Bridging Section).

Question: What happens to a substance if you add energy to it? (Not sure, then s

Answer: Adding energy to a system, like a gas, results in an **increase in the internal energy**. Another way, the particles move faster – meaning **the gas heats up**.

Task B

Grab a bicycle pump – plug the end with a bit of Blu-Tack® or just put your finger down quickly and see what happens to the temperature of the pump.

Rearrange these statements to explain why this happens.

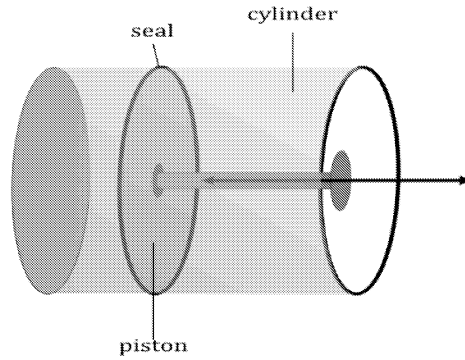
- This results in an increase in the temperature of the gas in the bicycle pump
- The plunger moves
- Work is done in a given direction
- The transferred energy increases the internal energy of the gas particles
- Work transfers energy as a result of the force
- A force is applied to the plunger
- This results in the transfer of the force

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Exam-style questions

1.



A solid cylinder has a piston placed into it, shown above. The piston has an arrow pointing to the right, indicating it is free to move past the piston's head. The piston is free to move.

On the ground, at sea level (0 m), the cylinder contains 500 mL of gas.

- a. The open end of the cylinder allows air to push on the outside of the piston. The pressure of the air is 101 kPa at sea level.

Explain how the air creates pressure on the outer surface of the piston.

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- b. The pressure of the gas on the inside of the cylinder is also 101 kPa at sea level. The cylinder is taken to the open cockpit of a small plane and flown to a height of 3000 m. At this altitude, the pressure inside and outside the cylinder has reduced to 69 kPa.

- i. What will be the new volume of the air inside the cylinder behind the piston at this altitude?

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- ii. Explain why there has been a change in the volume of the gas in the cylinder.

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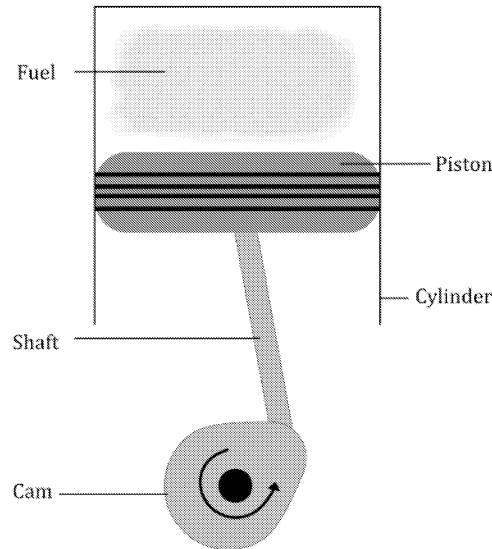
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2. The diagram below shows a simplified cross section of a standard diesel engine



Fuel vapour is injected into the cylinder at the top. As the cam turns, the shaft is rotating, reducing the volume at the top of the cylinder, which contains the fuel vapour.

When the volume at the top is at its minimum, the fuel vapour ignites and drives the piston up the cylinder.

a. State what happens to the pressure of the fuel vapour as the piston moves up the cylinder.

.....

b. When the fuel vapour reaches 80 °C it will ignite. Explain why the fuel ignites and why the piston rises up the cylinder.

.....

3. A balloon is filled with 1.5 L of air at the surface; a diver then takes it down to a depth where the pressure is double that on the surface.

a. What will happen to the volume of air inside the balloon as the diver descends?

.....

b. What will be the volume of air inside the balloon at 10 m? Justify your answer.

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Chapter 7: Atoms and nuclei

Introduction

This chapter recaps the basic structure of atoms so that you can understand their properties of the subatomic particles and the properties of the three types of radiation and the decay of radioactive isotopes.

A detailed understanding of all these concepts is required for Chapter 8, which covers nuclear equations and half-lives.

Subatomic particles – the basics

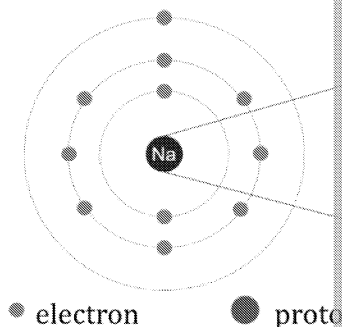
Particle	Relative mass	Charge	Location in atom
Electron	0	-1	Orbit
Proton	1	+1	Nucleus
Neutron	1	0 (no charge)	Nucleus

Atomic structure

In all atoms the protons and neutrons are found in the nucleus, and the electrons in orbits around the nucleus.

As the electrons have no effective mass, all the mass of the atom is concentrated in the nucleus.

Each proton and each neutron has a mass of 1; therefore, the mass of an atom is the total of all the protons and neutrons, known as the **mass number**. For sodium this is 23.



The **atomic number** is the number of protons. For sodium this is 11.

This is written as ${}_{11}^{23}\text{Na}$ *Mass number* *Symbol*
Atomic number

To find the number of neutrons in an atom, subtract the atomic number from the mass number.

$$\text{neutrons} = \text{mass number} - \text{atomic number}$$

The electrons around the atom are not significant in the study of nuclear physics.

Worked example – how many protons and neutrons are found in neptunium 237

Neptunium ${}_{93}^{237}\text{Np}$

Atomic number = 93 \therefore there are **93 protons**

Number of neutrons = mass number – atomic number = 237 – 93 = **144 neutrons**

Task A

How many protons and neutrons make up each of these isotopes?

Strontium ${}_{38}^{87}\text{Sr}$

Lead ${}_{82}^{208}\text{Pb}$

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Isotopes

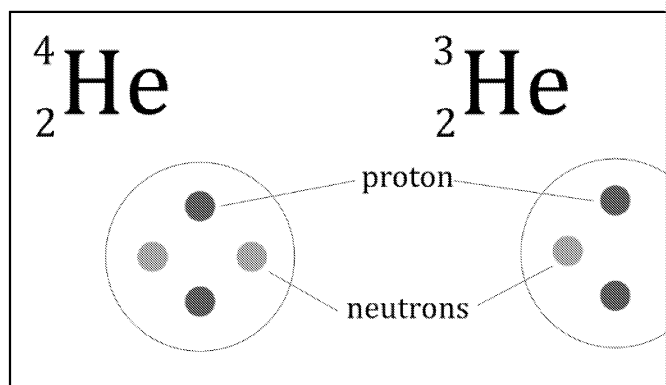
All atoms of the **same element** always have **the same number of protons**.

If the number of protons in a nucleus changes, the atom becomes a different element. This is important in understanding nuclear decay. One element can change (decay) to another element. An element can have atoms with **different numbers of neutrons**. This makes them different isotopes, but they are all the same element.

These lighter/heavier versions of an element are known as **isotopes** of an element.

Examples

Isotopes of helium

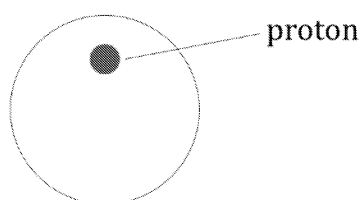


There are two naturally occurring isotopes of helium: helium 4 and helium 3.

- Both contain two protons
- Both have the same atomic number
- They have different masses – helium 4 is heavier than helium 3

Task B

Draw your own diagrams for these isotopes of hydrogen. The most common isotope is shown for you.



Many larger isotopes are made unstable as a result of the additional neutrons. They lose mass to become more stable. This is known as nuclear decay.

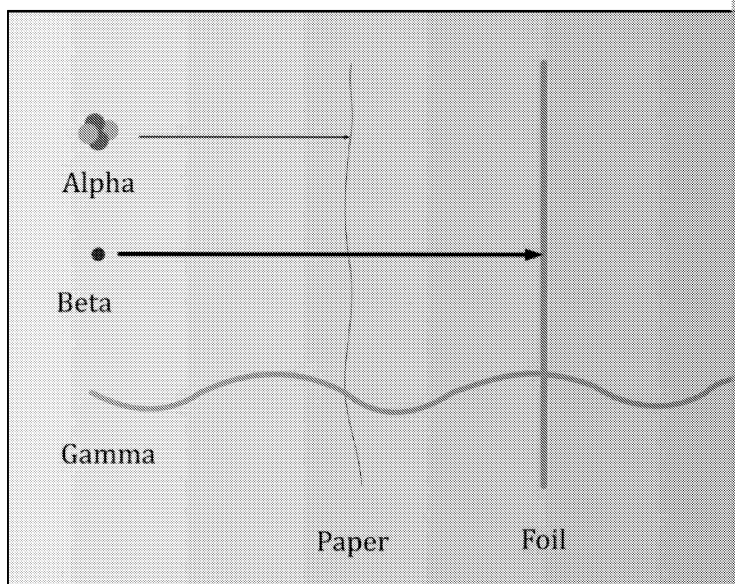
This results in the release of radiation in the form of **alpha (α)**, **beta (β)**, **gamma (γ)** rays.

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Properties of alpha (α), beta (β), gamma (γ) radiation

Radiation	Charge	Structure	Penetration in air	Penetration through materials (stopping power)
Alpha	+2	Helium nuclei (2 protons + 2 neutrons)	Low (few cm)	Paper
Beta	-1	Fast-moving electron	Medium (few m)	Metal foil
Gamma	None	Electromagnetic radiation (beyond X-rays in the EMS)	High	Lead, concrete



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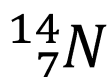
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² Ionisation power indicates how easily the type of radiation can remove electrons from atoms (charged). This is important as it can affect organic compounds such as DNA and proteins, which can affect health if absorbed by the body.

Exam-style questions

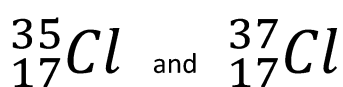
1. Nitrogen is the most abundant gas found in the atmosphere. It is represented by the following symbol:



- a. i. What is the atomic mass of nitrogen?

- ii. Using the information provided, state the number of neutrons in an atom of nitrogen.

- b. The gas chlorine is a mixture of two isotopes:



- i. What is meant by the term isotope?

- ii. The following table contains information comparing the atomic structure of the two isotopes of chlorine.

Isotope of Cl	Number of electrons	Number of protons	Number of neutrons
${}^{35}\text{Cl}$	17		
${}^{37}\text{Cl}$		17	20

Complete the table.

2. Uranium 235 (${}_{92}^{235}\text{U}$) is a radioactive element that undergoes nuclear decay to form thorium 231 (${}_{90}^{231}\text{Th}$). As it does so it emits alpha (α) radiation.

- a. What subatomic particles have been lost from the uranium that have remained in the element of thorium?

- b. Describe the structure of an alpha particle.

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- c. i. Explain why alpha radiation is potentially harmful to people.

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- ii. Alpha radiation can be stopped by a single sheet of paper, but beta can't. State the two differences in the properties of alpha and beta radiation. State the difference in their penetration properties.

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Chapter 8: Nuclear equations and half-lives

Introduction

Nuclear decay occurs when unstable isotopes release subatomic particles and energy to become more stable.

In this chapter you will have a chance to look at some common alpha and beta decay. These are represented as equations. These take the form of a 'chemical' style equation. Half-lives is also covered. This is a topic that candidates often find challenging in exams. To look again at the theory and use data from graphs to calculate the half-lives of isotopes. A reminder of the properties of alpha (α), beta (β) and gamma (γ) radiation is covered. If you are familiar with these, take a moment to review this and keep the final table handy for reference.

Nuclear decay and nuclear equations

An **isotope** is an atom of an element with **different numbers of neutrons**.

Isotopes of the same element have the **same atomic number** (protons) but **different mass numbers** (protons + neutrons).

Examples of isotopes

$^{12}_6\text{C}$ – carbon 12 (common and stable) $^{14}_6\text{C}$ – carbon 14 (less common)

$^{230}_{90}\text{Th}$ – thorium 230 (radioactive) $^{234}_{90}\text{Th}$ – thorium 234 (radioactive)

For some isotopes these additional neutrons add additional energy and forces that make them unstable. This means that at random points in time they will emit (give out) radiation to try to become more stable.

Some isotopes do this in a single step – carbon 14, for example, decays in a single step. Uranium 235, however, undergoes a number of decay steps until it eventually forms a stable isotope.

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Alpha decay (α – helium nuclei – ${}^4_2\text{He}$)

Radon (Rn) is a common gas found in areas with granite rocks; it has three common

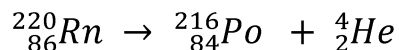


All of them are radioactive – radon 220 and radon 222 decay by emitting an alpha

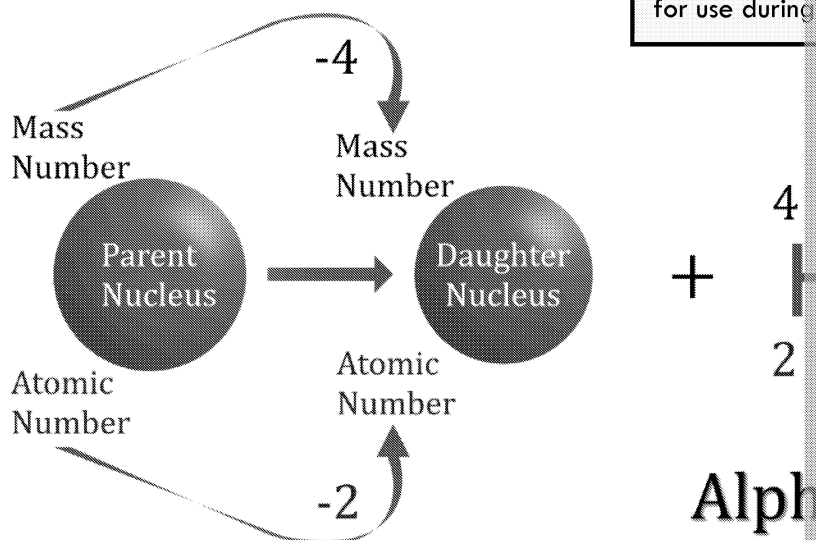
Example

Radon 220 decays to polonium 216 plus an alpha particle.

The decay equation for this is:



General rule for alpha decay:



Did you know?

Polonium was discovered by Marie Curie and her husband Pierre Curie in 1898. She was awarded the Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 1911.

She also invented the first artificial radioisotope for use during the war.

In the GCSE exam you **do not** need to know which element is produced by the decay in an exam question. However, it's very easy to work out – just look up the correct element and subtract the mass and atomic number of the alpha particle from the parent nucleus to find the mass and atomic number of the daughter nucleus.

Task A

Write an alpha decay equation for each of the following:

1. Radon 222
2. Uranium 234 (U, atomic number 92) becomes an isotope of thorium (Th)
3. The thorium isotope becomes an isotope of radium (Ra)
4. The radium isotope decays by alpha decay. What does it become? Give the name of the element.

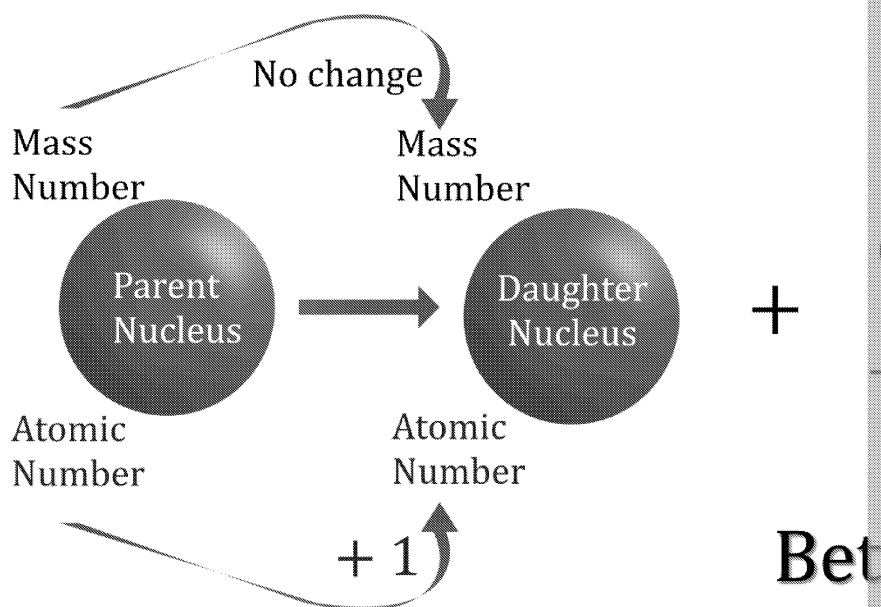
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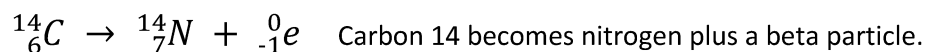
Beta decay (β – fast-moving electron – ${}_{-1}^0e$)

Beta decay results in a new element being formed by the loss of an electron from the nucleus. As electrons have no mass, the **mass number** of the parent nucleus and the daughter nucleus is the same. The **atomic number increases by 1**.



Example 1

Carbon 14 is a common isotope of carbon found in our atmosphere as CO_2 . It makes up a small part of our biochemistry alongside the more common, and stable, carbon 12. Carbon 14 decays by beta (β) decay.



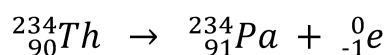
Some students think beta decay isn't logical; how can you lose an electron but the mass number stays the same? The answer is simple... (**You DO NOT need this for the exam**, but it's good to know.)

During beta decay, a neutron (electrically neutral) gives out an electron (negative charge) and becomes a proton. As the electron has no mass, the mass number stays the same. From a neutron we have made a proton – so the atomic number goes up. See, simple!

This also tells us that protons, neutrons and electrons are not really separate particles. (This subatomic physics is part of A Level study.)

Example 2

Thorium 234 undergoes β decay to become protactinium:



Task B

1. Provide a β decay equation for each of the following:
 - a) Hydrogen 3 (H, atomic number 1) to an isotope of helium
 - b) Caesium 137 (Cs, atomic number 55) to an isotope of barium

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Half-lives

Every radioactive isotope eventually decays and gives out radiation (α , β , γ); over time the mass of the isotope.

How long it takes to reduce in mass varies with each isotope – some decay very rapidly over geological time (millions of years). To compare these rates of decay we use a measure of half-life.

Half-life is the amount of time needed for a mass of a radioactive isotope to reduce to half its original mass.

Examples

1 kg of carbon 14 will reduce to 0.5 kg of carbon 14 in 5730 years, so the half-life of carbon 14 is 5730 years. (The other 0.5 kg has turned into nitrogen gas and mixed with the air.)

The half-life of radon 222 is only 3.82 days, so 1 kg of radon 222 will decay to leave only 0.5 kg after 3 days, 19 hours and 41 minutes.

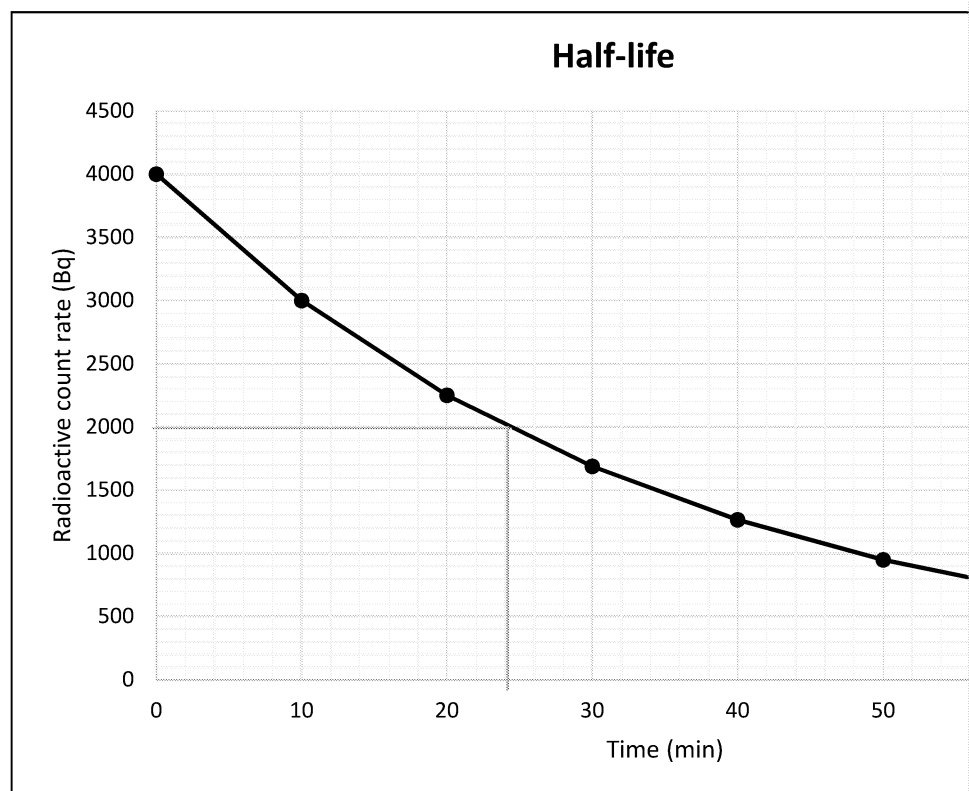
Measuring half-lives

Although it would be possible to sit and measure the loss of mass of radon 222 and to ensure accuracy and repeatability, work out the half-life, it might take a few weeks. However, doing that for carbon 14 would be impossible (in practical terms).

To measure half-lives the mass is not normally considered; instead, the amount of radiation is measured using a Geiger counter (a Geiger–Müller tube connected to an electronic counter) which records the number of detected emissions per seconds (becquerels, Bq).

Example

A sample of a radioactive material was monitored with a Geiger counter for a period of 50 minutes. The count rate in becquerels was recorded every 10 minutes. A graph of the data is shown below.



The count begins at 4000 Bq. The time taken for this to drop by half, to 2000 Bq, is 25 minutes. This is the half-life of the material.

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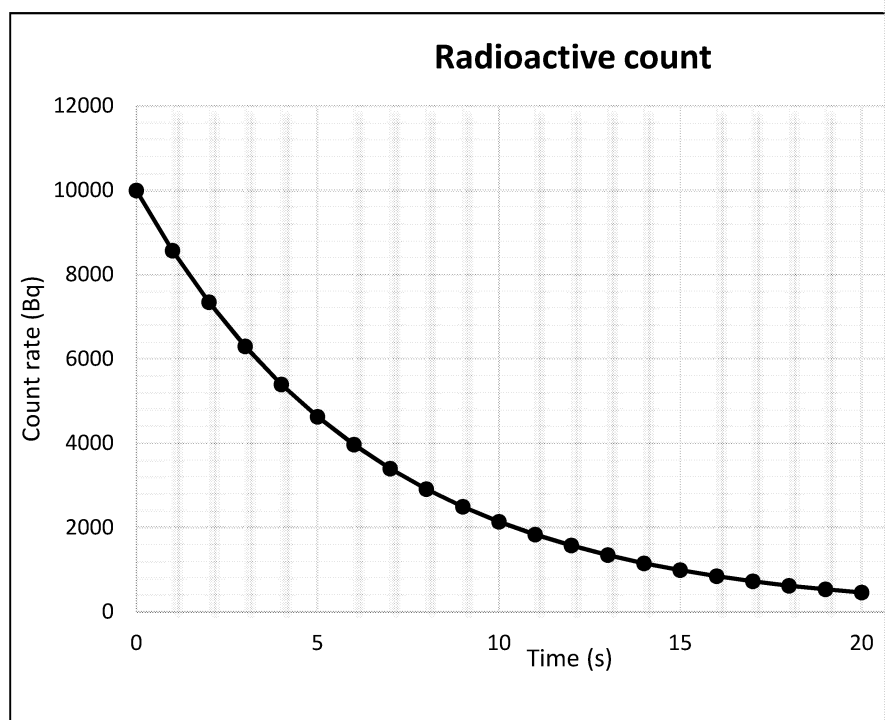


Therefore, the half-life of this isotope is 20.4 minutes. This can be confirmed by (two half-lives) – the count is now 1000 Bq (half of 2000).

Half-life can also be defined as the time taken for the radioactivity of a mass of

Task C

The graph shows the count rate for an isotope – use this data to find the half-life



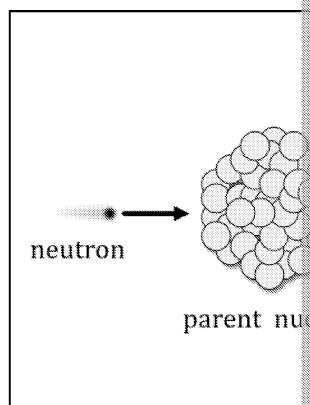
Nuclear fission and fusion

- **Fission** means to divide or **split**
- **Fusion** means to **join**

Fission

Many **large unstable nuclei** can **split into two smaller more stable nuclei** in the process of **nuclear fission**. This can occur naturally in some isotopes, but it is rare. Fission can be started by ‘firing’ a fast-moving neutron at a large nucleus such as uranium.

Fission **produces gamma (γ) radiation** and because **all the products of the fission process have kinetic energy** this increases the internal energy of the material, leading to a rise in temperature and the release of thermal energy. This thermal energy can be used to heat water to make steam which in turn can drive a turbine to make electricity. This is the basis of a nuclear power station.

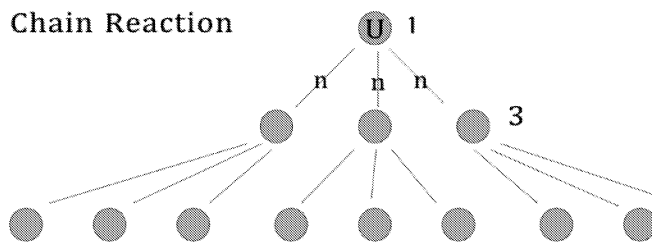


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The same energy can also be released in an uncontrolled fashion to produce a nuclear

Chain Reaction



1 - 3 - 9 - 27 - 81 - 243 - 729 - 2,187 - 6,561 - 19,683 - 59,049

The number of nuclei undergoing fission increases rapidly.

If left uncontrolled, one neutron will cause the fission of one nucleus, but this release of energy in turn causes the fission of three more nuclei; each of these does the same, and within a few milliseconds millions are all releasing their energy in a fraction of a second. This happens in a nuclear reactor, two of the three neutrons are absorbed by a control material, so the fission chain reaction is controlled and the energy is released in a controlled and gradual fashion.

Important: Do not confuse nuclear fission and nuclear decay. This is a common mistake. Nuclear decay – naturally occurring; one parent nucleus produces one daughter nucleus. Nuclear fission – generally artificial; one parent nucleus results in two daughter nuclei. You can also have a controlled chain reaction.

Fusion

In this process small nuclei are joined together to form larger nuclei and in the process release energy. This occurs naturally in all stars, including our Sun.

Hydrogen nuclei (protons) are forced together to form a helium nucleus. This is why stars shine with light and heat.

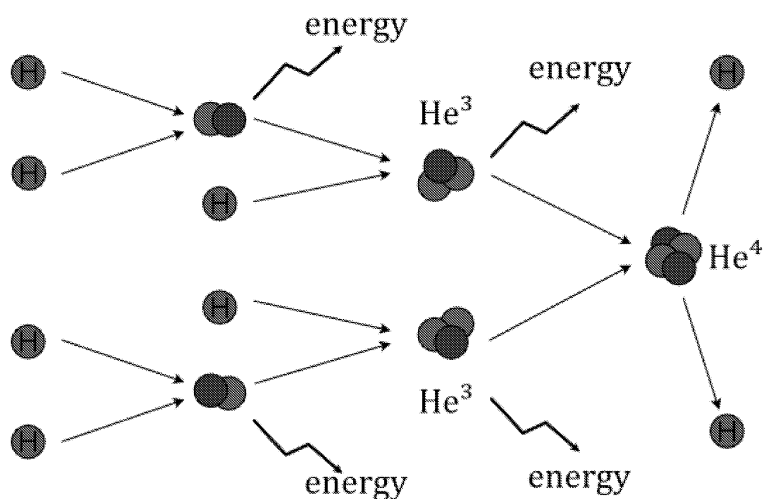


Diagram showing the fusion process where two hydrogen nuclei combine to form a helium nucleus, releasing energy.

Scientists and engineers are developing fusion reactors that will one day provide energy from seawater and produce a harmless but useful 'waste' of helium. This would be very clean. The fusion process needs to be held inside a magnetic field as it is so hot. This task is a challenge as it is so hot. The challenge is to make the process produce more energy than it uses.

The UK plans to have a prototype fusion reactor working commercially by 2040.

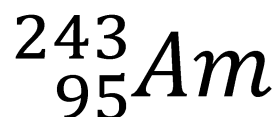
It plans to hold the superheated fusion material in a magnetic field shaped like a normal doughnut shape. UK scientists believe this will allow their reactor to produce energy, making it the world's first commercially viable fusion reactor!

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Exam-style questions

1. Americium has two isotopes. The most common isotope is shown below.



- a. What is the mass number of this isotope of americium?

.....

- b. What is meant by the term 'isotope'?

.....

.....

.....

- c. Americium 243 is very stable; however, americium 241 is unstable with a half-life of 432 years. It decays by alpha decay to form an isotope of neptunium (Np).

- i. Draw a decay equation to show this nuclear decay.

- ii. The alpha particles emitted from the decay of americium 241 are used in cancer treatment. Suggest one reason why these particles of radiation do not cause any harm to the patient.

.....

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2. A rare sample of the metal francium (Fr) is studied to measure its radioactivity. A stream of alpha particles and electrons is detected coming from the sample. Analysis also shows a build-up of lead in the sample. This is the end product of the study.

The isotope of francium used is known to have 87 protons and 136 neutrons.

- a. Give the atomic number and the mass number of the isotope used in the study.

i. Atomic number:

ii. Mass number:

- b. i. Draw the decay equation for the nuclear decay of francium.

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ii. What type of nuclear decay does this isotope of francium undergo?

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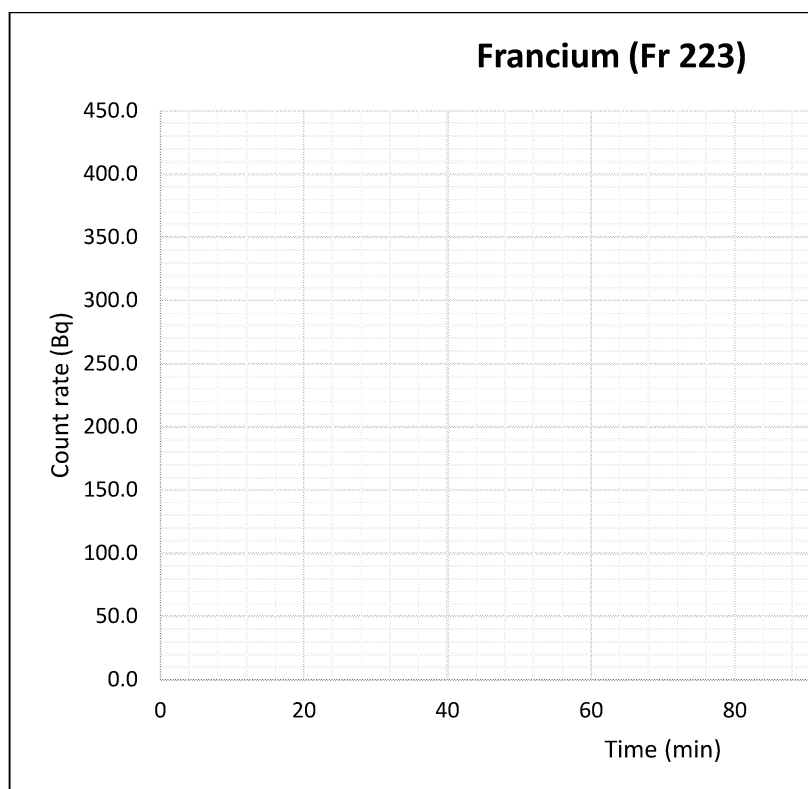
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c. As part of this study the level of radioactivity was measured and recorded over a period of two hours. The data is shown in the table below.

Time (min)	Count rate (Bq)
0	420.0
10	306.5
20	223.7
30	163.2
40	119.1
50	86.9
60	63.4
70	46.3
80	33.8
90	24.6
100	18.0
110	13.1
120	9.6

i. Use the graph provided to plot the data. The axes and scales have been provided.



ii. Draw a non-linear line of best fit for the data.

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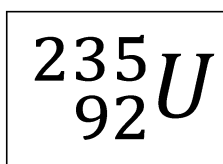


- iii. Use the graph to find the half-life of francium 223. Show your work on the graph to find your answer.

- iv. What apparatus could be used to measure the count rate in this experiment?

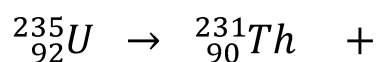
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3. Uranium 235 is a heavy element with large unstable nuclei that is used in nuclear power to generate electricity. It is also a naturally radioactive material.



The chemical symbol for this isotope of uranium is given above.

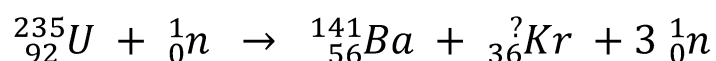
- a. i. Complete the decay equation below for this isotope of uranium.



- ii. State what type of nuclear decay is represented by this equation.

.....

- b. During nuclear fission, the nuclei of this isotope undergo a change represented by the equation below.



Where n = a neutron.

What is the mass number of the krypton (Kr) isotope in the equation?

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c. Electricity can be generated from the process of nuclear fission and is used as a power source. Nuclear fusion is not currently used as a power source.

i. Compare the processes of nuclear fission and nuclear fusion.

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ii. State one reason why nuclear fusion is not currently used commercially to generate electricity.

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Chapter 9: Resultant force

Introduction

This chapter looks at forces, how they can be combined to produce a resultant force. Forces are represented in vector diagrams. The use of these diagrams is explained with examples. You will learn how to measure forces acting at right angles to each other. As this process involves the use of a ruler and a protractor, it is essential that you have a pencil, a protractor and a ruler with at least centimetre markings. This chapter.

Reminder

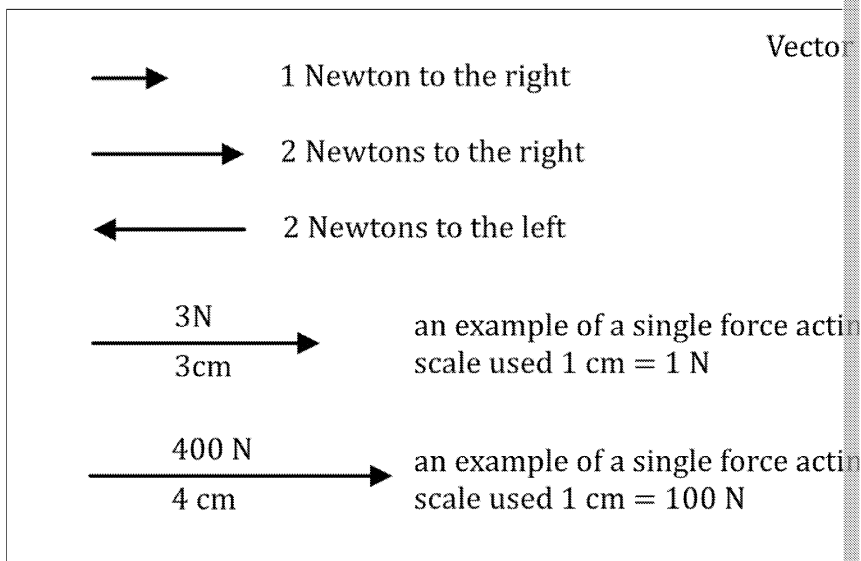
- ❖ Scalar – a quantity with magnitude (size) only – e.g. speed and distance.
- ❖ Vector – a quantity with both magnitude and direction – e.g. forces, velocity.
- ➡ Question: Speed is the scalar equivalent of the vector velocity. What is the vector equivalent of speed?

Forces result in the motion of objects; they are **vector quantities**.

A force has a magnitude given in newtons (N) that acts on an object in a stated direction.

Example: Gravity at Earth's surface acts on a 1 kg mass with a force of 9.81 N downwards (towards the centre of Earth).

Representing forces graphically



Forces are drawn as arrows where the length of the arrow shows the magnitude and the direction of the arrow shows the direction of action.

Note in the diagram above that the arrows are drawn to scale. The top arrows use a scale of 1 cm = 1 N. The last arrow uses 1 cm = 100 N.

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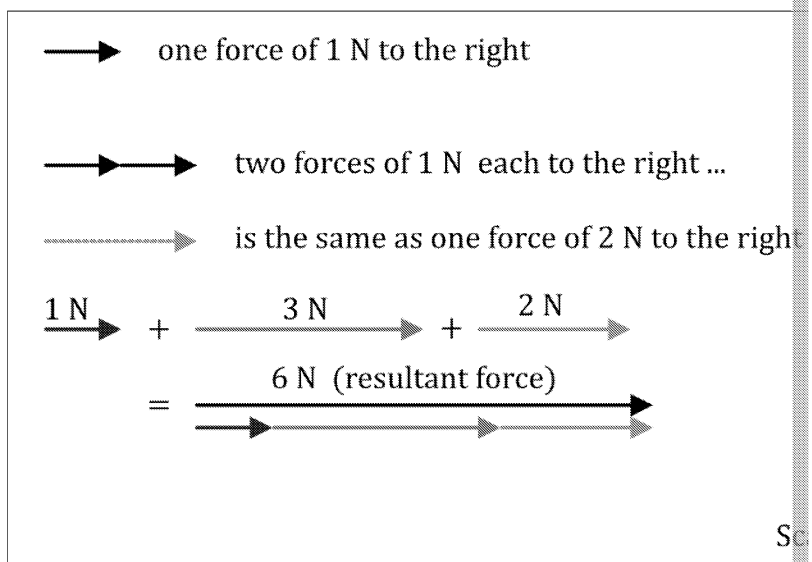
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Combining forces

When a single force acts on an object it will move in the direction of that force; the effect will depend on the magnitude of the force, as stated in Newton's laws of motion.

When there is more than one force acting on the object, the forces will be combined to give an overall force, known as the **resultant force**.



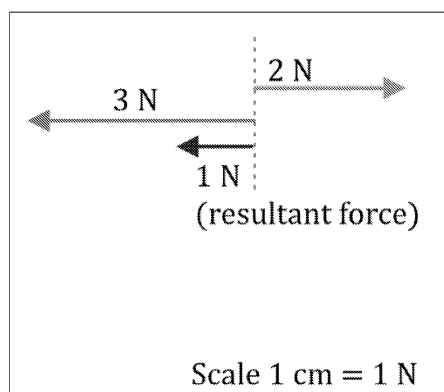
As shown in the examples above, when the forces act in the same direction, they give a larger overall force still acting in the same direction as each of the individual forces.

Example

Most small passenger planes have two jet engines – each one produces 90,000 N forwards. This means they produce a resultant force of 180,000 N forwards acting on the plane.

It is very rare for all the forces to be acting in the same direction. When an object is moving through a fluid, there is air resistance (also called drag) or water resistance acting on the object where it is moving, etc.

Forces acting in **opposite directions are subtracted** from each other.

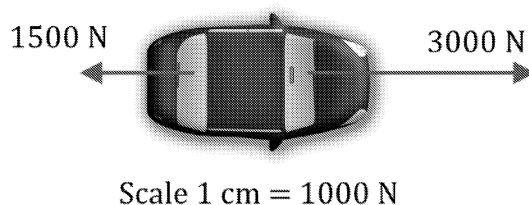


In this example a **2 N force to the right** and a **3 N force to the left** produce a resultant force of 1 N to the left. This can be written as $+2\text{ N} + (-3\text{ N}) = -1\text{ N}$ where '+' is right and '-' is left.

The effect would be the same as a single 1 N force to the left – the object will move to the left.

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Example

A car's engine produces a forward driving force of 3000 N. The friction between the wheels and the road and air resistance is 1500 N.

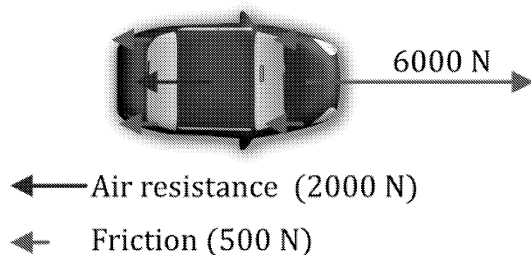
The resultant force on the car is:

$$+3000\text{ N} + (-1500\text{ N}) = +1500\text{ N where '+' is right and '-' is left}$$

There is a resultant force of 1500 N to the right. (The car will be accelerating to the right.)

Task A

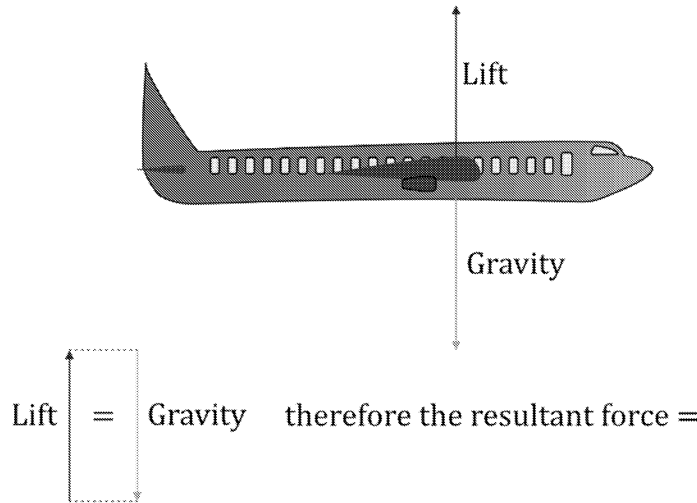
1. A Boeing 747 is lined up for take-off on the runway at Stansted Airport with its four engines. Its four identical engines each produce 252,000 N of thrust at take-off. Ignoring friction and air resistance, what is the resultant force acting on the plane?
2. What is the resultant force on the car shown below?



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Balanced forces



The plane shown in the diagram above has two opposing forces acting on it: gravity (weight) of the plane acting downwards, and the force of lift generated from the flow of air over the wings.

When the plane is in level flight, the forces of lift and gravity are balanced – they are equal. So when they combine to give a resultant force, the sum of these is equal to zero.

This is not the same as saying there is no force; both forces are present, but they cancel each other out to give a **0 N resultant force**.

Did you know?

All planes are designed so that the centre of gravity is below the centre of lift of the plane.

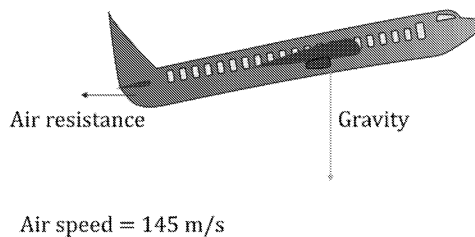
Should the engine fail, the lift and gravity will still be balanced.

However, the centre of gravity will automatically descend to a level where the lift is equal to the weight.

A commercial plane can fly from London to New York on a straight way with no engines.

Task B

Planes in flight have four main forces acting on them: thrust (forward), gravity (downward), drag (backward), lift (up). For the plane shown below, draw on the missing forces as arrows. (Scale matters.)



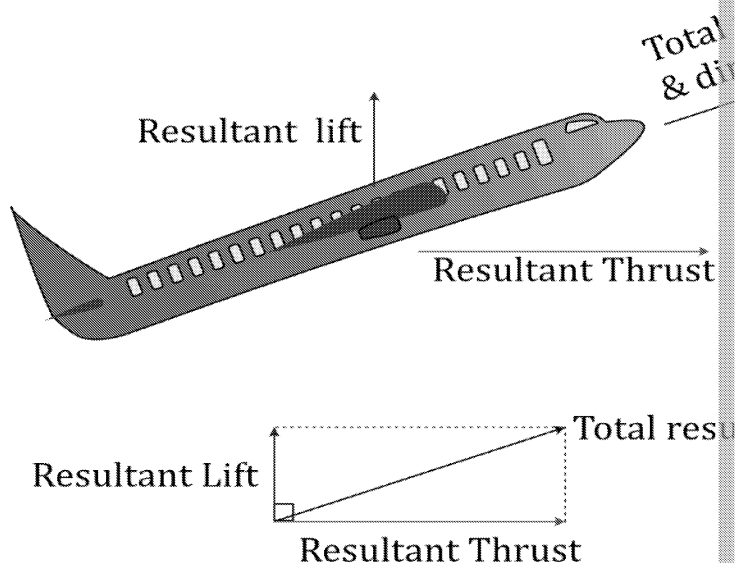
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Forces at an angle

A resultant force can be created by the combination of forces acting at an angle to each other. The resultant force will be in a different direction from either of the two individual forces.



When a plane is ascending, the angle of the climb and the forward velocity of the plane are the combination of the lift and the thrust. These two forces act at right angles to each other. The resultant force acts at an angle determined by finding the diagonal of the vector diagram.

Note: it is possible to calculate the magnitude and the direction of the resultant force using Pythagoras' theorem as long as the angle between the forces is 90° . This is not an example of how to do this is shown – if you enjoy the maths of physics you can learn to be able to do it in the exam.

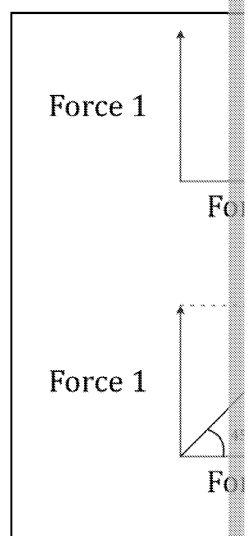
Finding the resultant force of two forces at right angles

A vector diagram is used to find the resultant force when two forces are acting at an angle to each other.

The two individual forces are drawn to scale meeting at the base of each force arrow.

The parallelogram (square or rectangle) is completed by drawing in the parallel sides to the two forces.

The diagonal created by this parallelogram is the resultant force.



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Example

Note that for this exam the forces will always be at 90° to each other.

Example of how to calculate the resultant force. (NOT needed in the exam.)

Magnitude (Pythagoras' theorem)

$R = \text{resultant force}$

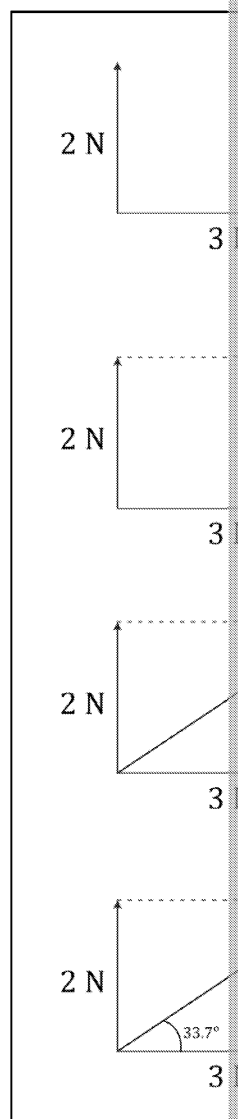
$F_1 = \text{horizontal force}$ $F_2 = \text{vertical force}$

$$R^2 = (F_1)^2 + (F_2)^2$$

$$R = \sqrt{(F_1)^2 + (F_2)^2}$$

$$R = \sqrt{2^2 + 3^2}$$

$$R = 3.61 \text{ N}$$

**Angle of resultant force**

$$\tan(\theta) = F_2 \div F_1 \quad (\text{opposite} / \text{adjacent})$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(F_2 \div F_1)$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(2 \div 3)$$

$$\theta = 33.69^\circ$$

This is not required for the exam but is useful preparation for further study of physics.

Task C

Use a vector diagram to find the resultant force created by a 25 N force acting upwards and a 30 N force acting horizontally to the right. Use any suitable scale, which should be included in your diagram.

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Exam-style questions

1. Forces are examples of vector quantities.
- a. Which of the following provide the information needed to fully describe a force?
Choose all that apply.
- Magnitude
 - Altitude
 - Direction
 - Displacement
 - Distance

- b. Draw a simple vector diagram to represent a force of 50 N acting to the right.
Use a scale of 1 cm = 10 N

- c. Two teams are competing in a tug-of-war. Team A is pulling to the left with a combined force of 150 N. Team B is pulling to the right with a combined force of 200 N.
- i. Draw a simple vector diagram to represent the forces in this tug-of-war.
Use a scale of 1 cm = 50 N. You must have used for this diagram.

- ii. What is the resultant force in this tug-of-war?
-
-
- iii. Which team is currently winning in this game? Explain your answer.

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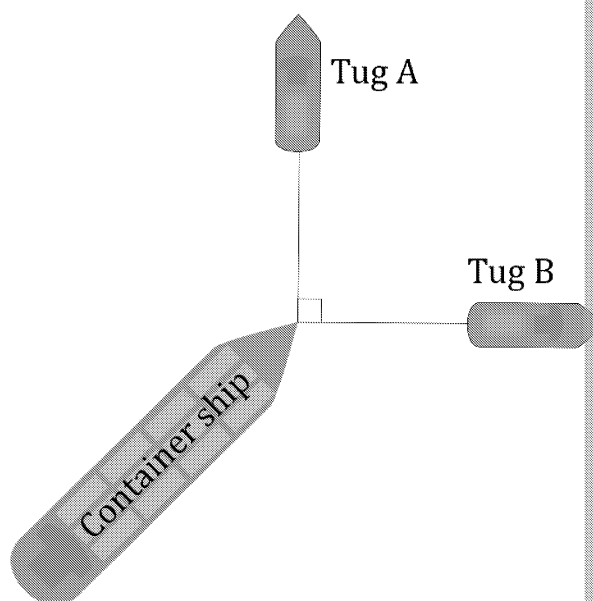
- d. If team B pulls harder and increases their combined force to 250 N to the right, what is the resultant force?
-
-

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2. Two tugs (A and B) are pulling a large container ship into port as shown in the diagram.



Tug A produces a pulling force of 2500 N at 90° to tug B that produces a pulling force of 1500 N.

- a. i. Draw a vector diagram to represent this situation. Include in the diagram the resultant force and the scale you have used.

- ii. State the magnitude and direction of the resultant force.

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Chapter 10: The distance relationship

Introduction

When objects are in motion they move over a distance in space during a certain time. The relationship between the distance moved and the time taken is described by speed or velocity. A change in speed or velocity is called acceleration. All of these quantities can be represented as graphs.

This chapter will start with a brief refresher on speed, velocity and acceleration, but you will also practise the drawing and use of distance–time and velocity–time graphs. Reports from higher-level candidates find these hard to do in the exam, especially finding the area under a graph. So these will be the skills to practise in this chapter. You will be drawing a pencil and ruler ready.

Speed and velocity

Speed is a measure of the time taken to cover a given distance. It is a scalar quantity so there is no direction given. In the example, right, the car moves 100 m in each 5-second interval, given a speed of 20 metres per second (20 m/s).

$speed = distance \div time$ in metres per seconds (m/s)

Velocity is speed in a given direction and is therefore a vector.

These two cars are moving at the same speed but in opposite directions.

They have the same magnitude of velocity but different directions.

In this example, this is shown by the + and – values.

Equation: this is given as $distance = velocity \times time$ $s = vt$

This can be rearranged to $v = \frac{s}{t}$

Examples

- i. A car travels at 20 m/s for 10 minutes. How far has it travelled?

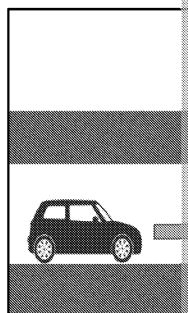
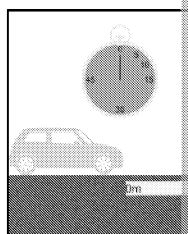
$$s = vt \quad \therefore s = 20 \times (10 \times 60) = 12\,000 \text{ m or } 12 \text{ km}$$

- ii. A car travels along a 5 km section of a motorway in three minutes. What is its velocity?

$$s = vt \quad \therefore v = s \div t \quad v = 5000 \div (3 \times 60) = 27.78 \text{ m/s}$$

Acceleration is defined as the rate of change of velocity – this means **how quickly** the velocity changes. Acceleration is also a vector.

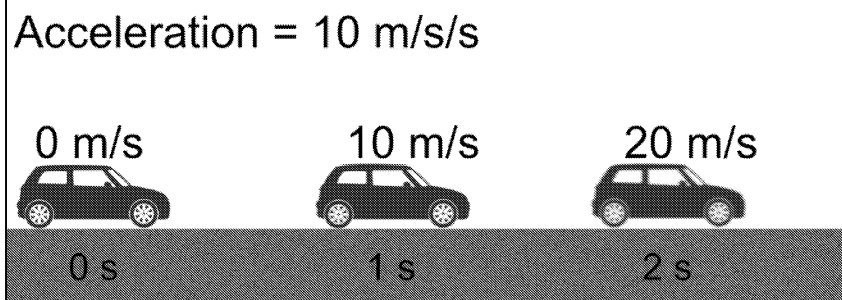
Acceleration measures how quickly an object is speeding up (positive acceleration) or slowing down (negative acceleration – deceleration).



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In this example, the car increases its velocity by 10 m/s every second.

Acceleration is measured in metres per second per second (m/s/s).

$$a = \frac{\Delta v}{t} \text{ or } \text{acceleration} = \text{change in velocity} \div \text{time taken}$$

Circular motion – an example of acceleration

One example of acceleration that is often misunderstood is circular motion.

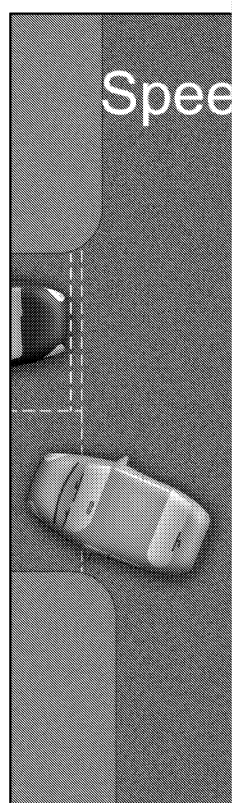
At GCSE you will not be asked to do any calculations for circular motion; that is part of A Level Physics.

However, you should understand the logic:

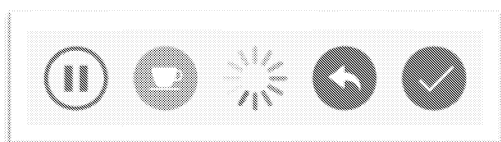
- Acceleration is defined as a change in velocity.
- Velocity is speed in a given direction.
- If the speed **or** the **direction** changes, so does the velocity.
- How quickly this happens is acceleration.

When a car goes round a roundabout, the speed may be constant (10 mph, for example), but because it is changing direction all the time the car must be accelerating.

Acceleration is, therefore, speeding up, slowing down or changing direction.



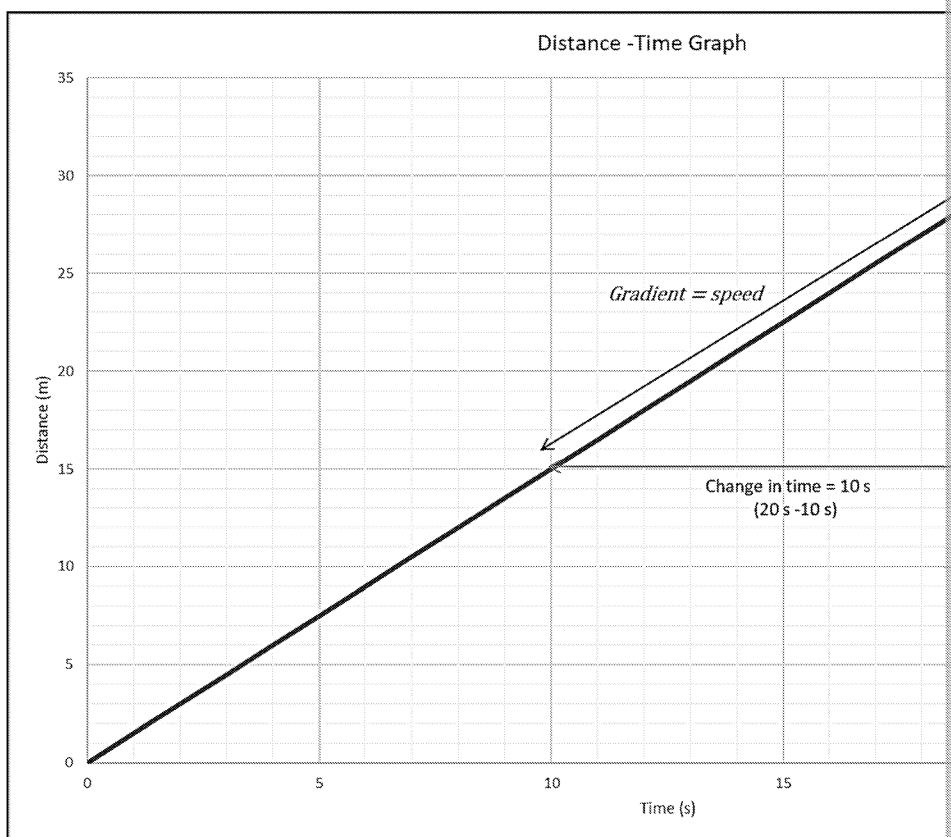
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*Take a break. Come back in five minutes
equations before moving on.*

Distance–time graphs

The movement of an object can be represented by the use of a *distance–time graph*.



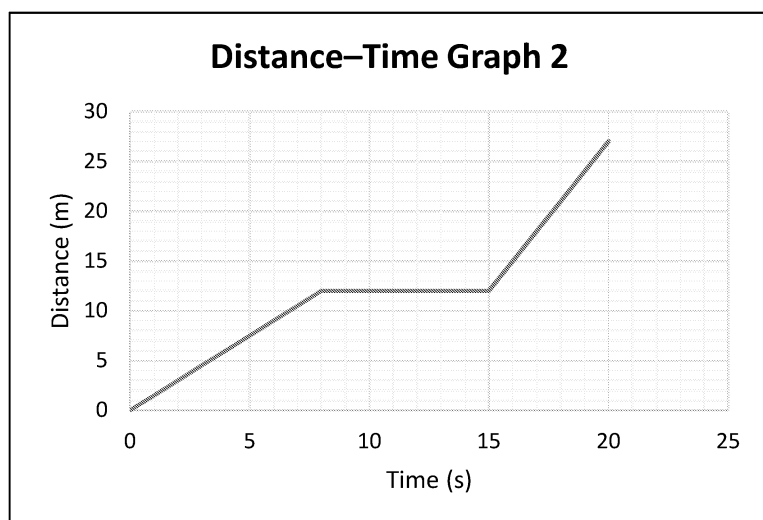
The blue line shows how the distance the object has travelled increases with time at a constant increase, showing this object has a constant speed.

The **gradient of the line is equal to the speed**.

Gradient of a graph = change in $y \div$ change in x

Gradient of this graph = change in distance \div change in time (speed = distance \div time)

$$\text{speed (gradient)} = (30 \text{ m} - 15 \text{ m}) \div (20 \text{ s} - 10 \text{ s}) = 15 \text{ m/s}$$



In this example, the object moves at a constant speed for 8 s, then stops for 7 s, and then moves at a constant speed for 5 s.

The line from 0 s to 8 s shows the object moving at a constant speed. The line from 8 s to 15 s shows the object is stationary.

From 8 s to 15 s, the distance does not change with time (gradient = 0). The object is stationary.

The final section of the graph shows the object moving at a constant speed.

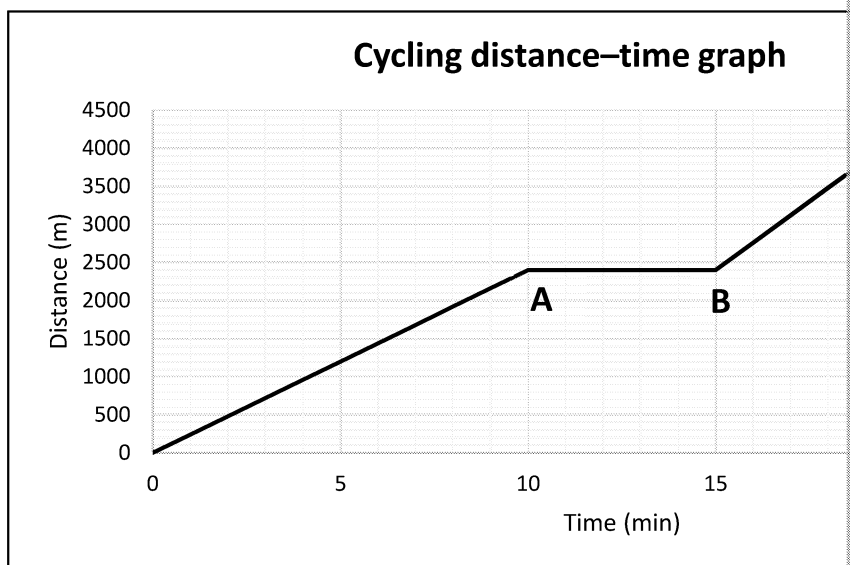
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Task A

A cyclist records their journey on a fit-app via their smartphone. The app provides their journey, which is shown below.

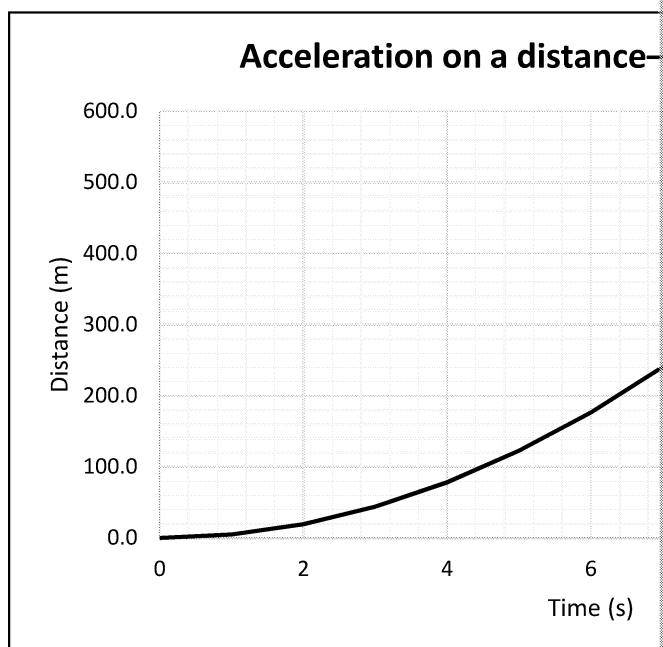


1. Calculate their speed from the start of their ride until time A marked on the graph.
2. What speed were they travelling after time B marked on the graph?
3. Describe their movement from point A to point B.

Acceleration on a distance–time graph

When an object is accelerating, the line on a distance–time graph will be curved, as shown in the example (right). This shows the motion of an object accelerating due to gravity (ignoring air resistance). If the object was decelerating, the curve would bend the other way.

To find the speed of the object at any point along the line, a tangent to the line must be drawn. This will give the gradient of the slope at this point, which is equal to the



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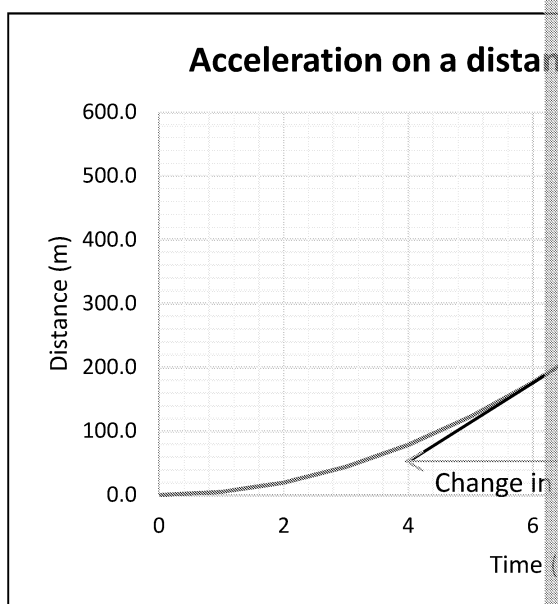
Example: speed at $t = 6$ s

At $t = 6$ s the tangent to the distance–time curve has been drawn.

The tangent line is drawn so that it covers 4 s (it can be any length, but it is easier to draw it between two whole numbers).

The change in distance is measured as shown.

The gradient of the tangent can then be calculated as normal.



$gradient = change\ in\ y \div change\ in\ x$

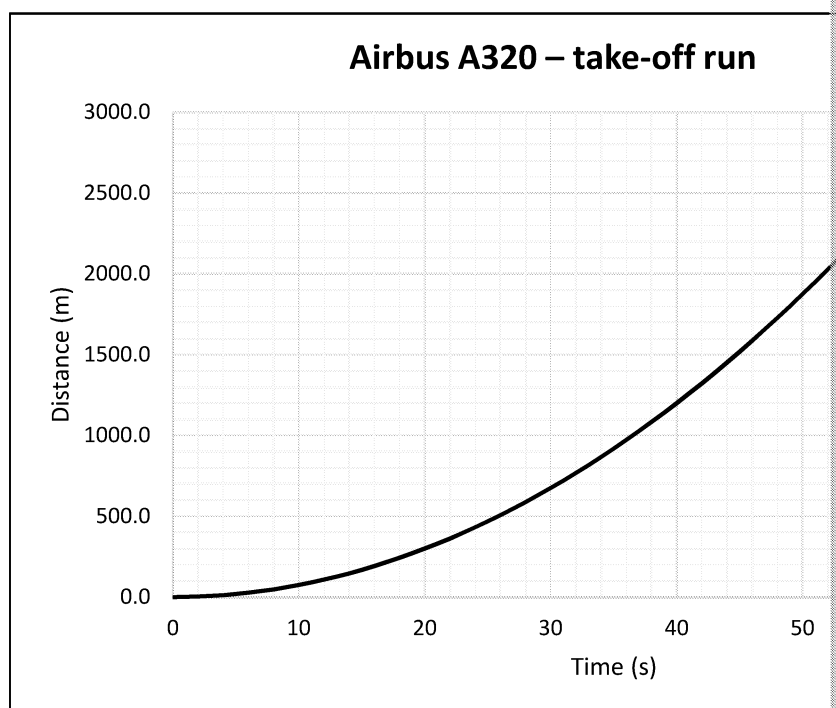
$$gradient = (385 - 60) \div 4 = 81.25$$

\therefore as speed = gradient of the line: speed = 81.25 m/s

[It is important to remember that for an accelerating object the speed is constant at exactly 6 s]

Task B

The graph below shows the data from an Airbus A320 as it makes a take-off run in poor weather conditions.



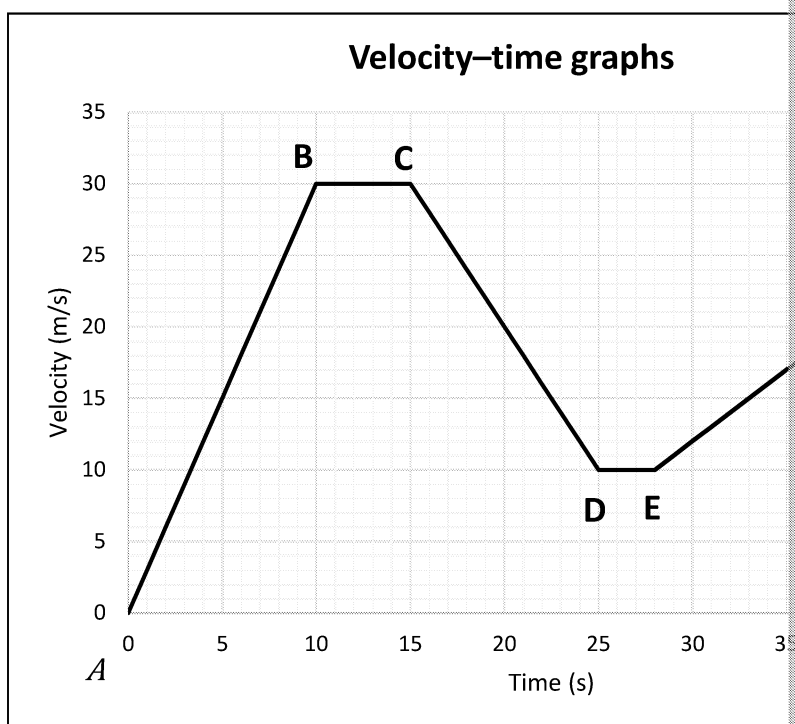
- At 50 s the plane reaches V_1 – the decision speed. At this point the pilot must decide whether to abort the take-off. Above V_1 the plane must take off. What is the value of V_1 for this plane?
- Why is this 'distance–time' line curved?

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Velocity–time graphs

Motion can also be represented by a *velocity–time* graph. Velocity–time graphs look like distance–time graphs. In the exam, always check the label on the *y-axis* carefully before writing. Velocity–time graphs of different motions of graph look the same but the lines mean very different things about the motion.



- Point A: The object starts to move from 0 ms^{-1}
- A to B: The object is **accelerating** at constant rate (3 ms^{-2} in this example)
- B to C: The object is moving at a **constant velocity** (30 ms^{-1})
- C to D: The object is **decelerating** (-2 ms^{-2})
- D to E: **Constant velocity** (10 ms^{-1})
- E to F: **Acceleration** at a lower rate than A to B (1 ms^{-2})

The acceleration of the object is equal to the gradient of the line.

Example

A to B: $\text{change in } x = 10 \text{ s}$ $\text{change in } y = 30 \text{ ms}^{-1}$
 $\text{acceleration} = \text{change in velocity (y-axis)} \div \text{change in time (x-axis)}$
 $\text{acceleration} = 30 \div 10 = 3 \text{ ms}^{-2}$

Finding the distance travelled from a velocity–time graph

The distance travelled by an object can be worked out from the velocity–time graph. This means the area created between the line and the *x-axis*.

In this exam you need to count only the number of squares on the graph paper to the *x-axis*. There is no need to apply any formula.

Task C

Using the graph above, find the distance travelled by the object between point A and point B.

Now find the distance travelled between point C and point D.

Tip: where the squares are not whole, try to fit two together to make one whole square. Then count the total number of whole squares.

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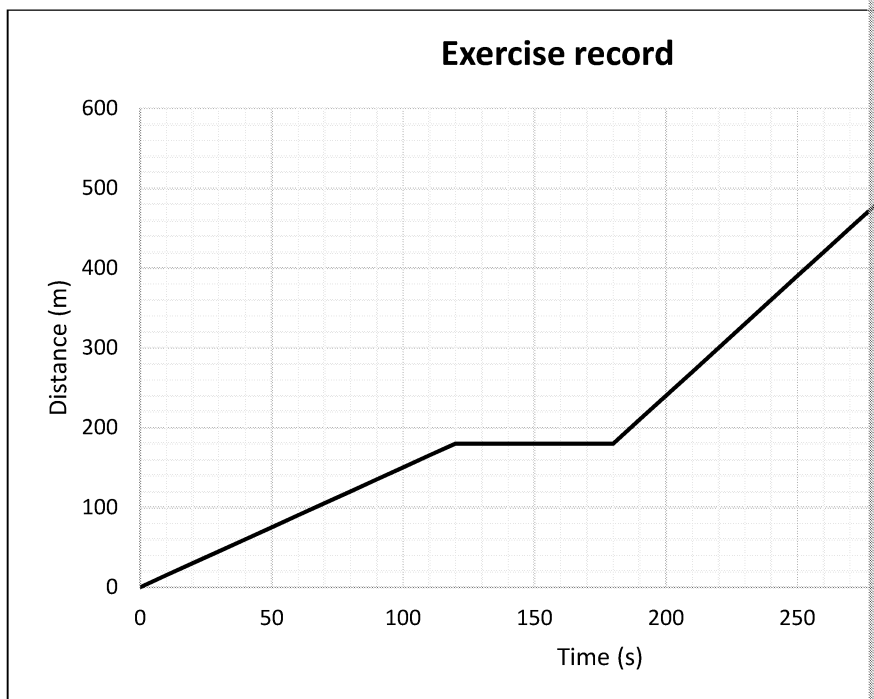
Exam-style questions

1. a. State the difference between speed and velocity.

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- b. A person takes some exercise and begins by walking. They are wearing a fitness tracker during the exercise and provides a distance–time output when connected to their computer.

The graph for the first section of their exercise is shown below.



- i. How many minutes of the exercise routine are shown in this read-out?

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- ii. For the first two minutes, the person warms up by walking. Calculate the speed for this warm-up.

- iii. For what period of time did they take a brief rest? Explain your answer.

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iv. After this rest, the person continued with their exercise routine. Compare their rest with that before. Suggest what exercise they were taking at the time.

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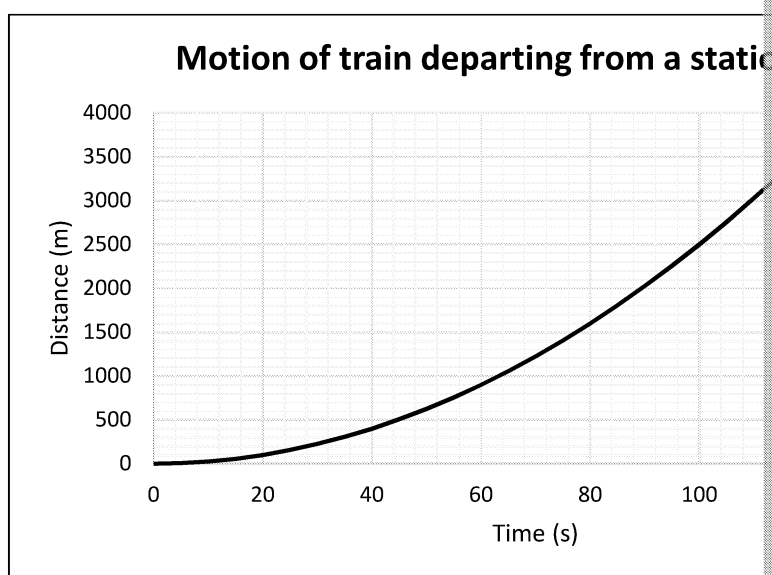
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c. The device was set to record the distance travelled every 10 seconds. Suggest how the data could be made more accurate in a future update to the firmware.

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2. The graph below shows the data from a train's on-board computer as the train departs from a station.



a. Describe the motion of the train as shown in this graph.

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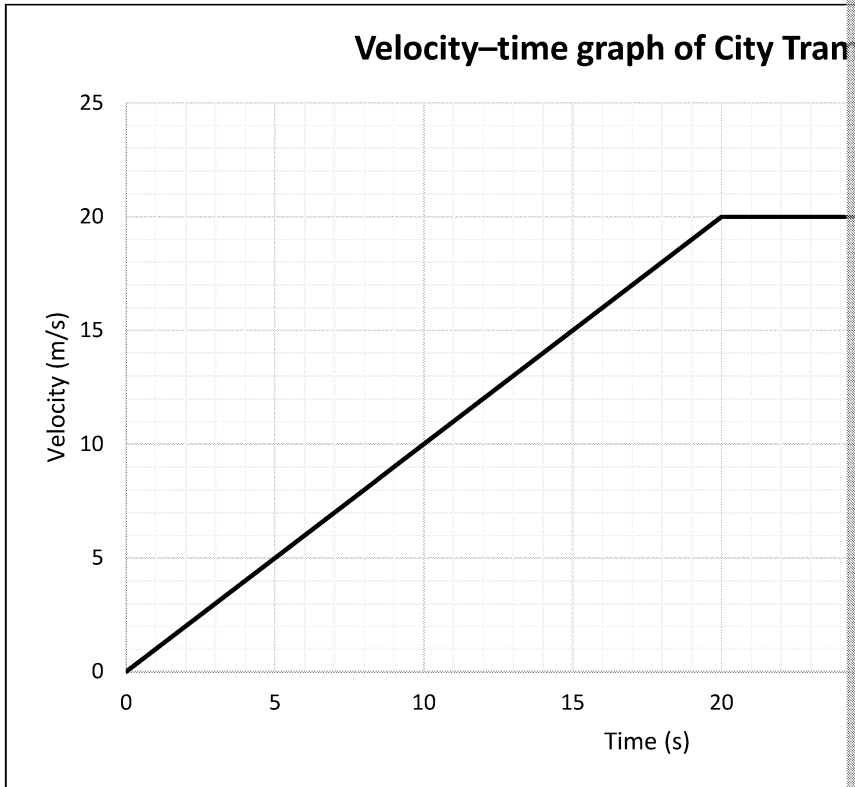
b. For safety reasons, the train should not exceed a speed of 25 m/s before it reaches the end of the platform. How long does it take for the train to meet this safety requirement? Justify your answer using the graph.

Show your calculation in the space below.

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- c. The data from a new City Tram pulling out of a station is shown below. the journey.



- i. Calculate the acceleration of the City Tram as it pulls out of the station.

- ii. What is the maximum velocity of this tram as shown in this graph?

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- iii. How far has the tram travelled in the first 30 seconds of its journey?

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Chapter 11: Newton's Second Law of Motion

Introduction

Newton's laws of motion help to describe the way objects move here on Earth and is a great achievement given they were first published 270 years before humans managed to put a satellite in orbit (Sputnik 1957).

In this section there is a reminder about Newton's three laws of motion before covering how it can be investigated in the lab and its implications for vehicle safety. The text covers Newton's second law.

The experiment discussed in this chapter is a required investigation; you may be asked part of the exam-style questions there is a six-point question focusing on this investigation testing experimental skills and knowledge.

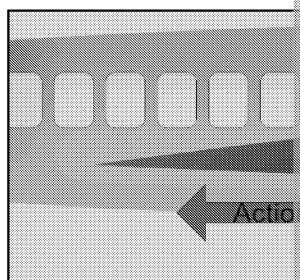
Newton's first and third laws of motion

First law: An object will remain stationary unless acted upon by an outside force or will continue at a constant velocity (direction and speed) unless acted upon by an outside force.

Which means that things do not move by themselves – they need a push or a pull. If they are moving they speed up, slow down or turn only if there is a push or a pull to make them do so.

Third law: For every action there is an equal but opposite reaction.

A jet engine pushes air out of the back of the jet (action) and the plane is pushed forward (reaction). You push down on a chair when you sit in it (action) and the chair pushes back (reaction). Which might sound odd, but think about it. If it didn't push back enough you would carry on moving down due to gravity – so not a very useful chair!



Newton's second law of motion

When a force acts upon an object, the object will accelerate, speed up, slow down or change direction. The magnitude of the acceleration depends on two variables:

1. The magnitude of the resultant force applied
2. The mass of the object itself

The greater the resultant force, the greater the acceleration; the greater the mass, the smaller the acceleration.

Acceleration is proportional to the resultant force and inversely proportional to the mass.

Giving the formula: $acceleration (a) = force / mass$

Which is conventionally written as $force = mass \times acceleration (F = ma)$

This is actually just common sense written in maths.

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Example

You want to pick up an empty-looking sports bag. You automatically prepare to a biceps, etc., but the bag is actually full of boots and sports gear and so is very heavy. You are surprised how fast as you expected and you think, 'Whoa, this is heavier than I was expecting', so you recruit more force from your muscles to get the required acceleration to pick up the bag and put it on the ground. Newton's second law in action and you don't even need to know about Newton or physics, you just know how it works! You already know this law; you use it all the time. You just need to show it or multiplication to show this in the exam.

Worked examples

1. What force is required to make a 3 kg bag accelerate at a rate of 10 ms^{-2} ?

$$\text{force} = \text{mass} \times \text{acceleration}$$

$$\text{force} = 3 \times 10 = \underline{30 \text{ N}}$$

2. A 5 kg sports bag is picked up with an upward force of 61 N. What is the acceleration? Remember that the force is the resultant force on the object. In this example, there is an upward force and a force downwards due to gravity, the weight of the object.

$$\text{weight} = \text{mass} \times \text{gravity} = 5 \times 9.81 = 49.05 \text{ N downwards}$$

$$\text{resultant force} = \text{upwards force} - \text{downwards force} = 61 - 49.05 = 11.95 \text{ N upwards}$$

$$F = ma$$

$$\therefore a = F \div m$$

$$a = 11.95 \div 5 = 2.39 \text{ ms}^{-2}$$

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Road transport

One application of Newton's second law is in road transport, especially in road safety.

In the UK, cars are limited on a main road to 60 mph which is ~ 27 m/s (the symbol for metres per second is approximately). For a lorry this is 50 mph or ~ 22 m/s.

A normal car has a mass of ~ 1500 to 2000 kg.

What force is needed to make a car of mass 2000 kg accelerate to 27 m/s in 9 s from rest?

$$\text{acceleration} = \text{change in velocity} \div \text{time} \quad (27 - 0) \div 9 = 3 \text{ ms}^{-2}$$

$$F = ma$$

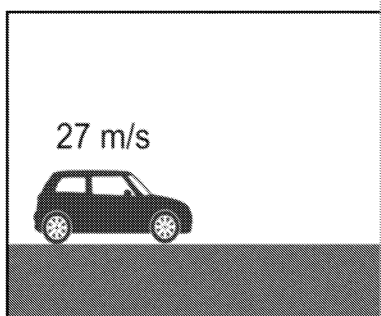
$$F = 2000 \times 3$$

$$F = 6000 \text{ N (resultant force)}$$

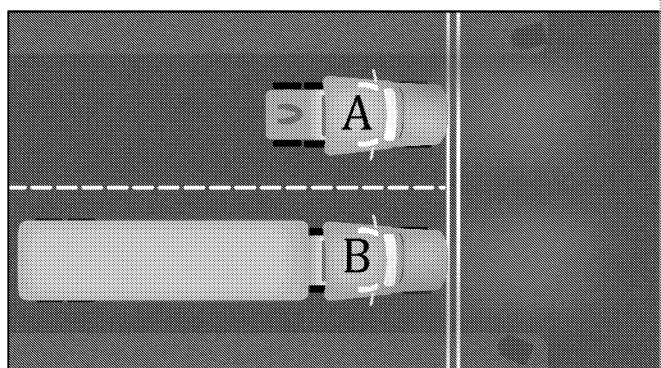
In a crash, however, the velocity can decrease from 27 m/s to 0 m/s in 0.5 s

$$F = ma$$

$$F = 2000 \times (27 \div 0.5) = 108\,000 \text{ N acting on the car and the occupants}$$



Task A



Two vehicles are waiting at a set of traffic lights. Vehicle A is a truck with no trailer. Vehicle A has a mass of $15,000$ kg and Vehicle B has a mass of $35,000$ kg. Both trucks have engines and can produce the same overall resultant driving force.

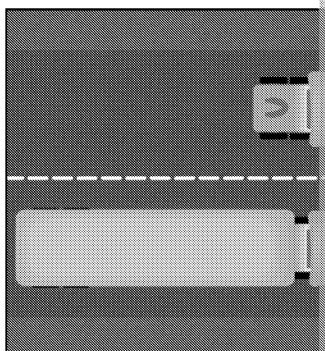
- When the traffic lights turn green, which truck will have the highest acceleration?
- The resultant force from the trucks' engines is $18,000$ N. Calculate the acceleration of each truck.

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Inertia

In this example of two objects in motion, common sense tells us that truck A will accelerate away from the lights faster than truck B. Experience tells us that **the heavier object will change velocity more slowly** and is harder to get moving.



This tendency for an object to resist a change velocity is known as inertia.

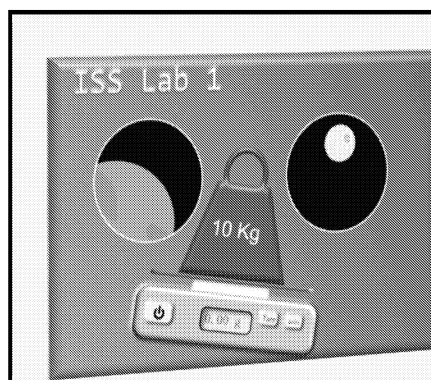
The **inertial mass** is a measure of this tendency for objects to resist changes in their velocity.

It is defined as the ratio of the force to acceleration for an object $m = F \div a$

Example

What is the inertial mass of a minibus if it takes a force of 10,000 N to make it accelerate at 1.8 m/s²?

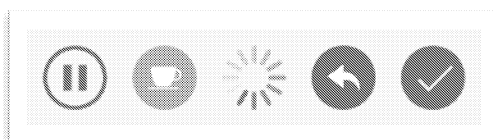
$$\begin{aligned} \text{inertial mass} &= \text{force} \div \text{acceleration} \\ &= 10\,000 \div 1.8 = 5556 \text{ kg (to the nearest whole kg)} \end{aligned}$$



Did you know?

In space, or in orbit, you can't use a normal balance to measure the mass of an object. The balance needs gravity to pull down on the weighing pan and the springs to work out the mass.

Instead in orbit mass is measured using inertial mass. This is done using a measuring pan and the amount of vibration of the pan. More mass = less vibration (the inertial mass is a measure of the change in the velocity of the vibrating pan).



Investigating Newton's second law of motion (required practical)

As part of the exam you will be asked to discuss a range of investigations you have done, known as the *required practical activities*. The investigation into Newton's second law of motion is one of these.

Acceleration and force

In this experiment a trolley (car) is pulled along a track using a variable force. The trolley is pulled along the track as the mass attached to it falls. The force can be varied by adding additional mass to the end. The acceleration of the trolley is recorded. This can be done by timing the trolley along a given length of track and calculating the average acceleration from rest, or by using light gates and sensors connected to a computer. The use of the computer-aided measuring is more **accurate**.

To ensure a **fair test**, the trolley and the track should not be changed. The only variable should be the force used to pull the trolley along the track.

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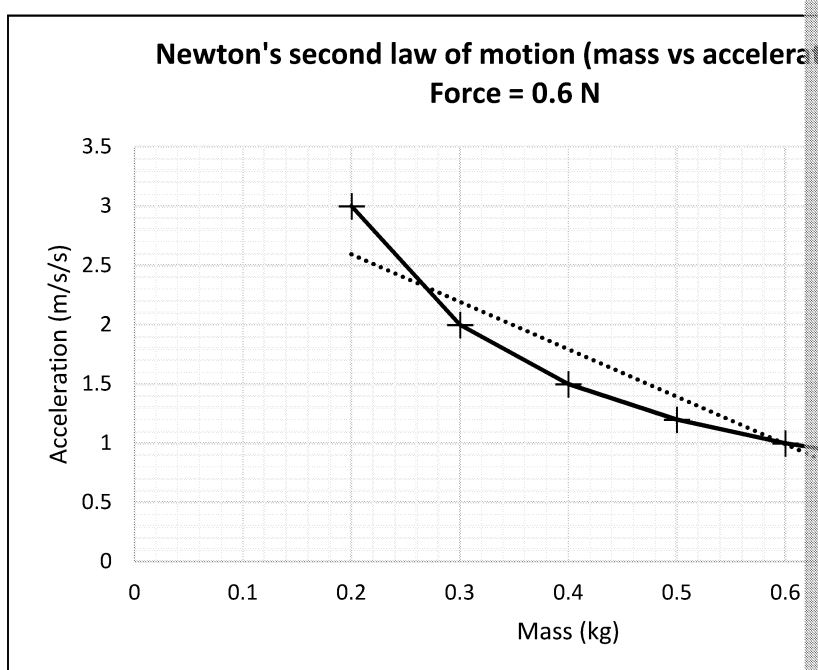
As with all experiments, each condition should be tested at least three times to prove that each result is **repeatable** and, therefore, **reliable**.

Acceleration and mass

The same basic set-up can be used to investigate the effect of varying the mass of force. In this situation the additional masses are **securely** added to the trolley, but remains unchanged.

Data using a pulling force of 0.6 N along a 2 m track:

Mass (kg)	Time taken (s)	Final velocity (m/s)	Average acc
0.2	1.83	2.74	
0.3	2.24	2.24	
0.4	2.58	1.94	
0.5	2.89	1.73	
0.6	3.16	1.58	
0.7	3.42	1.46	



Task B

A trolley was pulled along a 2 m ramp using different forces as shown in the table.

The acceleration of the 200 g trolley was measured using a radar sensor connected to a computer. The data is presented below.

Force (N)	Time taken (s)	Final velocity (m/s)	Average acc
0.2	2.65	0.76	
0.4	1.87	1.07	
0.6	1.53	1.31	
0.8	1.32	1.51	
1	1.18	1.69	

Use the data provided to plot a graph of the force against acceleration.

- Describe the pattern shown in the graph.
- Suggest one way the data could have been made more reliable.

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Exam-style questions

1. A student carries out an experiment to explore the relationship between the object and the acceleration of that object.

Table 1 gives the data obtained from the student's investigation.

Force (N)	Acceleration (m/s/s)
1	2.5
2	4
3	7.5
4	10.5
5	12

Table 1

- a. Describe an experiment the student could have used to obtain the data. You may include a labelled diagram.

Your answer should include any safety considerations in carrying out the

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- b. i. Plot the data in *Table 1* on the graph paper below. You should include the data.



- ii. Describe the relationship shown by the data in the graph.

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- iii. Use the data to estimate the mass of the object used in this investigation.

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2. A newton meter is used to measure the force required to make two metal cubes slide on a wooden surface. The reading on the newton meter was recorded at the point where the cubes just started to move. The cubes have the same physical dimensions.

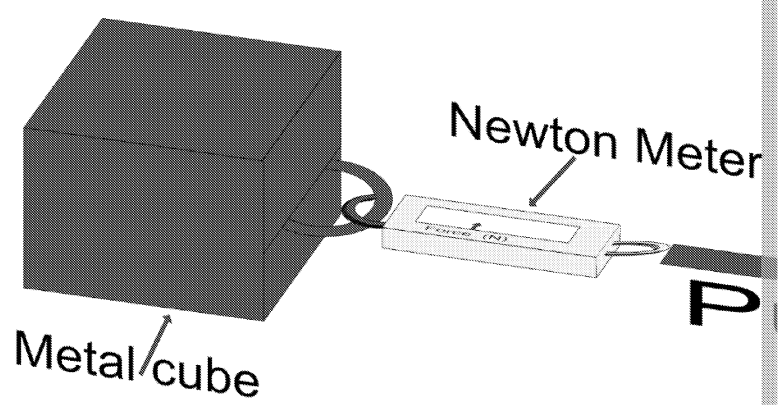


Figure 1

Figure 1 shows the set-up of this investigation. The result for each block is shown in Table 2.

Block	Force (N)			Average force (N)
A	20	22	19	
B	45	60	42	

Table 2

- a. Complete Table 2.
- b. Explain why there is a difference in the force required to make each block start to move.

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- c. State which measurement is likely to be the least accurate. Justify your answer.

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3. A fully loaded car of mass 2500 kg is travelling at 18 m/s and accelerates to 27 m/s when entering a single-carriageway main road where the national speed limit applies.

a. Calculate the resultant force required for this change in speed.

b. A lorry produces a resultant force of 14,400 N and accelerates away from rest with an acceleration of 0.4 ms^{-2} . What is the inertial mass of the lorry?

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Chapter 12: Momentum

Introduction

Continuing from Chapter 11, this section explores the properties of objects in motion, conservation of momentum and how this can be applied in simple collisions as well as changes in momentum.

In this section certain assumptions are made. The effects of external forces are ignored, friction, etc. during a collision. This is known as a **closed system** – which means that nothing goes away and no forces act from outside the collision or system.

Momentum

Momentum is a property of all objects in motion and is defined by the equation:

$$\text{momentum} = \text{mass} \times \text{velocity} \quad \text{or} \quad p = mv$$

The units for momentum come from the SI units of the two variables mass and velocity.

Mass in kg and velocity in m/s gives **momentum the unit kg m/s (kilogram metre per second)**.

Momentum is a vector so has both magnitude and direction.

Momentum is an abstract property, but one way to think about what momentum is, is as a measure of how difficult it is to stop a moving object.

Examples – the momentum of different balls used in sports

Think about catching these four different balls if they were thrown to you:

- Tennis ball
- Football
- Golf ball
- Cricket ball

Which one has the most momentum? To work this out, the velocity and mass of each ball are required:

- Tennis ball 56 g (0.056 kg)
- Football 450 g (0.45 kg)
- Golf ball 45 g (0.045 kg)
- Cricket ball 160 g (0.16 kg)

A ball thrown leaves the hand at the same velocity as the hand at release, which is the throwing action.

Momentums

Tennis ball

$$p = mv$$

$$p = 0.056 \times 15 = 0.84 \text{ kg m/s}$$

Football

$$p = mv$$

$$p = 0.45 \times 15 = 6.75 \text{ kg m/s}$$

Task A

Calculate the momentum of the golf ball and the cricket ball.

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In a real sports situation, however, these balls will be moving at very different velocities than those normally thrown by hand.

Example

A football can have a velocity of ~ 60 m/s. What is its momentum?

$$p = mv$$

$$p = 0.45 \times 60 = 27 \text{ kg m/s}$$

A cricket ball can be travelling at ~ 27 m/s from a bowler. What is the momentum?

$$p = mv$$

$$p = 0.16 \times 27 = 4.32 \text{ kg m/s}$$

Task B

Calculate the momentum of the golf ball and the tennis ball given that a golf ball has a mass of 0.045 kg and a tennis ball a velocity ~ 78 m/s.

Conservation of momentum

When one or more moving objects collide and interact there can be changes in the momentum of the objects involved.

Important: total momentum before = total momentum after

This is known as the law of **conservation of momentum**.

This is only true in a **closed system** where there are no forces acting from outside the system.

Snooker is a good example of the conservation of momentum.

A snooker ball has a mass of 160 g (0.16 kg) and the white ball moves at 2 m/s in a normal play shot.

When it collides with another ball it transfers some or all of its momentum to that ball.

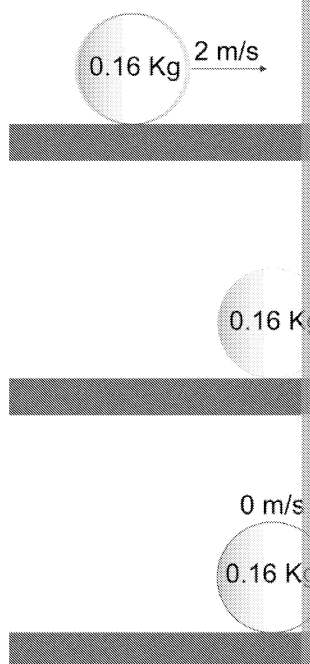
If the white ball stops completely then all the momentum is transferred and, because the red ball has the same mass, the red ball moves off at the same velocity of 2 m/s.

How much momentum does each ball have before the collision?

White ball: $p = mv \therefore p = 0.16 \times 2 = 0.32 \text{ kg m/s}$

Red ball – logically as it is not moving the momentum must be zero

After the collision the situation is reversed. Momentum is conserved so the total momentum before the collision is equal to the total after the collision. The red ball now has 0.32 kg m/s of momentum and the white ball has 0 momentum as it is stationary.



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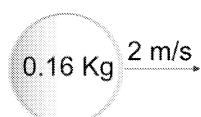
What happens if the two objects have different masses?

Imagine that a snooker ball collides with a tennis ball.

Momentum before:

$$\text{White ball: } p = mv$$

$$p = 0.16 \times 2 = 0.32 \text{ kg m/s}$$



The tennis ball has no motion so has no momentum.

$$\text{Total momentum} = 0.32 \text{ kg m/s}$$

After the collision, all the momentum has been transferred to the tennis ball; how its velocity must be greater than the 2 m/s of the white ball.

$$p = mv \therefore v = \frac{p}{m} = v = 0.32 \div 0.056 = 5.71 \text{ m/s}$$

What happens if after the collision the two objects are both moving?

Normally in a game of snooker the white ball will not stop. In this situation only p transferred to the other ball.

Example: A white ball of mass 160 g collides at 4 m/s with a stationary red ball of the white ball is moving at 1 m/s. Calculate the velocity of the red ball.

Before:

$$\text{White ball } p = mv = 0.16 \times 4 = 0.64 \text{ kg m/s}$$

$$\text{Red ball } p = mv = 0.16 \times 0 = 0 \text{ kg m/s}$$

$$\text{Total before} = 0.64 \text{ kg m/s}$$

After:

Total momentum must equal 0.8 kg m/s

$$\text{White ball: } p = mv = 0.16 \times 1 = 0.16 \text{ kg m/s}$$

$$\therefore \text{the red ball must retain the remaining momentum } 0.64 - 0.16 = 0.48$$

$$\text{As } p = mv \therefore v = \frac{p}{m} = 0.48 \div 0.16 = 3 \text{ m/s}$$

Task C

A football with a mass of 450 g is kicked by a person – the leg and foot have a mass of 4 kg and are moving at 2 m/s. At the point of collision the foot stops. At what velocity does the ball move after being kicked (ignore friction)?

How would this velocity be different if the foot and leg kept moving after the collision?

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Changes in momentum

Newton's **first law of motion** reminds us that **for an object to start to move, or to stop, a force must be applied** to the object.

A change in velocity must, therefore, cause a change in momentum: momentum

The force and the change in momentum must be related.

Mathematical proof of relationship between force (F) and a change in momentum

Recall that acceleration (a) is a change in velocity (v)

$$\text{as } a = \frac{\Delta v}{t} \text{ (where } \Delta = \text{a change in)}$$

$$\text{and } F = ma \text{ (where } m = \text{mass)}$$

$$\therefore F = \frac{m \Delta v}{t}$$

$$\text{and as } m \Delta v = \Delta p \therefore F = \frac{\Delta p}{t}$$

This shows that the force (F) is equal to the rate of change of momentum.

Also $\Delta p = Ft$ so the change in momentum is proportional to length of time the force is applied.

Which means that a bigger force applied for longer results in a bigger change in momentum.

Example

A car of mass 1500 kg is travelling at 15 m/s.

- a. What is the momentum of the car?

$$p = mv \text{ so } p = 1500 \times 15 = 22\,500 \text{ kg m/s}$$

- b. The resultant force from the engine is increased for 3 s and the car's velocity is increased to 25 m/s. What additional force was applied to achieve this change in velocity?

$$\text{New momentum } p = mv = 1500 \times 25 = 37\,500 \text{ kg m/s}$$

$$\therefore \text{the change in momentum } (\Delta p) = 37\,500 - 22\,500 = 15\,000 \text{ kg m/s}$$

$$\text{as } F = \frac{\Delta p}{t}$$

$$F = \frac{15\,000}{3} = 5000 \text{ N}$$

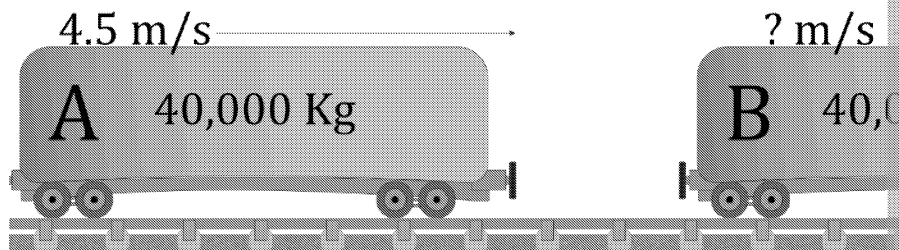
Question: If the driver of the car wanted to increase the velocity to 32 m/s (~ 70 mph), what additional 5000 N resultant force have to be applied, given the starting velocity of 15 m/s?

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Exam-style questions

1. Two rail-cargo wagons are rolling along a track in the same direction as shown in Figure 1.



- a. Calculate the momentum of wagon A.

- b. The momentum of wagon B is $80,000 \text{ kg m/s}$. Calculate its current velocity.

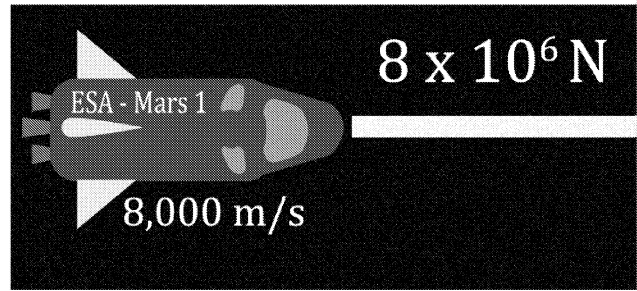
- c. When wagon A catches up with wagon B they link together to form train AB. Calculate the velocity of train AB? (Ignore friction and air resistance.)

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2. The spacecraft ESA - Mars 1 with a mass of 12,000 kg is just outside Earth's orbit. The rocket engines can produce 8×10^6 N of thrust.



- a. What is the current momentum of ESA - Mars 1?

- b. To reach Mars, the spacecraft must accelerate to 20,000 m/s. Calculate the amount of fuel that must be burned for it to reach this velocity.

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Chapter 13: Sound waves

Introduction

A sound wave is a vibration or a disturbance in a substance. Sound waves can travel through solids but not a vacuum. This chapter looks at how sound is transferred between the human ear. It ends by considering how waves can be used to detect items in archaeology. As there are few equations in this section of the syllabus, the emphasis is on justifying skills, with more attention on longer answers and definitions.

Types of wave and wave properties

Before discussing sound waves and the application of waves, it is important to have a look at the types of wave and the definitions used in describing a wave's properties.

The term *medium* is used in the study of waves to mean the material that a wave travels through. It can be air, water, rock, etc.

Transverse waves, e.g. water waves, light waves and sound waves

These waves cause a disturbance in the medium so that the material is displaced perpendicular to the direction of travel. The particles of the medium go up and down as the wave passes through the material.

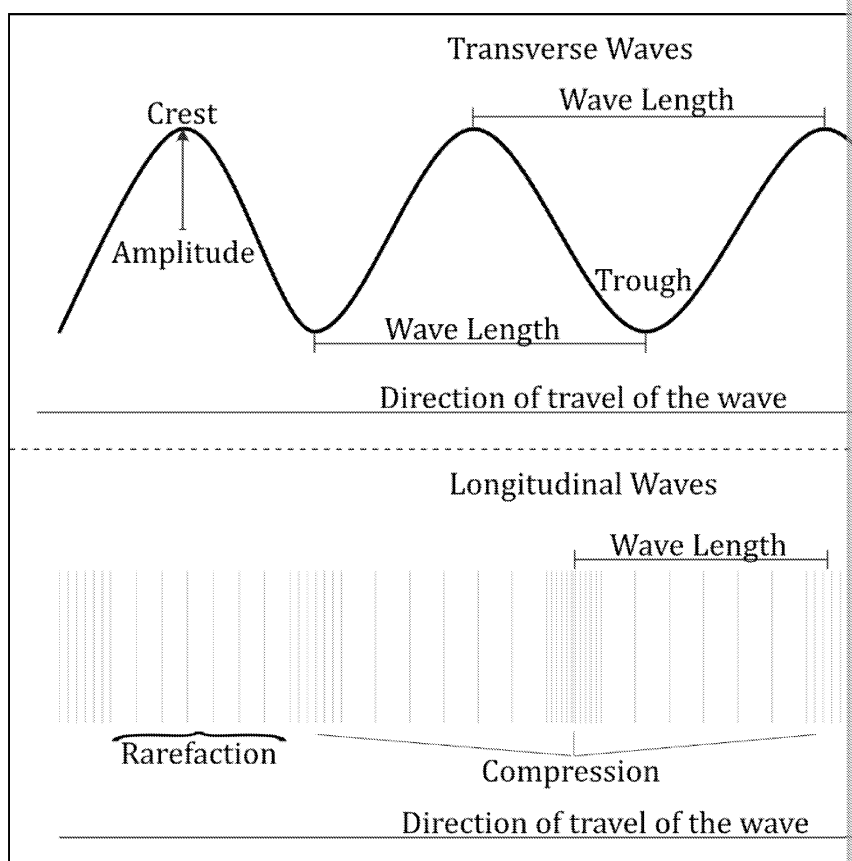


Figure 1

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Longitudinal waves, e.g. sound waves and seismic P

These waves are made up of areas of compression of the material; the source (e.g. a speaker) vibrates together and creates areas of more compressed and less compressed material, known as rarefactions, as shown in *Figure 1* on the previous page. These waves move through the material by compression, similar to a *Mexican wave* moving round a crowd in a stadium. The wave does not.

Properties of waves:

- Amplitude – the height of the wave from the middle to the top of a crest or trough
 - Wavelength – from crest to crest (trough to trough) or from the middle of a compression to the middle of the next compression
 - Frequency (in hertz, Hz) – number of waves per second
 - Wave speed – how fast a wave travels in m/s
- Examples: light speed in a vacuum, 3×10^8 m/s; sound in air, 330 m/s

Most of the chapter is about longitudinal waves – sound, ultrasound and seismic waves. It is a good moment to make sure you understand their structure and properties before continuing.

Sound waves

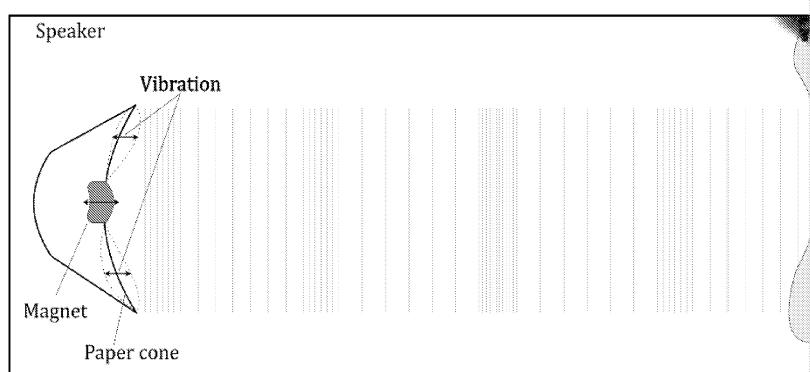


Figure 2 – sound waves

Sound is created by an object vibrating and pushing on the air around it; this causes the air to vibrate. These compressions travel away from the vibrating solid.

They are detected as sound if these waves of compression enter the ear and make the eardrum vibrate too.

A speaker from a TV or laptop or in a set of earbuds has a cone of paper attached to it. The device creates an electrical signal that alternates and makes the magnet vibrate and pushes on the paper cone which in turn vibrates the air, sending out a sound wave.

When this wave hits a solid object it will try to make the solid vibrate too. The energy is transferred to the solid, making it vibrate in the same pattern as the sound wave (frequency and amplitude).

In a sound wave the frequency affects the pitch of the sound (low frequencies give a low pitch and high frequencies give a high pitch).

The amplitude of the wave (the amount of compression) affects the volume of the sound. A larger amplitude means a louder sound and, importantly, carries more energy.

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The human ear and hearing

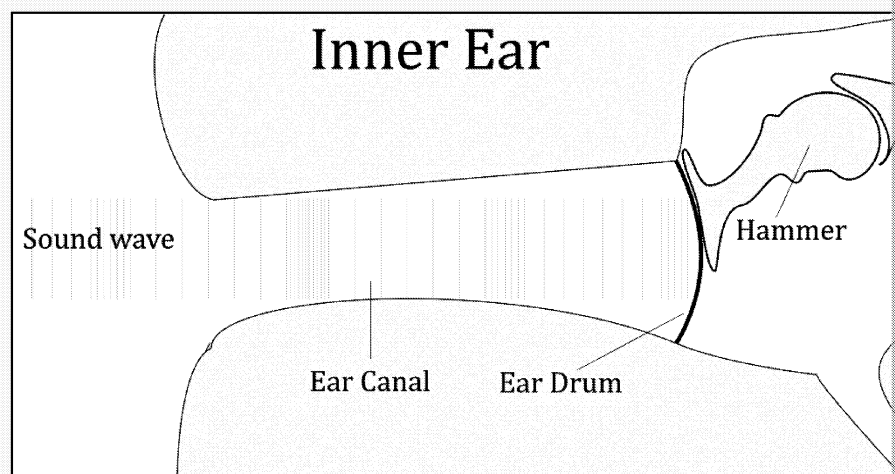


Figure 3 – the inner ear

How we hear (simplified)

1. Sound waves enter the ear canal – directed in by the *pinna* (outer ear).
2. The vibration from the sound wave makes the eardrum (a thin membrane) vibrate.
3. The vibration of the eardrum makes a small bone called the *hammer*, which vibrates.
4. This in turn makes another two small bones called the *anvil* and the *stirrup* vibrate.
5. These vibrations pass into the fluid-filled tube called the *cochlea* and in here they vibrate and send signals to the brain so we can hear.

Limits of human hearing

When a sound wave strikes a solid object, such as the eardrum, it will try to make it vibrate. If the frequency of the wave is too low we will not hear the sound. Too high and the same thing happens.

- Too low a frequency – the vibrations are too small to make the eardrum and the bones vibrate and passed all the way to the cochlea.
- Too high a frequency – the vibration is too fast for the hairs in the cochlea to vibrate and send signals to the brain.

When we are young we can hear sounds in the range **20 Hz to 20,000 Hz (20 kHz)**

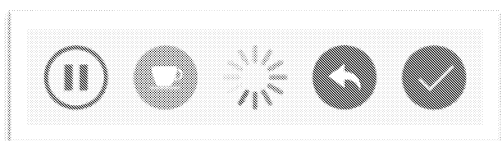
As we age this decreases, so most adults can hear sounds up to about 15–17 kHz

Bats on the other hand can hear sounds from 9 Hz up to 200,000 Hz



Loud music, especially from earphones and earbuds, damages the delicate hairs in the ear's cochlea – they literally snap off and can never regrow. So each time this happens we lose a part of our hearing!

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You have had to take in a lot of facts and then summarise the information. Check your summary before attempting the next question.

Task A

1. Compare the wave structures of a sound wave and a water wave.
2. State the limit of human hearing and explain how this is affected by age and as listening to loud music.
3. Explain how sound is detected by the human ear.

Using waves for detection

There are many situations where we cannot easily 'see' objects or see inside them.

Examples:

- Studying the internal structure of Earth down to the core
- Depth sounding and sonar (e.g. for commercial fishing at sea)
- Medical examinations without risking surgery

When a **wave** (transverse or longitudinal) **moves from one medium to another** it can:

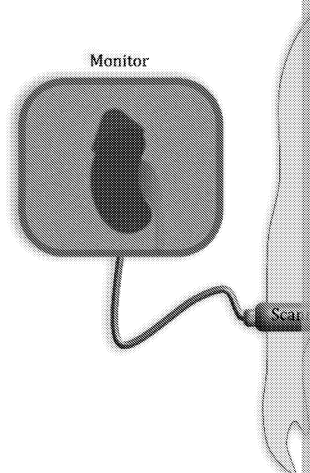
- Some materials will **absorb** the wave energy and the wave cannot pass through.
- Waves can **change velocity**
 - Longitudinal waves move fast in denser materials
 - Speed of sound in air ~ 330 m/s
 - Speed of sound in water ~ 1500 m/s
 - Transverse waves slow down in denser media – light is slower in glass than in air that allows light to be refracted and allows lenses to work
- At the boundary between media some waves will be **reflected** (i.e. an echo).

Together these changes can provide information about the internal composition of the human body.

Medical examination – ultrasound scanning

Recall that the human ear can detect sounds up to a maximum frequency of 20 kHz. Sounds higher than this is known as **ultrasound**.

A medical ultrasound scanner (sonograph) uses sound with frequency from 2–18 MHz. It can be used on any animal or human. The sound waves are emitted from a scanner as it is moved over the body. The waves are reflected as they move from one tissue type to another; the amount of reflection depends on the change in density. These reflected waves are detected and the computer displays the results. The displays show an internal image of the body. Sonography is much safer than an X-ray and is frequently used to examine the foetus as it develops in the uterus.



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Sonar (sound navigation and ranging)

Sonar works by sending out sound waves at a frequency between 1 and 100 kHz. An emitter on the bottom of the ship and if they hit an object, such as the sea floor or waves will be reflected and captured by a detector on the ship's hull.

As each wave has to travel to the bottom and back up, the time has to be halved to

$$\text{depth} = \text{velocity} \times \frac{1}{2} \text{time} = 1500 \times \frac{1}{2} (0.04) = 30 \text{ m}$$

Task B

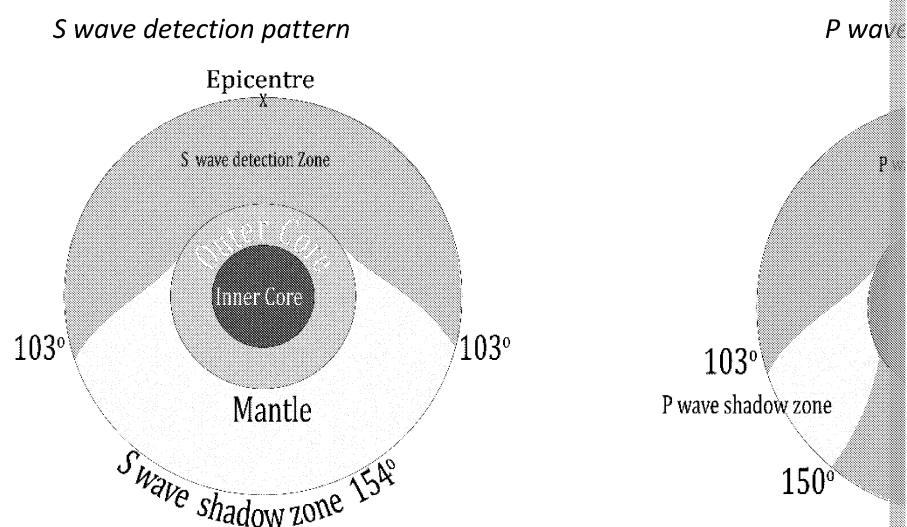
1. Sonar is used by a fishing vessel to detect shoals of fish. The sonar takes 0.04 seconds to return to the ship without the shoal. Once detected, the signal returns in 0.02 seconds. Calculate the depth of the sea floor and the shoal of fish from this information. (Speed of sound in water = 1500 m/s)
2. Explain how a sonograph can detect the bones in a developing foetus in the diagram to illustrate your answer.

Internal structure of Earth

To examine the internal structure of Earth, geologists study the pattern of earthquakes as they move around and through Earth. There are thousands of earthquake detectors around the globe. These act as the detectors whenever an earthquake occurs.

There are two types of seismic waves:

- ⊘ P waves – longitudinal waves that make the ground slide from side to side
 - Can travel through solids, liquids and semi-solids
- ⊘ S waves – transverse waves that make the ground rise and fall
 - Can travel through solids and semi-solids



As *S waves* cannot pass through liquid, the pattern shows that Earth's core must be solid. *P waves* can pass through it but are deflected by the changes in density, indicating the inner core.

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Exam-style questions

1. a. Which of the following is an example of a longitudinal wave?
- Light
 - Seismic S wave
 - Seismic P wave
 - Water wave
- b. A longitudinal wave consists of a series of compressions and rarefactions such as air.

Label an area of compression and an area of rarefaction on *Diagram 1*, k

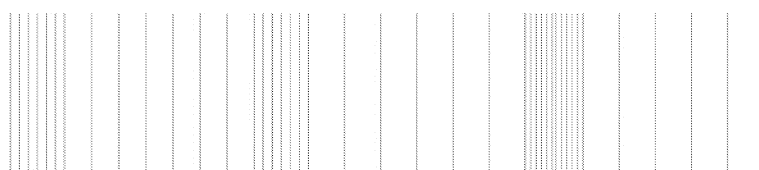


Diagram 1

- c. Explain how the pitch of a sound is related to the properties of the wave

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- d. Sound waves are detected by structures in the inner ear and converted to signals for the brain. *Diagram 2* shows the main structures involved in this process.

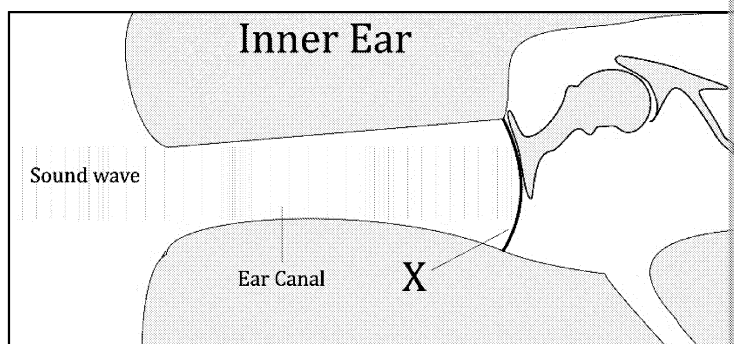


Diagram 2 – the inner ear

- i. State the name of the structure labelled X in Diagram 2.

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ii. Explain how the sound wave affects the structures in the inner ear and the sensation of sound. (You do not need to name each of the other structures.)

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iii. What is the upper limit of human hearing?

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2. When an earthquake occurs there are two types of seismic waves produced. These travel along Earth's surface and through Earth's inner structures – the inner core.

a. Which of the two types of seismic wave is an example of a transverse wave?

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b. When a P wave passes through Earth's crust it makes it move. Describe the movement of Earth's surface where this is occurring.

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c. Around the world there is a series of earthquake detection facilities. An earthquake occurs at point X as shown in *Diagram 3*, below. This is the epicentre and S waves spread out from this point.

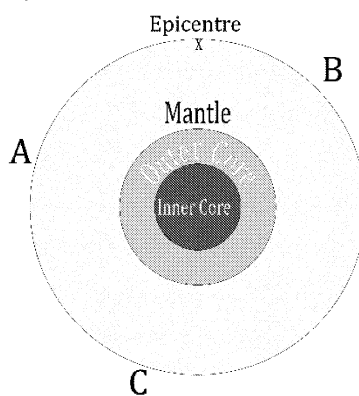


Diagram 3

Three earthquake detection facilities are shown at points A, B and C.

i. At which facility would you expect the waves to have the greatest amplitude? Explain your answer.

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ii. At which facility would you expect to detect only P waves? Explain

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iii. What does this observation tell geologists about the nature of Earth

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3. Longitudinal waves can be used for the examination of the body without the use of a diagnostic sonograph and it uses ultrasound.

a. Define the term ultrasound.

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b. Explain how ultrasound can be used to examine the internal structures of the body. Include a diagram to help illustrate your answer.

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Chapter 14: Properties of

Introduction

The electromagnetic spectrum (EMS) covers a range of related transverse waves. In this chapter you will have a chance to review the different parts of the EMS along with applications of these different parts of the spectrum.

The key higher-level skills and knowledge covered are to understand the different materials with materials, especially the process of refraction. You will be drawing ray diagrams in this section, so it is a good idea to have a ruler and pencil ready to use.

This chapter also considers the interaction between radio waves and electrical circuits produced by internal changes within atoms. If you are unfamiliar with the internal structure of atoms, review Chapter 7 in this publication or refer to your Chemistry notes.

Electromagnetic spectrum (EMS)

All parts of the EMS are essentially the same in structure. They are all **transverse** waves that travel away from the source from which they are emitted to the object(s) that absorb(s) this energy. They have different wavelengths and frequencies. **The shorter the wavelength the higher the energy.**

Recall that: *speed of a wave* (v) = *frequency* (f) \times *wavelength* (λ)

All parts of the EMS move at the speed of light: 3×10^8 m/s in a vacuum.

\therefore frequency $\propto \frac{1}{\text{wavelength}}$ so as the frequency increases the wavelength decreases

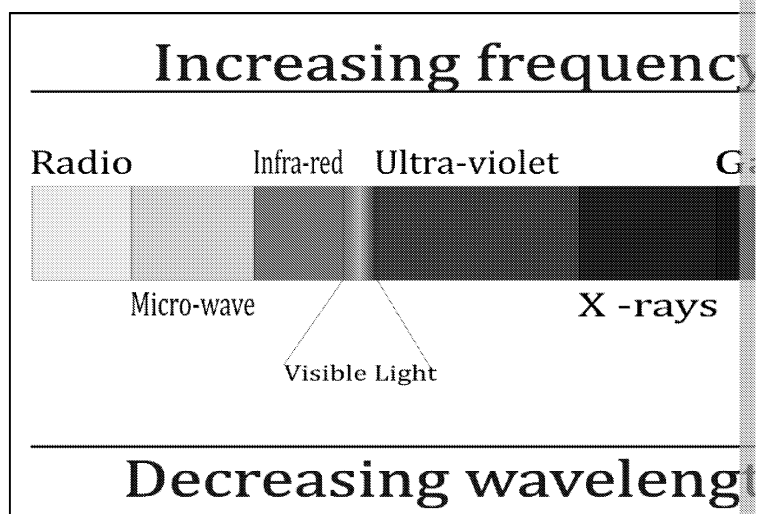


Figure 1 – the electromagnetic spectrum

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Applications

Part of the EMS	Application
Radio waves	Communications – TV, radio, Bluetooth™, Wi-Fi, etc.
Microwaves	Cooking; Communications – mobile phone signals for cell phones
Infrared	Remote-control signals; Night-vision cameras; Heaters
Visible light	Lasers – scanners at tills, and CD, DVD and Blu-ray™ players
Ultraviolet	Scanning bank notes for forgery; Causing tanning of the skin
X-rays	Medical examinations; Examination of machinery for defects
Gamma rays	Kill pathogens on surgical equipment and on food items

Table 1 – applications of EM radiation

In each of these examples, energy is being transferred from one object to another.

How EMS waves interact with different materials

There are four ways in which EMS waves interact with materials (solids, liquids or gases).

- **Emission** – This happens when a material gives out EMS radiation.
 - Gamma radiation from nuclear decay
 - Infrared from a warm object
 - Visible light from a bulb or a mobile phone screen
- **Absorption** – The opposite to emission; the energy of the wave is taken in by the material.
 - Visible light by the retina of the eye or the sensor on a camera
 - Microwaves taken in by the water molecules in a microwave cooker to heat the food
 - Gamma rays – taken in by molecules in the body causing damage to proteins and DNA, potentially causing cancers
- **Reflection** – The waves bounce off the material, such that the angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflection.
 - Mirrors
- **Refraction** – Bending of the wave from its original path due to changes in the speed of the wave as it passes from one material to another.
 - Lenses
 - Prisms
 - Mirage

Each of these interactions can be affected by the properties of the materials and the wavelength of the wave.

Examples

Emission: The temperature of a material will affect the wavelength of the infrared radiation emitted from its surface, the shorter the wavelength; this also means the waves carry more energy.

Refraction: Water refracts visible light more than glass because water is denser than air.

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Refraction

Any wave can be refracted as it passes from one material to another. This is caused by the materials through which the wave is travelling. **As the density of a material increases, the speed of the wave reduces.**

Although this process affects all waves in the EMS, for the rest of this section we will focus on light. The following diagrams illustrate the process.

When a ray of light moves from air to glass the path of the ray is deflected by the boundary between the two materials.

Glass has a higher density than air. As the light passes from the less dense air to the denser glass, its speed is reduced. This change in speed results in a change in the path of the ray of light.

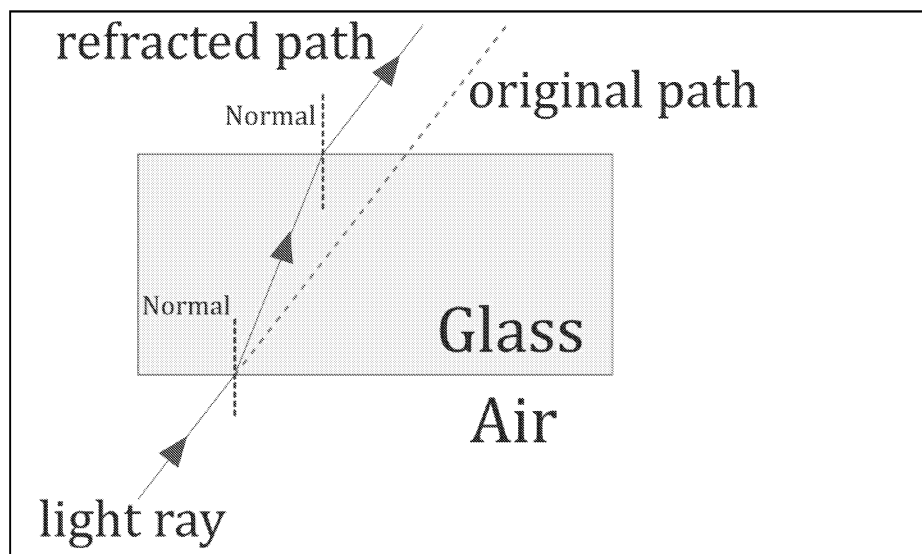


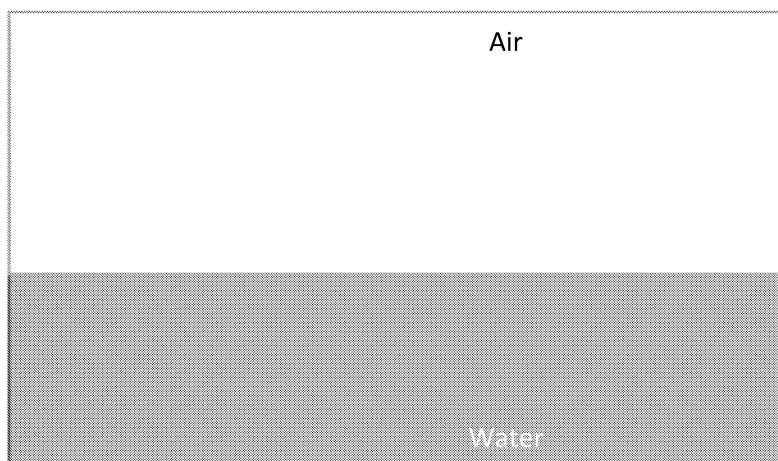
Figure 2 – refraction – ray diagram

Less dense to denser material (air to glass) – ray bends towards the normal.

Denser to less dense material (glass to air) – ray bends away from the normal.

Task A

Draw a ray diagram to illustrate the refraction of a ray of light as it passes from air into water. Label the ray of light and add a normal at the boundary between the two media.



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Why does refraction occur? Why does a change in speed

To understand this, a **wave front diagram** is used.

A wave front diagram uses lines to mark the crest of each part of the wave; it is like a wave and drawing a line to mark the top of each wave.

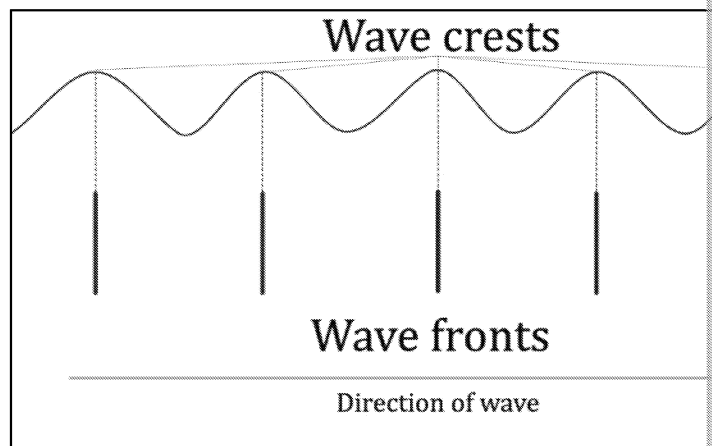


Figure 3 – wave front diagram

As the wave front enters a medium, only that part of the wave inside the new medium is moving at the original speed. This results in each wave front bending towards the normal. In the example below, the part inside the glass is moving more slowly so results in the wave bending towards the normal.

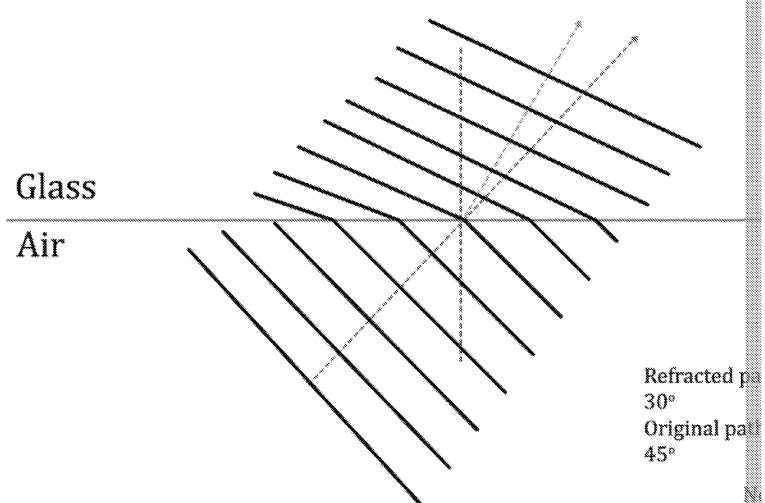


Figure 4 – wave front diagram – air to glass

Task B

Draw a wave front diagram to explain the refraction of light as it travels from glass to air.

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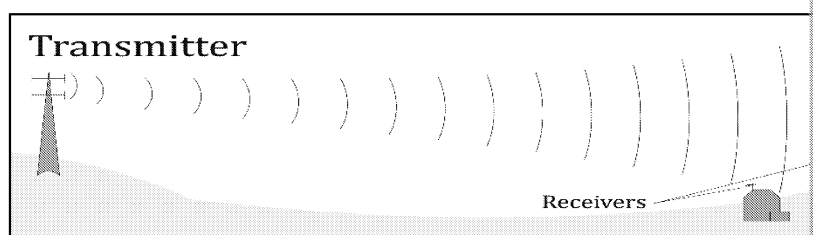


Radio waves

When an alternating current flows in an electrical circuit (a wire), these oscillation waves. The oscillations in the radio wave mirror that of the AC current.

This is used to broadcast information via TV, radio, Wi-Fi, etc.

When a radio wave is absorbed by a conductor, such as an aerial, the opposite half wave produce an AC current in the conductor. This alternating current can then be used by a device to reproduce the originally broadcast information – this might be an image (Wi-Fi, Bluetooth™).



Atoms as emitters

Atom structure

All atoms have a nucleus containing neutrons and protons. The nucleus is surrounded by the electrons organised into orbits.

Each orbit has a certain amount of energy associated with it. The further out an orbit is from the nucleus, the higher the energy state of the electrons in that orbit.

To make an electron '*jump*' to a higher orbit, an input of external energy is required.

If an electron '*falls*' to a lower orbit it must release the additional energy as a burst of electromagnetic radiation. (This is actually given off as a photon.)

The amount of energy given off determines the type of radiation, from low-energy visible light, etc. This is the basis of a fluorescent tube light – electricity makes an electron jump to a high-energy orbit. This is unstable so the electron falls back down to its normal orbit, releasing energy in the process. The energy level results in a burst of visible light.

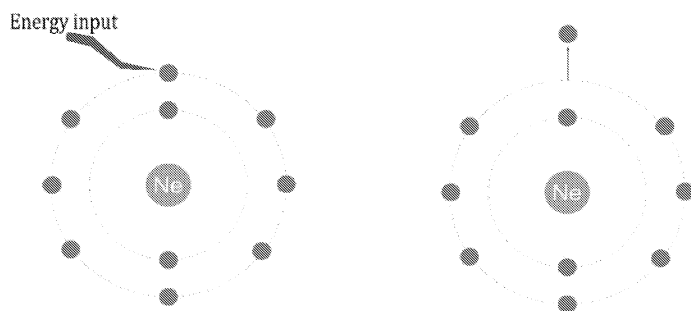
Very high-energy radiation, such as gamma rays, is the result of the energy change emitted from the nuclei of atoms. (See Chapter 7 for more details.)

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Exam-style questions

1. a. Choose the type of electromagnetic radiation with the shortest wavelength from the list below.
- Radio waves
 - Visible light
 - X-rays
 - Infrared



- b. Suggest two applications for microwave radiation.
1.
 2.
- c. Radio waves of different frequencies are used extensively for different forms of communication. Other than for broadcasting radio signals, suggest two forms of communication that use radio waves to carry information.
1.
 2.
- d. Radio signals are produced by controlling the oscillations in the circuit of a transmitter. Explain how these signals are detected by a receiving device to recreate the original information.

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- e. Helium gas is used in fluorescent tubes to produce a pale pink / white light. The atomic structure of a helium atom is shown in Diagram 1. Use this to explain how visible light is produced in a fluorescent tube.

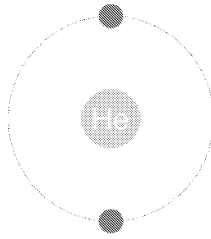


Diagram 1 – helium nucleus

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2. A student is investigating the refraction of light through a glass block using a ray box. The student produces a single ray of light which is directed into the glass block at an angle to the boundary of the block and the air. The set-up is shown in Diagram 2, below.

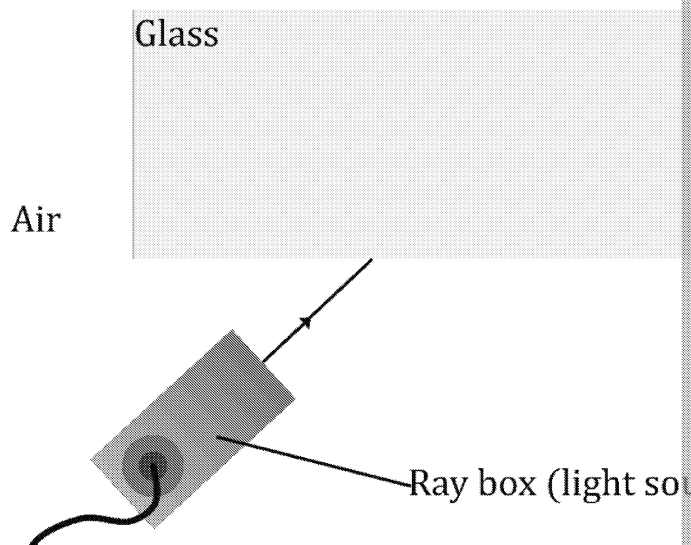


Diagram 2

- a. Complete the diagram to show the path of the ray of light as it passes through the glass block. Include a *normal* at the interface between the air and glass at the point where the ray enters the glass.

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- b. Using a wave front diagram, explain why the ray of light behaves in the question 2a, as it enters the glass block from the air.

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Chapter 15: Space physics

Introduction

All stars have a common beginning, but the death of a star depends on its solar mass. The processes that lead to the birth of stars and their eventual deaths are considered in this section.

Investigating the endless expanse of the universe represents huge challenges to astronomers. They must deduce the history, current structure and potential futures from clues they can deduce from the radiation that reaches Earth from across the vast emptiness of space. One key idea about the universe is the **red shift** of visible light from distant galaxies.

There are no calculations in this section, but the ability to provide clear explanations is required at grade 9 in this section on the physics of space.

Distances in space – distances in space are all but impossible for the human mind to grasp. We need some means to measure distance. Using metres or kilometres would require writing out long strings of numbers. Instead we use two main units for distances in outer space.

Light year (ly) – not a measurement of time but of distance. It is defined as the distance that light travels in a vacuum in one Earth year, which is $\sim 9,461,000,000,000,000$ or 9.461×10^{15} m.

Parsec (parallax second) – this is 3.26 ly in distance. There is no requirement in the SI system for this unit of measurement, but if you are interested in space you will come across it in the original *Star Wars™* film, *Han Solo uses parsec to describe how fast the Millennium Falcon is travelling – a measure of time not distance – not so good for a space pilot!*

The life cycle of stars

Birth of all stars

All stars begin life as a vast cloud of gas (mainly hydrogen) called a **nebula**. The Horsehead Nebula, for example, is over 3.5 ly across.

Gravity pulls this nebula together over billions of years to form a **protostar**; protostars are over 10 million km in diameter – our Sun is only 1.4 million km across in comparison. These are not true stars as they do not give out much radiation (light, heat, etc.).

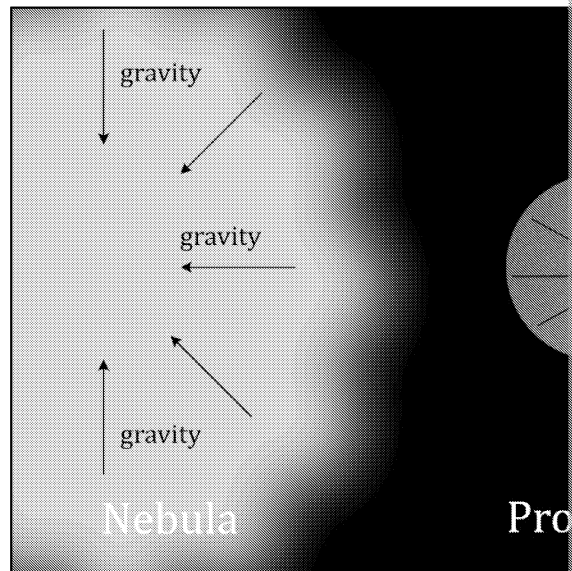


Figure 1 – the birth of a star

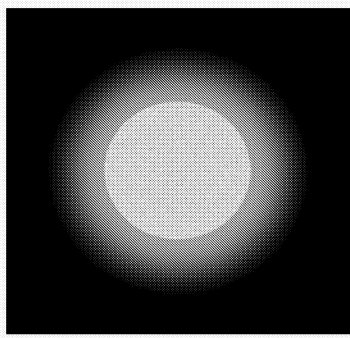
Gravity continues to make them contract until eventually the internal pressure is high enough for **fusion** to start. Hydrogen is forced together to make helium and give out light and heat.

A star is born! In a stable main sequence star (such as our Sun) the size remains constant. **Gravity is pulling it inwards** but **heat from fusion is making it expand**. In a star the

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The Sun

Our Sun is a medium-sized star and has been around for billions of years. It has enough fuel to stay as it is now for billions of years before it begins to die.

Mass: $\sim 2 \times 10^{30}$ kg

Distance from Earth: ~ 150 million km

It takes light about eight minutes to reach Earth.

When a star begins to run out of hydrogen for fusion it begins to decline, but what happens next depends on the mass of the star.

Small/Medium stars (about the size of our Sun)

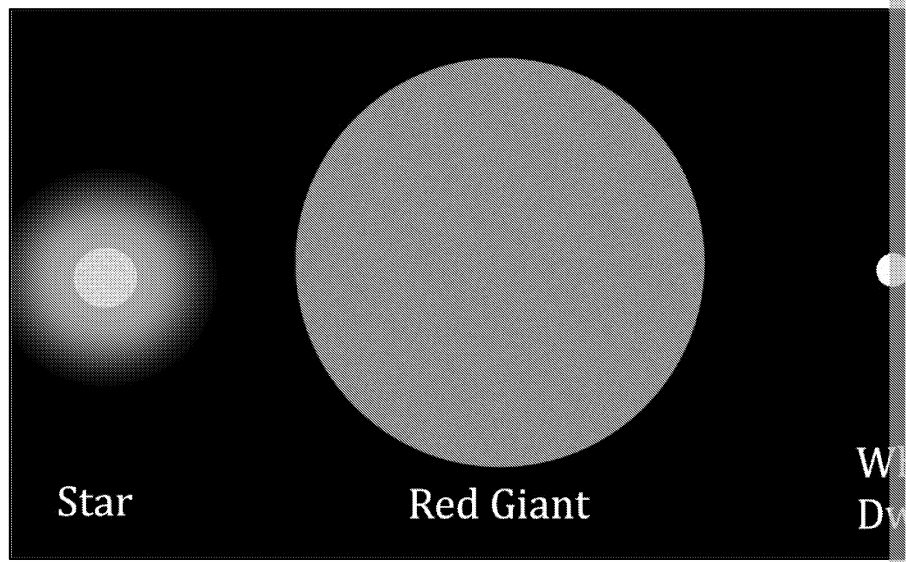


Figure 2 – death of a small/medium star

Red giant: With no more hydrogen to use in fusion, the star begins to use helium in the process. The heat from this causes a vast and rapid expansion of the star in all directions. The star expands to engulf Mercury, Venus and Earth (and possibly Mars, too).

White dwarf: When no more fusion is possible, gravity begins to make the star contract, becoming smaller and denser. The star no longer shines and it begins to cool.

Black dwarf: This is a small but very dense mass of material that has cooled to absolute zero. It is black as it does not emit any EM radiation.

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Large stars

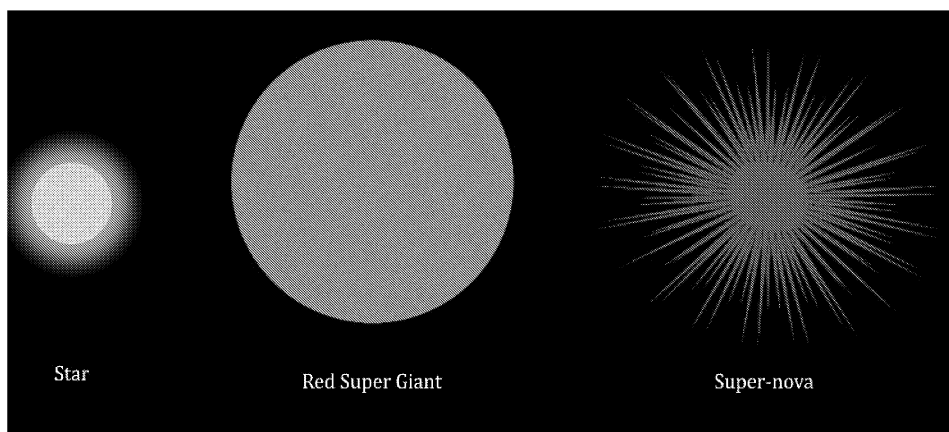


Figure 3 – death of large stars

Red supergiant: When the hydrogen runs out, these stars also start to fuse helium. As the star is larger, the resulting red giant is much larger too.

Supernova: The forces inside a red supergiant are huge, and eventually the system suddenly explodes in a supernova, sending out matter and energy. Only in a supernova can elements heavier than iron be forged. Without them there would be no life in this universe. The resulting supernova can no longer produce heat from fusion, so gravity makes it collapse.

Neutron star: The huge mass left after a supernova will begin to shrink; in large stars it becomes an extremely dense remnant of a star, called a neutron star. Inside, the pressures are much higher than longer exist as they do here on Earth; they are reduced to neutrons. Some neutron stars are giving out beams of radiation (microwaves and X-rays); these are known as pulsars.

Black hole: In very large stars, the mass of material is so high that it is crushed by its own gravity with all the mass of a star, known as a singularity. The gravity this produces is so strong that nothing can move fast enough to escape it. Even time is stretched out within the black hole.

Scientists think there is a supermassive black hole at the centre of our galaxy, which is pulling in stars into its singularity, like water spinning down a plug hole!

Task A

Compare the life cycle of our Sun with that of Betelgeuse, a star in the Orion constellation. Betelgeuse is a red supergiant with a mass over 16 times greater than that of our Sun. (It is so large that if it were in the centre of our solar system its outer edge would stretch out as far as the asteroid belt.)

You can use diagrams to help illustrate your ideas.

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Red shift

The current theory about the origin and potential future of our universe states the Big Bang when all of time and matter were created and since then the matter has *explosion*. This means the universe is constantly expanding.

For this theory to be true there must be evidence that the universe is expanding, good as the evidence that supports it.

Red shift is one of the key pieces of evidence to support these ideas; it is based on measurements that have been confirmed by different teams of scientists over ma

Recall: The colour of visible light is related to the wavelength of the wave. Shorter blue/purple light, **longer wavelengths give red light.**

Scientific observation: The light from nearby galaxies is redshifted, the light contains more red wavelengths than you would expect. The more distant the galaxy, the greater the amount of red shift. All galaxies observed showed evidence of red shift in their light spectra.

Conclusions: All observed galaxies must be moving away from us. The more distant galaxies are moving at a faster rate away from us.

Explanation

A galaxy contains billions of stars. These stars each emit light of different frequencies, producing a wide spectrum of colours. When seen from a distance these colours should merge to make the galaxy appear white. So any light from any galaxy should show a broad but balanced distribution of wavelengths.

Imagine a **galaxy that is stationary** compared to the *Milky Way* (our galaxy). The galaxy emits a wave at regular intervals, giving a set wavelength (one unit long).

Over time the wave moves forward and there is a set distance between each wave (one unit). **All the waves are the same.**

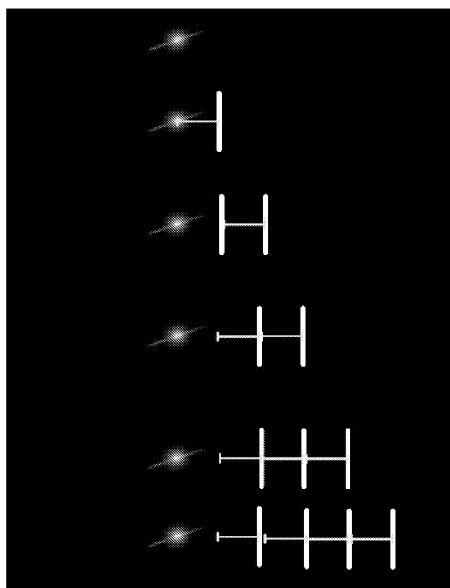


Figure 4 – waves from a stationary source

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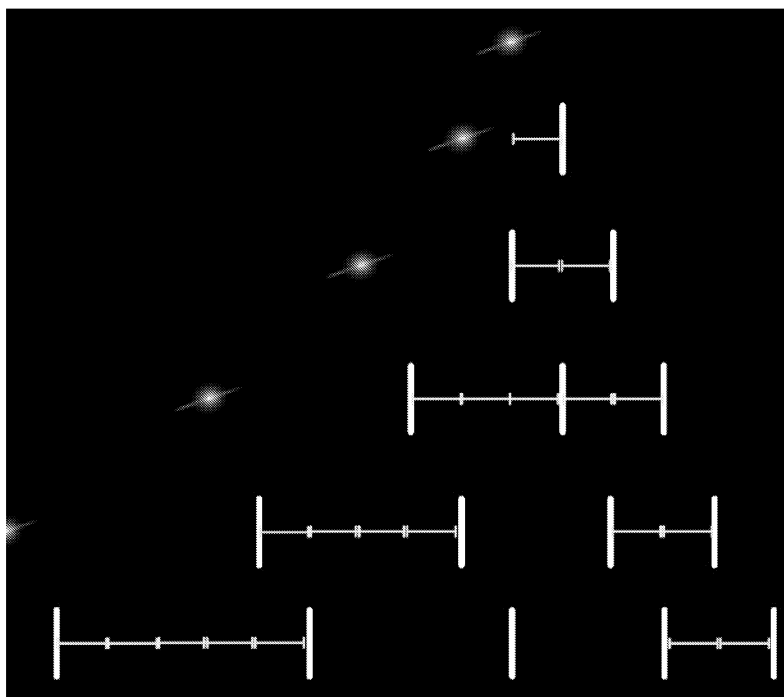


Figure 5 – waves from a receding galaxy

If the galaxy is receding and a wave is emitted at a set interval, this would give a shorter wavelength. However, however, between each period of emission the galaxy moves away, increasing the distance between the waves as shown above. The faster it recedes, the greater the separation between the waves, giving wavelengths that are shifted to the red end of the visible spectrum.

This is the same process that creates the Doppler effect – the change in pitch of the sound heard by a stationary observer. (Moving towards you, the waves are pushed together, decreasing the wavelength, making the pitch higher; as it recedes away from you, the waves stretch out, lowering the pitch. This is the Doppler effect acting on light, rather than sound.)

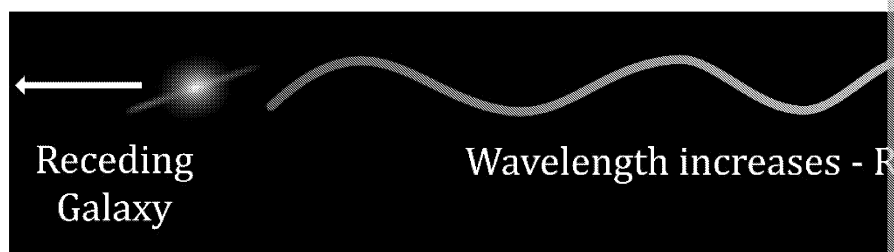


Figure 6 – red shift summary

Conclusions from the observation of red shift

- If all the galaxies are moving away from each other the universe must be expanding.
- Logically if this is true and you could wind back time they must all get closer together, eventually they must all be in one place – the site of the Big Bang.

Task B

Prepare a presentation (on your PC, Mac, etc. or on paper) to explain red shift to your class. Design your own illustrations and make sure you explain why this means the universe is expanding.

Make notes on the key ideas to include and later on check them against the suggested answer sheet.

(Alternative: Produce your own poster on the topic of red shift – be creative.)

Time limit – you should aim to finish this within 20 minutes.

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Exam-style questions

1. In 1929, Edward Hubble observed the wavelengths of light coming from distant galaxies. He observed that the spectrum of light was not as expected.

a. What did Hubble observe about the spectrum of the light from distant galaxies?

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b. How was this different for galaxies closer to the Milky Way compared to galaxies at a greater distance?

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c. In the middle of the twentieth century there were two main theories about the origin of the universe.
Theory A: The universe started with the Big Bang and has been expanding ever since.
Theory B: The universe has always existed but is expanding over time.

- i. Which of the following is true based only on Hubble's observations?
- The observations support theory A but disprove theory B
 - The observations do not support either theory
 - The observations can be used to support parts of both theories

ii. Theory B was rejected by most scientists during the 1960s. Why was it rejected and theory A accepted?

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d. Explain how Hubble's observations support the idea of an expanding universe.

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2. Stars are created inside large gas clouds known as nebulae. Over time, parts
- a. What force results in the formation of protostars from the gases in the nebulae?
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 - b. The protostar continues to collapse; eventually it becomes dense enough to emit electromagnetic radiation, such as visible light and infrared.
 - i. What process inside the star creates these?
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 - ii. Why does this process prevent the star from continuing to collapse?
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 - c. Our Sun is a medium-sized star and has enough fuel to maintain its current state for about 10 billion years.
 - i. Describe the likely sequence of changes that will occur to our Sun when it runs out of fuel.
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 - ii. The star UY Scuti, which is 5219 ly from Earth, is believed to be the largest star known. It is estimated to be 1700 times more massive than our Sun.

Compare its likely future changes with that of our Sun.
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Challenges - A Level AQA Physics

Introduction

It is important to understand **that nothing in this section is required for the GCSE**. This is a set of challenges for students considering studying Physics at GCE Advanced Level.

There are no exam questions in this section; each part contains some information and some challenges. In each case it is the thinking and the effort to come up with your own solutions that counts.

These are not tasks for the search engines of the Internet; they are tasks for your own thinking.

You don't have to be right all the time; here it really is the effort that counts. At the end of this publication you will find some suggestions and possible answers and solutions. Remember, they are not the only answers. Like real science, not all the answers are obvious, and some are valid and worthy of exploration and experimentation.

1. Measurement and uncertainty

At the heart of **all science** is the ability to **collect data** and **compare this with a hypothesis**. As we may expand the range and detail of our knowledge and understanding.

There is a problem that as Physics students we must consider whenever we take a measurement. **No measurement is 100 % accurate** all the time. This is because of the nature of the collecting of the data. There are always assumptions and mistakes.

Challenge 1.1 – Uncertainty in measuring quantities

During your time so far as a science student, you have had the chance to measure various quantities using a range of measuring equipment.

Table 1 shows some common – and some less common – quantities that are measured in different branches of science). What could you use to measure them, and why might they be difficult to measure? Copy and complete the table with your ideas and include the SI units plus a few non-SI units too. The first section has been completed for you as an example.

Physical quantity	Measuring devices	Sources of error
Time SI units: seconds (s) Other units: hours, minutes, days	Stop clock, stopwatch, mobile phone, atomic clock, wristwatch	Misreading the dial Limit of the watch to Limit of a stop clock Not stopping the stop (human reflexes)
Length (distance) SI units: Other units:		
Mass SI units: Other units:		
Temperature SI units: Other units:		

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Physical quantity	Measuring devices	Sources of error
Electrical current SI units: Other units:		
Amount of a substance SI units: Other units:		
Luminosity SI units: Other units:		

Table 1 – measurement and sources of error

The quantities in Table 1 are the **seven base quantities**; none of these can be expressed in terms of other quantities. They are the seven building blocks of all other quantities and their units of measurement are included in the AQA A Level syllabus.

Derived units of measurement – these are made up from the seven base quantities.

Velocity, acceleration and speed are made up of **time and length (distance)** [$m.s^{-1}$, $m.s^{-2}$ and $m.s^{-1}$].

Weight, which is a measurement of force [**N**] and is derived from **length, mass and time** [$kg.m.s^{-2}$].

Explanation: Newton's second law of motion $F = ma$ $N = kg.m.s^{-2}$

Frequency [Hz] is the inverse of **time** [$\frac{1}{s}$ or s^{-1}].

Have a go – give the base quantities (from the seven listed in Table 1) and their units for the following derived quantities:

Volume:

Density:

Pressure:

Moment of a force:

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Calculating and recording uncertainty

There are two main reasons why data may not be 100 % accurate:

1. Limitations of the measuring device
2. Human error in reading the scale / using the device

1. Limitations of the measuring device

A typical ruler used in science may have divisions on its scale marked to 1 mm. It is most people to be able to take a measurement to the nearest 0.5 mm. 0.5 mm is the uncertainty for this device.

If, for example, a student measures the length of the side of a cube to be 30 mm, with an uncertainty within 0.5 mm: $30 \text{ mm} \pm 0.5 \text{ mm}$, i.e. the *real* length is between 29.5 mm and 30.5 mm.

This can also be expressed as a **percentage uncertainty**

$$\text{percentage uncertainty} = \frac{\text{uncertainty in the measurement}}{\text{value of the measurement}} \times 100\%$$

For the example above:

$$\text{percentage uncertainty} = \frac{0.5}{30} \times 100 = 1.67\%$$

... but these are normally limited to 1 or 2 sf. Therefore, it would be expressed as 1.7 %.

Values below 5 % are considered to be repeatable. Above 5 % and the error is often not repeatable and, therefore, of limited value in providing proof.

2. Human error

All students are familiar with this; it is why we take three or more readings and then take the mean. One way of calculating the uncertainty is to **find half the range** and use this with the mean.

Example

A student measures the mass of a cube of copper as part of working out its density. They take three readings from their electric balance:

20.25 g, 20.66 g and 20.14 g

$$\text{Mean} = \frac{(20.25 + 20.66 + 20.14)}{3} = 20.35 \text{ g}$$

$$\text{Range of the results} = 20.66 - 20.14 = 0.52 \text{ g}$$

$$\text{Uncertainty} = \text{range} \div 2 = 0.52 \div 2 = 0.26 \text{ g}$$

Thus the result is $20.35 \pm 0.26 \text{ g}$ (percentage uncertainty of 1.3 %)

Challenge 1.2 – Recording uncertainty

Find an object (nothing too large – a phone, a tablet or a book, for example).

Take a ruler – any ruler will do. Note the smallest division (1 mm, 1 cm, etc.) and the uncertainty (normally half the smallest unit division on the ruler, but it's up to you to decide).

Now measure one side or height of your object. Do this three or four times or, better still, get other people to do it as well as yourself. Record each answer then work out the mean and the percentage uncertainty.

How accurate were your measurements – were they repeatable?

How could you improve the uncertainty in these measurements?

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2. Mechanics

Mechanics is the study of moving objects (or *moving bodies* as they are often referred to). It includes the familiar works of Sir Isaac Newton's three laws of motion as well as his theory of gravitation. In this challenge your mathematical skills will be needed as it focuses on the equations of motion and acceleration.

Equations

At A Level you will be dealing with equations in their algebraic form; they will generally be written in words. Therefore, you need to know the standard symbols and the SI units used.

Copy and complete Table 2 with the correct symbols and SI units for some of the variables.

Variable	Symbol	SI units
Initial velocity	u	ms ⁻¹
Final velocity or velocity		
Acceleration		
Time		
Distance or displacement		
Gravity		
Force		
Mass		

Table 2 – variables in mechanics

Recall the symbol Δ (delta) means the change in the value of a variable.

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

$$v = u + at \quad s = \left(\frac{u+v}{2}\right)t \quad s = ut + \frac{1}{2}at^2 \quad v^2 - u^2 = 2as$$

A critical skill in physics beyond GCSE is to be able to select the correct equations and rearrange them to make any variable the subject of the equation.

Any variable or constant can be moved from one side of the *equals sign* as long as you do the same function.

+ becomes – and – becomes +

× becomes ÷ and ÷ becomes ×

x^2 becomes \sqrt{x} etc.

Example

Rearrange $v = u + at$ such that t is the subject of the equation.

$$v = u + at$$

$$\therefore v - u = at \quad \text{so} \quad \frac{v - u}{a} = t$$

By convention, the subject of the equation is written on the left of the equals sign.

$$t = \frac{v - u}{a}$$

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Challenge 2.1

A car moves in a straight line from point A to point B in 10 s. At point B the car's velocity is 20 m s⁻¹. The distance AB is measured as 200 m.

- What was the velocity of the car at point A?
- Point A is $\frac{1}{2}$ AB. Show that the time taken for the car to cover the distance AB is 10 s.

Challenge 2.2

Calculate the acceleration of a sphere moving with an initial velocity of 5 ms⁻¹ if it travels a distance of 1000 m (ignore the effect of friction).

What was the velocity of the sphere after the 1000 m?

3. Astrophysics

As you progress with Physics (or any subject) you will encounter articles and books containing more information than that provided in GCSE textbooks and on websites. Being able to read and extract useful information is a vital skill to develop. So in this challenge you have to read an article from **NASA.gov by Brian Dunbar**. Your challenge is to read the article and **summarise** it. Your summary can include any key words or data.

One tip to help with this is to **read it once without making any notes**, so you can then go back and **use a highlighter** to mark any **important information, key sentences, words**, etc. (Some libraries tend to take a poor view of borrowers that do this to their books!)

In physics, any **numbers or equations** are probably worth highlighting; after all, **maths is the first language of physics**.

Summary

- NASA.gov by Brian Dunbar
- Summarise – write a list of bullet points
- Read it once without making any notes
- Use a highlighter
- Important information
- Key sentences, words
- Numbers or equations
- Maths is the first language of physics

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Challenge 3.1

What are black holes?

A black hole is an astronomical object with a gravitational pull so strong that nothing can escape it. A black hole's 'surface,' called its event horizon, defines the boundary where the escape velocity exceeds the speed of light.

Stellar-mass black holes with three to dozens of times the Sun's mass are spread throughout the galaxy, while supermassive monsters weighing 100,000 to billions of solar masses are found in the centres of big galaxies, ours included.

Astronomers had long suspected an in-between class called intermediate-mass black holes with between 100 and 10,000 solar masses. While a handful of candidates have been identified with little convincing example to date came on May 21, 2019, when the National Science Foundation's Laser Interferometer Gravitational-wave Observatory (LIGO), located in Livingston, Louisiana, and Hanford, Washington, detected gravitational waves from a merger of two stellar-mass black holes. This event resulted in a single black hole with the mass of 142 Suns.

A stellar-mass black hole forms when a star with more than 20 solar masses exhausts its nuclear fuel and collapses under its own weight. The collapse triggers a supernova explosion that blows away the outer layers. But if the crushed core contains more than about three times the Sun's mass, it will collapse to a black hole.

Once born, black holes can grow by accreting matter that falls into them, including gas, dust, stars and even other black holes.

In 2015 scientists first detected gravitational waves, ripples in the fabric of space-time, predicted by Albert Einstein's general theory of relativity. LIGO detected the waves from an event where two orbiting black holes spiraled into each other and merged 1.3 billion years ago. Other gravitational wave facilities have observed numerous black hole mergers via the gravitational waves they produce.

Although light can't escape a black hole's event horizon, the enormous tidal forces near the hole heat matter to heat up to millions of degrees and emit radio waves and X-rays. Some of this radiation is closer to the event horizon may be hurled out, forming jets of particles moving near the speed of light. Jets from supermassive black holes can extend hundreds of millions of years into space. (Dunbar, 2020)

References

Dunbar, B (2020, November 23). What Are Black Holes? (R Garner, Editor) Retrieved from https://www.nasa.gov/vision/universe/starsgalaxies/black_hole_description.html

Make some notes and write a summary of the article on black holes from NASA.

Questions

- The article mentions three classes of black hole; what are these, and how are they formed? Explain why our Sun could not form one of these.
- Black holes do not emit any radiation (all radiation is pulled into them by their gravity). How have the phenomena have been used to help detect some black holes.
- It is suggested that at the centre of our Milky Way galaxy there is a supermassive black hole. Why does it need to be supermassive, and what does this suggest for the eventual future of the galaxy?

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Answers

Chapter 1

Task A

1. $E_p = E_k$

$$mgh = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

$$gh = \frac{1}{2}v^2$$

$$v = \sqrt{2gh}$$

$$v = \sqrt{2 \times 9.8 \times (15 - 5)}$$

$$v = 14 \text{ m/s}$$

- The designers could change the shape of the cart to make it more aerodynamic. This energy is dissipated into the air as thermal energy.
- During maintenance of the ride, the owners could apply a lubricant to the moving parts to reduce energy loss due to friction.
- The student's suggestion would be incorrect. This is because the mass of the cart has no effect on the final speed. Look at the equation in part 1 of this task; you will see that the mass (m) cancels out. It is important to remember that equations describe what is happening in the real world. An equation is telling you about a real system when dealing with them. It will help you to understand the system and help you gain a 9.
- This is due to the energy lost as thermal energy due to friction between the moving parts of the cart and the cart through the air, known as air resistance.

Task B

1. $\Delta E = mc \Delta \theta$ [change in energy = mass \times specific heat capacity \times change in temperature]

$$\Delta E = 1 \times 4200 \times (100 - 20)$$

$$\Delta E = 1 \times 4200 \times 80$$

$$\Delta E = 336\,000 \text{ J} \equiv 336 \text{ kJ}$$

- Some of the heat energy has been dissipated into the environment, such as the body of the kettle and the air around the kettle. [Actually this would be 400 kJ (actual) – 336 kJ (theoretical) = 64 kJ of energy is dissipated into the surroundings. So the kettle is about 84 % efficient.]
- One suggestion would be to change the body of the kettle to use a material with a low thermal conductivity, such as a plastic. This would allow less heat to escape into the surroundings and means more of the supplied energy would be used to heat the water.

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Exam-style questions

1. a. The main energy changes will be from gravitational potential energy [1] to kinetic energy [1] (1 mark for both kinetic and thermal)

b. $E_p = mgh$

$$E_p = 200 \times 9.8 \times 20 \quad [1]$$

$$E_p = 39\,200 \text{ J} \quad [1]$$

c. $E_p = E_k$

$$mgh = \frac{1}{2} mv^2$$

$$gh = \frac{1}{2} v^2$$

$$\therefore v = \sqrt{2gh} \quad [1 \text{ mark for rearranging the equation correctly}]$$

$$v = \sqrt{2 \times 9.8 \times (20 - 2)} \quad [1 \text{ mark for correct substitution including the change in height}]$$

$$v = 18.78 \text{ m/s}$$

[1 mark for the answer. Note that as long as the answer matches the sum described, the answer will be correct.]

Example $v = \sqrt{2 \times 9.8 \times (20)}$

$v = 19.80 \text{ m/s}$ --- here the candidate has forgotten to use the change in height but they still get a mark for the 19.8 m/s because it is the correct answer

2. a. The insulation is to reduce the loss of thermal energy to the air. This improves the accuracy of the experiment. [1]

- b. Specific heat capacity is a property of a material that indicates the amount of energy needed to change the temperature of 1 kg of the material and its surroundings to change the temperature of 1 kg of the material by 1 °C.

The amount of energy needed to increase the temperature of 1 kg of a material by 1 °C is its specific heat capacity. 1 mark is awarded for a correct definition. There are several ways to explain the definition, but the most commonly used at GCSE. The first one is a more accurate description.

- c. During the investigation, a 1 kg block of iron is used and 5000 J of energy are supplied. The thermometer records a starting temperature of 20 °C and a final temperature of 30.8 °C. What is the specific heat capacity of the iron used in this experiment?

Before the answer, a tip: Many people find it hard to find the right information from a question. It is often easier to find variables within an equation. This is especially true for anyone with dyslexia, for whom it is often difficult to highlight the numbers in the question – it's OK to do this in the exam. Then, use the highlighted variables and pick the numbers needed from those highlighted. See the example below.

$$\Delta E = mc \Delta \theta$$

$$\Delta E = 5000 \text{ J}$$

$$m = 1 \text{ kg}$$

$c = ?$ (This is the one to calculate)

$$\Delta \theta = \text{start } 20 \text{ °C end } = 30.8 \text{ °C} \quad \text{change} = 30.8 - 20 = 10.8 \text{ °C} \quad [1]$$

$$\text{Answer: } \Delta E = mc \Delta \theta$$

$$\therefore c = \frac{\Delta E}{m \Delta \theta}$$

$$c = \frac{5000}{1 \times 10.8} [1] = 463 \text{ J/kg/°C} \quad [1]$$

3. a. The cyclist could add lubrication (oil or grease) to the moving parts, such as the chain and pedals, to reduce the friction between the parts. This would reduce the loss of energy as thermal energy due to friction between the parts. [1 mark for stating the solution – lubrication. 1 mark for the explanation – reducing the loss of energy as thermal energy due to friction]

b. $E_k = \frac{1}{2} mv^2$

$$E_k = \frac{1}{2} \times 70 \times (5)^2$$

$$E_k = 875 \text{ J} \quad [1 \text{ mark for calculating the kinetic energy}]$$

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\text{Useful energy output (or transferred out)}}{\text{Total energy input (or transferred in)}} (\times 100 \%)$$

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{875}{1000} \times 100 \% \quad [1 \text{ mark for correct use of the efficiency question}]$$

$$\text{Efficiency} = 87.5 \% \quad [1 \text{ mark for the correct answer expressed as a percentage}]$$

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Chapter 2

Task A

1. Key points to include in your answer:
 - State the starting values for each country: China, 9000 kWh per person; UK, 45, can be ± 500 .
 - State that the energy used per person in the UK gradually and steadily declines
 - By contrast, the energy consumption in China increases over the same period to
 - The values are converging, showing that the two countries are now using rough per person.

There is no need in this answer to explain why this is happening.

2. There are several possible answers to this question, but for each you must provide a correct – this is the ‘justify’ part of the question.
 - The population of China has increased by 149 million, so there are more people
 - There has been an increase in the use of electrical devices, especially mobile an
 - China is a richer country so more people can afford electrical devices and there manufacturing, etc.
 - The last two can be justified by seeing that the population increased by only 11.5 increased by over 200 %, so not only are there more people but each person mus
3. On average the energy consumption per person has decreased at a rate of 684 kWh in 2000 declines to 32,000 in 2019 – that is a decrease of 13,000 kWh per person div data = 684 kWh per person per year to the nearest integer value.)

The reasons might include:

- Better education / information on energy-saving behaviours – turning off lights
- Wider/cheaper accessibility to energy-efficient devices such as LED light bulbs
- Changes in design and manufacturing of devices to make them more efficient.
- A decline in the UK’s manufacturing output and a move to a service-based econ

Task B

1. a. Wind turbines = 2.85×10^4
b. Cats = 1×10^8
c. Communication towers = 4.5×10^6
2. The statement would seem to be reasonable and you should have agreed with the cc make it very hard to provide a justification based on the data, and in an exam would of the marks.

Example answer: On average only 28,500 deaths can be attributed to wind farms. The number of deaths caused by cats or collisions with buildings, both of which are in the data is not accurate, they do claim these are only estimates – there is a fourfold order the deaths due to wind farms and that due to the largest causes.

The key points are:

- Use the data to compare the death rates.
- State the order of magnitude difference between the death rate due to wind fa [The bigger difference in the order of magnitude the more compelling your ans]
- Recognise that the numbers are only estimates but explain why this still makes the difference.

Remember: The examiner marking your exam paper does not have a perfect model answer or ideas that they will give a mark for if you include it in your response.

Think about this when writing or checking your answer.

Try listing the points you have made in your answer – the number of points made should available for the question. You might make more points than that, but there are no bonus writing to get all the marks but not wasting time writing more than is needed.

Time in an exam is short and you don’t have time to waste.

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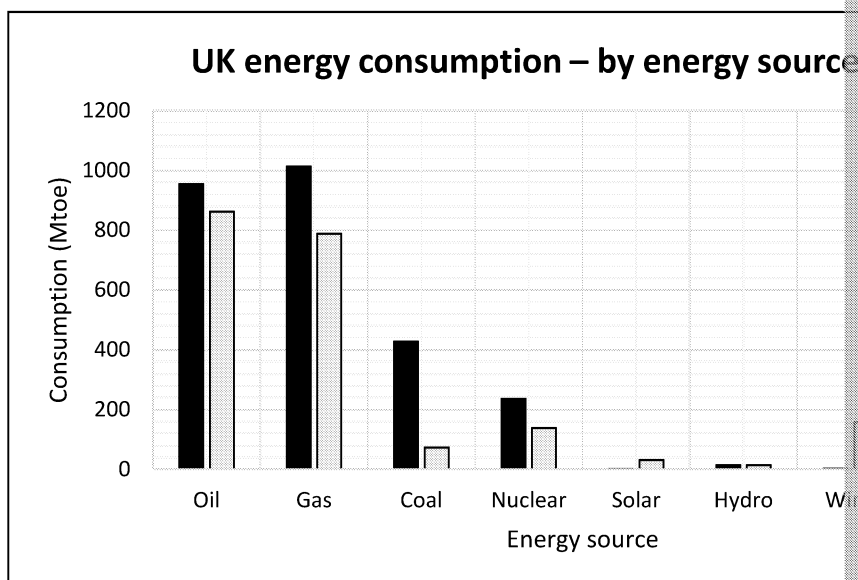
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Exam-style questions

1. a. Any two from the following: [1 mark each, max. 2 marks]
 - Solar
 - Tidal
 - Biomass and biofuels (including wood)
 - Hydrogen fuel cells (from water)
 - Wind
 - Wave
 - Hydroelectric

[Note: nuclear fission and geothermal are incorrect because fission is not currently used in the UK and geothermal requires areas of active volcanic activity – there are no such areas in the UK]
- b. 2012 [1]
[This is the point on the graph where the two data lines cross over]
- c. 2 marks for all four, 1 mark for three, 0 marks for two or fewer:
 - Coal
 - Oil [do not accept single examples such as petrol, etc.]
 - Natural gas [accept 'Gas']
 - Nuclear fission [accept nuclear, fission, nuclear power] [max. 2 marks]
- d. The response should include the following: [1 mark for each valid statement]
 - The percentage has increased (between 2000 and 2020)
 - In 2000 the UK gained 3 % from renewables [accept values from 2–5 %]
 - In 2020 this had increased to 43 % [accept values from 40–45 %]
 - The change in percentage was higher after 2010 than before [max. 3 marks]
- e. The response should include the following: [1 mark for each valid statement]
 - Both the UK and the USA have increased the percentage (of electricity generated from renewable sources)
 - The USA produced more electricity from renewable sources from 2000 to 2020 than the UK produced less than the USA
 - The rate of increase in the USA has been consistent (steady, regular, etc.) until 2010 and then rapidly increasing since 2010
 - The UK produces more electricity from renewable sources than the USA since 2010
2. a. Gas [accept natural gas] [1]
- b. Nuclear [accept nuclear power, fission, nuclear fission] [1]
- c. Award a maximum of 2 marks for correctly adding all the columns [award only 1 mark if two are correct, award 0 marks if three or more are inaccurate]
Award 1 mark for updating the key to show 2019 [max. 3 marks]



- d. The response may include: [1 mark for each, max. 4 marks – there are no marks for the statement as this is a matter of opinion]
 - The data indicates that there is a reduction in reliance on unsustainable non-renewable energy sources
 - The data indicates there is an increase in the use of sustainable renewable energy sources
 - Burning fewer fossil fuels means less carbon dioxide released into the atmosphere, which is a benefit to the environment.
 - There is no data provided on the environmental impact of the increase in the use of renewable energy sources, so the statement cannot be fully justified.

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Chapter 3

Calculate the current in the LED

power = voltage \times current $P = VI$

$P = 5 \text{ W}$, $V = 230 \text{ V}$

$P = VI$

$$\therefore I = \frac{P}{V}$$

$$I = 5 \div 230$$

$$I = \underline{0.02 \text{ A}}$$

If you don't know the power rating of a component, such as a bulb or a motor, what two could you use to work out the power?

Voltmeter and an ammeter

Task A

1. $2.4 \text{ kW} \equiv \underline{2400 \text{ W}}$ – this type of conversion is important because in equations you multiply the multiples of them. So kW must be converted to W, mA to A, etc.

Not doing this is a common error in exams when candidates are under pressure.

2. $P = VI$ $V = 240 \text{ V}$, $P = 2400 \text{ W}$

$$\therefore I = \frac{P}{V}$$

$$I = 2400 \div 240$$

$$I = \underline{10 \text{ A}}$$

3. $E = Pt$ (energy = power \times time) $P = 2400 \text{ W}$ $t = 5 \text{ min} \times 60 \text{ s} = 300 \text{ s}$

$$E = 2400 \times 300 = 720\,000 \text{ J} \equiv \underline{720 \text{ KJ}}$$

4. $P = I^2R$ $P = 2400 \text{ W}$, $I = 10 \text{ A}$

$$\therefore R = \frac{P}{I^2}$$

$$R = 2400 \div 10^2 = 2400 \div 100 = \underline{24 \Omega}$$

Why do transformers only work with AC electricity, not DC?

DC means direct current; therefore, the current and the p.d. are not changing direction. The magnetic field in the iron core is stationary. There is no relative motion between the magnetic field and the secondary coil, and, therefore, no electrical potential or current are induced in them. Thus there is no output.

Well done if you got this answer right: being able to explain why things don't work shows a deep understanding.

Task B

1. $V_p I_p = V_s I_s$

$$\therefore I_p = (V_s I_s) \div V_p$$

$$I_p = (19.5 \times 2.31) \div 230 = \underline{0.2 \text{ A}}$$

The technician should use the 0.5 A fuse as this is the nearest next highest value available.

2. $\left[\frac{V_p}{V_s} = \frac{n_p}{n_s} \right]$

$$\therefore N_s = (V_s \times n_p) \div V_p$$

$$N_s = (19.5 \times 1179) \div 230 = 100 \therefore \underline{100 \text{ turns}} \text{ would be used on the secondary coil}$$

3. power = voltage \times current $P = VI$

$$P = 19.5 \times 2.31 = 45.05 \therefore \underline{45 \text{ W}}$$

4. energy transferred = power \times time $E = Pt$

$$t \text{ is in seconds } \therefore 24 \text{ hours} \times 60 \text{ minutes} \times 60 \text{ seconds} = 86\,400 \text{ s}$$

$$E = Pt$$

$$E = 45 \times 86\,400 = 3\,888\,000 \text{ J} \equiv \underline{3.888 \times 10^6 \text{ J}} \text{ (or } 3.89 \times 10^6 \text{ J)}$$

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Exam-style questions

1. a. This is a step-up transformer [1]
- b. $\left[\frac{V_p}{V_s} = \frac{n_p}{n_s} \right]$ [1]
 $\therefore n_s = (n_p \times V_s) \div V_p$ [1]
 $N_s = (2000 \times 400\,000) \div 25\,000 = 32\,000$ turns [1]
- c. AC [accept alternating current] [1]
- d.
 - The alternative potential [accept AC or alternating current] in the primary field in the iron core [1]
 - The fluctuating magnetic field is present in all parts of the iron core [1]
 - The fluctuating magnetic field induces a p.d. (or current) in the secondary [1]
 - The voltage (p.d.) is greater in the secondary coil than the primary because of more wire or coils [1]
 In all parts accept alternative words or fluctuating/alternating provided it is clear
2. a. *power = voltage \times current* $P = VI$ [1]
 $P = 230 \times 13 = 2990$ W \equiv 2.99 kW [1]
- b. *energy = power \times time* $E = Pt$
 $t = (1 \text{ hour} \times 60 \text{ min} \times 60 \text{ s}) + (45 \text{ min} \times 60 \text{ s}) = 6300$ s [1]
 $E = Pt$
 $E = 2990 \times 6300 = 18\,837\,000$ J \equiv 18.84 MJ [1]
- c. $P = I^2R$ and $P = VI$
 $\therefore R = \frac{VI}{I^2}$
 $R = V \div I$
 $R = 230 \div 10 = \underline{2.3 \Omega}$
- Accept:
 $V = IR$ (Ohm's law)
 $\therefore R = V \div I$
 $R = 230 \div 10 = \underline{2.3 \Omega}$
- For either solution gain 1 mark for the correct rearrangement(s) of equation(s)
3. a.
 - The voltmeter will show a changing value [1]
 - The value will vary from positive to negative [1]
 - [accept it will show an AC or alternating current for 1 mark only]
- b. The value will remain at 0 V (zero volts) [1]
 Accept:
 - Nothing
 - The reading will change only a little – or similar
- c.
 - When the wire is moved at right angles [90° or perpendicular] to the magnetic field [p.d. or voltage] is induced in the wire [1]
 - As the wire changes direction the induced potential [p.d., voltage] changes [1]
 - When the wire moves vertically [up and down, in line with the magnetic field] no p.d. is induced [1]
 - because the wire and the magnetic field are not moving relative to each other [1]

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Chapter 4

What would happen to the field if the two charged plates in the diagram above were brought closer together?
It would become stronger.

How might you show this on the diagram? Add more arrows.

Task A

The style of your presentation is an individual choice but for each key idea you should have:

- What an electrical field is (a definition is needed here)
 - Electrical fields exist around charged particles or objects within which a force can be exerted.
- The effect they have on charged particles
 - The force can move charged particles. Opposite charges attract, whereas like charges repel.
- The difference between a radial field and a uniform field
 - A radial field is the electrical field that exists around a charged particle; a uniform field exists between two oppositely charged parallel objects and extends between them.

Any diagram showing any or all of these ideas would help to illustrate your understanding. If you include a diagram as part of an answer, you must refer to it at least once in your written response.

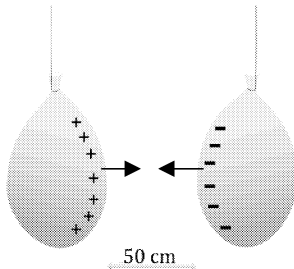
Task B

- The paint would have to be **negative**; this is important to ensure the paint is **attracted** to the metal plate.
- In order for the metal plate to become positively charged, **electrons would have to be removed** from the metal plate. This would leave it with more positively charged protons (nuclei) than electrons, giving it a positive charge.
- This is useful in this situation because the **paint is attracted to all the surfaces of the object**. **Places will still be coated in the paint**. **Less paint is wasted** because the **paint droplets are attracted to the object** and fewer **are likely to end up missing it** and coating the area around it.

Exam-style questions

- The rubbing **removes electrons** [1] from the surface of the balloon. This happens on **two surfaces** [1].

b.



1 mark for each arrow – they must point towards each other as shown.

- The balloons move in this way as they are **attracted to each other** [1]. This is because they have **opposite charges** [1]. The two fields result in **forces that are pulling in the same direction** [1]; thus the objects move towards each other.

[1 mark for a suitable diagram showing the arrows on both balloons pointing left to right.]

- There are no marks for agreeing or disagreeing with the statement.
Agree: The electrons from the negatively charged balloon will [*eventually*] move to the positively charged balloon so they will become neutral. When this happens they will move apart again as they are repelled by each other.

Or

Disagree: This will not happen because the balloons are both made of non-conducting material. Therefore, the electrons cannot easily move from one to the other. This means the force that pulled them together is still present so they remain 'stuck' together.

Each answer gains 1 mark for stating what happens to the electrons and 1 mark for stating what happens to the balloons.

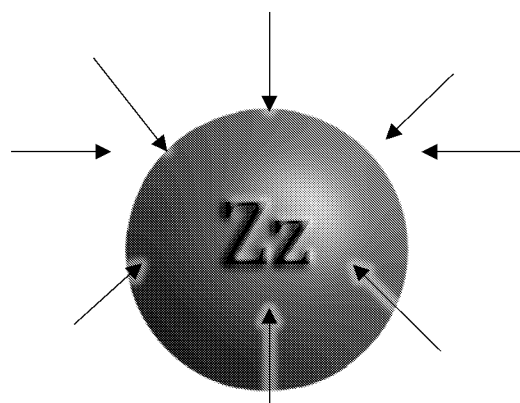
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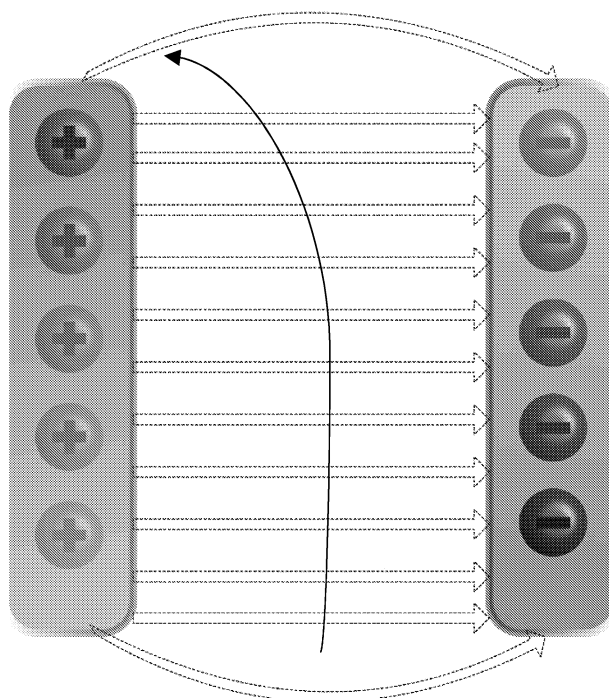


2. a. It suggests it has a **negative charge**. [1 mark]
 b.

1 mark for the arrows pointing towards the object
 1 mark for the arrows pointing away from the object



- c. i.



- c. ii. This happens because the zagatrons are negatively charged. They have a force that attracts [1] them to the positive plate and repels [1] them from the negative plate.
 iii. Non-contact force [1]

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Chapter 5

Task A

When a beaker of water is heated by a Bunsen burner, the **thermal** energy from the flame is transferred to the water molecules. This means the water molecules have more **internal** energy. This is measured as

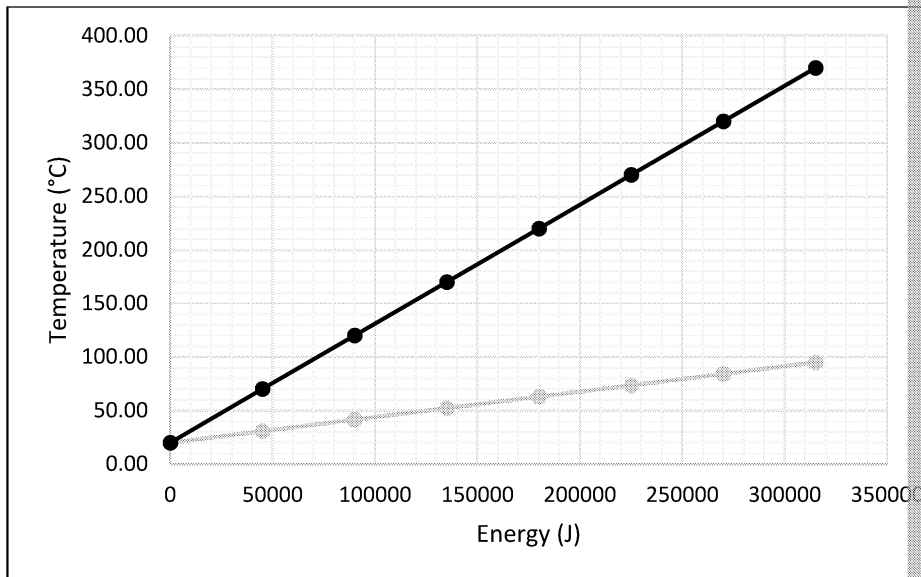
Given the same amount of additional thermal energy from a heater, which material will heat up more – aluminium or water?

Aluminium. This is because as a metal it has a lower specific heat capacity than water; the thermal energy is absorbed, its temperature will increase more than that of the water.

Task B

1. As the energy supplied increases so does the temperature; there is a positive proportional relationship between the two variables.
2. The line would also show a positive proportional relationship between the energy supplied and the temperature rise; however, as the specific heat capacity of the aluminium is lower than that of the water, the line for aluminium would be higher (steeper).

Note: the question asks you to compare; therefore, you should have attempted to find the differences in the pattern shown in the graph.



You are not expected to plot the graph shown above – this is to help you understand the

Task C

Recall that on the diagram it indicated that a 2 kW heater was used in this experiment and the temperature remains constant at 100 °C; as we know, this is the boiling point.

It remained at this temperature from 196.4 s until 763.5 s.

Using $E = Pt$ you can work out the energy supplied in this time.

$$E = 2000 \times (763.5 - 196.4) = 1\,134\,200 \text{ J}$$

and as $E = mL_{(v)}$

$$\therefore L_{(v)} = E \div m \text{ where } m = 500 \text{ g or } 0.5 \text{ kg}$$

$$L_{(v)} = 1\,134\,200 \div 0.5 = 2\,268\,400 \text{ J/kg} \approx \underline{2268.4 \text{ kJ/kg}}$$

Note: this is slightly higher than the theoretical value of 2260 kJ/kg; this is probably due to factors such as mineral salts or the chlorine added during water purification treatment.

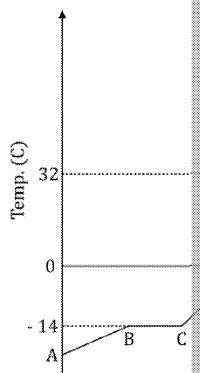
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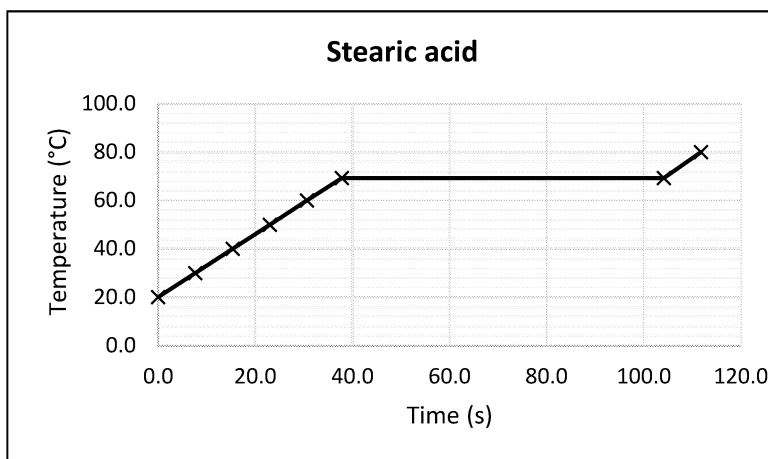
Exam-style questions

1. a. Latent heat of vaporisation is the amount of energy required for 1 kg of a material to change from a liquid to a gas (or vapour) with no change in temperature.
- b. i. Section **CD** – any two from:
- The substance is getting hotter (warmer, increasing in temperature) [1]
 - Remains as a liquid – not changing state [1]
 - Increasing its internal energy [1]
- Section **DE**:
- Boiling [1]
 - The remaining bonds between the particles are breaking [1]
- ii. -14 °C [1]
- iii. Gas (gaseous, vapour) [1]



Graph

- c. During section **AB** on the graph the substance is taking in thermal energy and the temperature is increasing. This is **because** the thermal energy is **increasing the kinetic energy** of the particles that make up the substance. Accept if the answer also mentions potential energy of the particles.
2. a. Thermometer (accept temperature probe) [1]
- b. Any one from: [1]
- Goggles
 - Heatproof gloves
 - Lab coat or similar
- Do not accept heatproof mat as this is not personal protective equipment.



Max. 3 marks for plotting all points accurately [2 marks if one is incorrect, 0 marks if three or more are inaccurate].

[1 mark for a straight line linking the points as shown.]

- ii. Melting point is 69.3 °C [1] (accept 70 °C)
This is the point at which the temperature is not increasing – the horizontal part of the graph.
- iii. 60 W heater
Time to melt – from 37.8 s until 104.1 s
- $$E = Pt$$
- $$E = 60 \times (104.1 - 37.8) [1]$$
- $$E = 3978 \text{ J} [1]$$
- $$E = mL_f$$
- $$\therefore L_f = E \div m [1]$$
- $$L_f = 3978 \div 0.02$$
- $$L_f = \underline{198\,900 \text{ J/kg}} \text{ or } 198.9 \text{ kJ/kg accept } 199 \text{ kJ/kg} [1]$$

3. a. Specific heat capacity is the amount of energy required to heat 1 kg of a material by 1 °C.
- b. Specific heat capacity and specific latent heat both explain how changes in energy affect temperature. Specific heat capacity indicates how much energy is needed to change the temperature of a material. Specific latent heat indicates how much energy is needed for a substance to change state. [1]

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Chapter 6

What two things (factors) have *not* changed?

1. The mass of the gas (number of particles)
2. The temperature of the gas

Task A

- a. $pV = \text{constant}$
Before $pV = 101,000 \times 0.2 = 20\,200$
After $pV = 20\,200 \therefore V = 20\,200 \div 0.05 = \underline{404\,000 \text{ Pa or } 404 \text{ kPa}}$
- b.
 1. Reduction in volume resulting in a higher probability of collisions between the particles
 2. The area of the walls is now reduced.

What happens to a substance if you add energy to it?

The internal energy of the particles increases, leading to an increase in the temperature of the substance.

Task B

1. A force is applied to the plunger
2. The plunger moves
3. This results in the transfer of the force
4. Work is done by the force in a given direction
5. Work transfers energy as a result of the force
6. The transferred energy increases the internal energy of the gas particles
7. This results in an increase in the temperature of the gas in the bicycle pump

Exam-style questions

1. a. The air creates a pressure on the outside section of the piston when the particles collide with it [1]. This produces a pushing force [1] that is spread out over the areas of the piston [1].
b.
 - i. Before $pV = \text{constant} = 101\,000 \times 0.5 = 50\,500$ [1]
After $pV = 50\,500 \therefore V = 50\,500 \div 69\,000 = 0.732 \text{ L or } 731.8 \text{ mL}$ [1]
 - ii. As the cylinder ascends in the plane, the air pressure decreases, reducing the pressure the volume increases [1] as the product of pressure and volume is constant [1] (for a fixed mass of gas at a fixed temperature).
2. a. It increases (gets higher, gets larger) [1]
b. As the piston moves, a force is applied to the fuel vapour [1]. This force does work on the vapour (to it) [1]. This energy increases the internal energy of the vapour [1] which increases its temperature [1].
3. a. The volume will decrease [1]
b. 0.75 L or 750 mL [1]
Any reasonable explanation giving an understanding of the proportional nature of the relationship [1]
 - The pressure has increased by a factor of 2 so the volume must decrease by a factor of 2 [1]
 - The change in volume is inversely proportional to the change in the pressure [1]

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Chapter 7

Task A

Strontium ${}_{38}^{87}\text{Sr}$

protons = 38

neutrons = $87 - 38 = 49$

Lead ${}_{82}^{208}\text{Pb}$

protons = 82

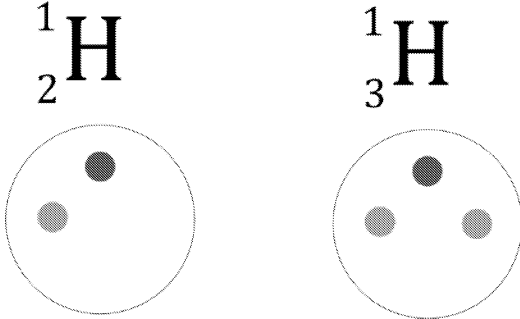
neutrons = $208 - 82 = 126$

Thorium ${}_{90}^{230}\text{Th}$

protons = 90

neutrons = $230 - 90 = 140$

Task B



Exam-style questions

1. ${}^{14}_7\text{N}$

- a. i. Atomic mass = 7 [1]
 ii. Neutron number = 7 (mass number – atomic number = $14 - 7 = 7$) [1]

b. ${}^{35}_{17}\text{Cl}$ and ${}^{37}_{17}\text{Cl}$

- i. Atoms of the same element with different mass numbers (or different number of neutrons)
 ii. The following table contains information comparing the atomic structure of the two isotopes.

Isotope of Cl	Number of electrons	Number of protons	Number of neutrons
${}^{35}\text{Cl}$	17	17	18
${}^{37}\text{Cl}$	17	17	20

[1 mark for completing both number of electrons and number of protons in the table.
 [1 mark for completing the number of neutrons.]
 [1 mark for each of the correct mass numbers.]

2. a. Protons [1]
 b. Two protons and two neutrons, or helium nuclei [2]
 1 mark only if the answer states only protons and neutrons without reference to electrons.
 c. i.
 - Ionising (highly ionising) [1]
 - Ionisation can damage structures in the body (DNA, proteins, etc.) [1]
 - Causes cancers allowed for this mark.
 ii. 1 mark for each of the following ideas:
 - Alpha particles are large; beta particles are much smaller (helium nuclei).
 - Alpha particles are slow-moving; beta particles are fast-moving.

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Chapter 8

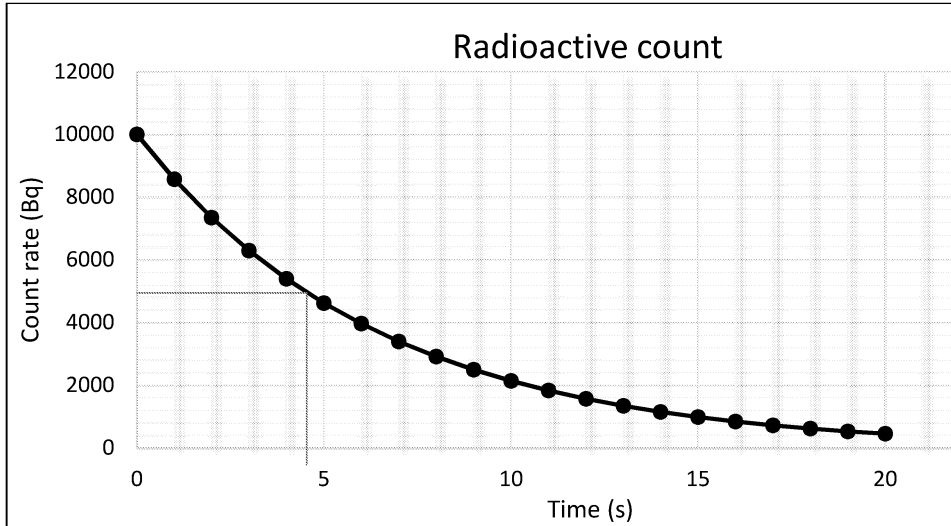
Task A

- ${}_{86}^{222}\text{Ra} \rightarrow {}_{84}^{218}\text{Po} + {}_2^4\text{He}$
- ${}_{92}^{234}\text{U} \rightarrow {}_{90}^{230}\text{Th} + {}_2^4\text{He}$
- ${}_{90}^{230}\text{Th} \rightarrow {}_{88}^{226}\text{Ra} + {}_2^4\text{He}$
- ${}_{86}^{226}\text{Ra} \rightarrow {}_{84}^{222}\text{Po} + {}_2^4\text{He}$

Task B

- ${}_1^3\text{H} \rightarrow {}_2^3\text{He} + {}_{-1}^0\text{e}$
- ${}_{55}^{137}\text{Cs} \rightarrow {}_{56}^{137}\text{Ba} + {}_{-1}^0\text{e}$

Task C



The point at which the count rate has halved to 5000 Bq is at 4.5 seconds. This gives the half-life, which is confirmed by checking that after another nine seconds the count has dropped by half again.

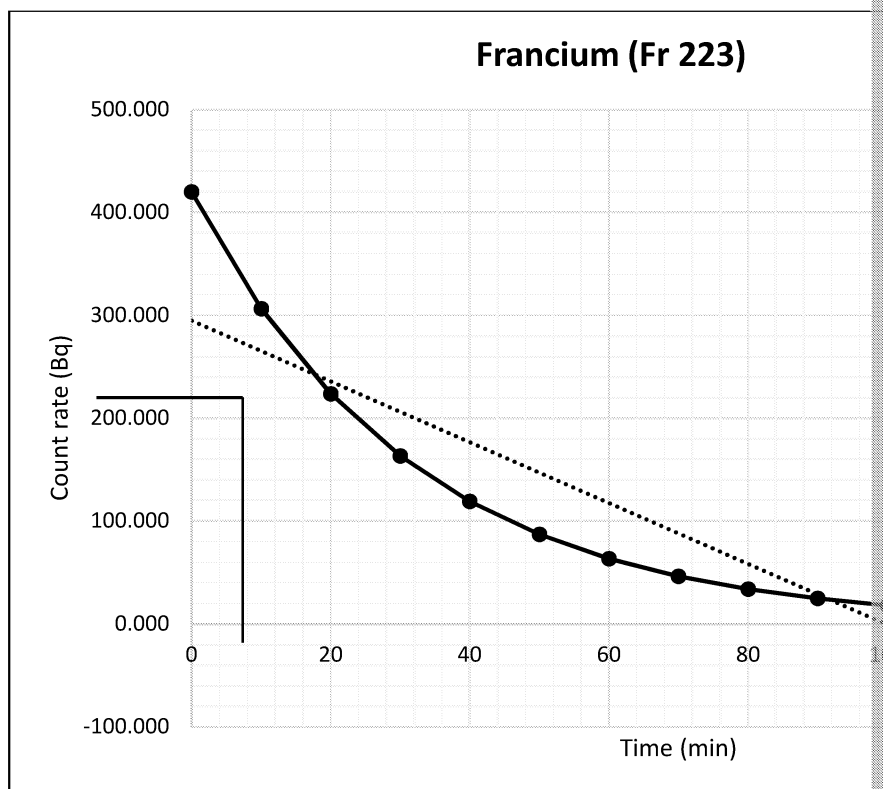
Exam-style questions

- 243 [1]
 - Atoms of an element with different numbers of neutrons [1] but the same number of protons.
Or
Atoms of the same element with different mass numbers [1] because of the different number of neutrons in the nucleus [1].
 - ${}_{95}^{241}\text{Am} \rightarrow {}_{93}^{237}\text{Np} + {}_2^4\text{He}$ 1 mark for each section of the equation.
 - The alpha particles are easy to stop [1] – [the plastic of the device would stop them] and so could not be absorbed by a person [1].
- Atomic number: 87 [1]
 - Mass number: 223 (87 + 136) [1]
 - ${}_{87}^{223}\text{Fr} \rightarrow {}_{88}^{223}\text{Ra} + {}_{-1}^0\text{e}$ 1 mark for each section of the equation.
 - Beta (β) decay [1]. This is shown by the detection of fast-moving electrons [1].

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- c. i. 2 marks if all the points are plotted accurately. Deduct 1 mark if two or three points are inaccurate.
- ii. 2 marks for the addition of the line as shown. 1 mark only if the line is a straight line shown.
- iii. 2 marks for showing on the graph how the half-life was found, i.e. showing a count and 22 (20–24) minutes.
1 mark for recognising that the half-life is 22 ± 2 minutes.
- iv. Geiger counter or a Geiger–Müller tube [1]
3. a. i. ${}_{92}^{235}\text{U} \rightarrow {}_{90}^{231}\text{Th} + {}_2^4\text{He}$ [1 mark for the correct element symbol, 1 mark for the correct mass and atomic number.]
- ii. Alpha decay [1]
accept just alpha or α
- b. combined mass before $235 + 1 = 236$ [1]
combined mass after must = 236
mass after $141 + 3 \times 1 = 144$ [1] $236 - 144 = 92$ [1]
Award full marks if 92 is given with no logic or working out shown.
- c. i. Fission involves the splitting (division) of a large unstable nucleus [1]; fusion involves the joining (combination) of two small nuclei (hydrogen) to form a larger nucleus (helium) [1]. Fission results in a smaller nucleus [1]. Both processes release large amounts of energy [1].
- ii. Needs more energy than it produces [or similar] [1]

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Chapter 9

Speed is the scalar equivalent of the vector velocity. What is the vector equivalent of displacement?
 Displacement is the vector equivalent of distance, how far and in which direction.

Task A

1. *Resultant force = $4 \times 252\,000 = 1\,008\,000\text{ N}$ forwards*
 Each of the four forces produced by the engines is acting in the same direction so the final resultant force. Remember with forces you should try to provide both a direction and a magnitude as they are vectors.

2. Forces to the left:
 There are four equal frictional forces acting to the left of 500 N each
 Total friction is $4 \times 500\text{ N} = 2000\text{ N}$ (left)
 Total forces to the left = friction + air resistance = $2000 + 2000 = 4000\text{ N}$ (left)

We will call forces to the right positive (+) and forces to the left negative (-)
 The forces are then added together
 Resultant force = $+6000 + (-4000) = +2000\text{ N}$ or 2000 N to the right

Task B

As the plane is travelling at a constant 145 m/s the forces of **thrust and air resistance** must be **equal** to each other **but** in **opposite** directions.

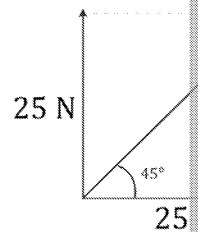
The plane is inclined upwards into an ascent (climbing) so the lift must be greater than the gravity (weight). The lift arrow must be in the opposite direction to the gravity. You do not need to have this to scale for this task, as long as the lift arrow is longer than the gravity arrow.

(Fine details that you might have included: the thrust arrow should ideally come from the engines, actually the back of the engines pointing forwards. The lift should start on the wing directly above the gravity arrow or just forward of it. If you got these, well done!)





Task C

You could use any reasonable scale that sensibly fits into the space provided. This is important in the exam as you will be given a space to fill in on the paper and you are expected to draw in this space only. The question may tell you what scale to use, but practise making up your own scales so that in the exam, if you have to, you are confident in doing so. Tip: if two forces meet at right angles and they have the same magnitude, the angle of the resultant force will always be 45° – the angle of the diagonal of all squares.



Exam-style questions

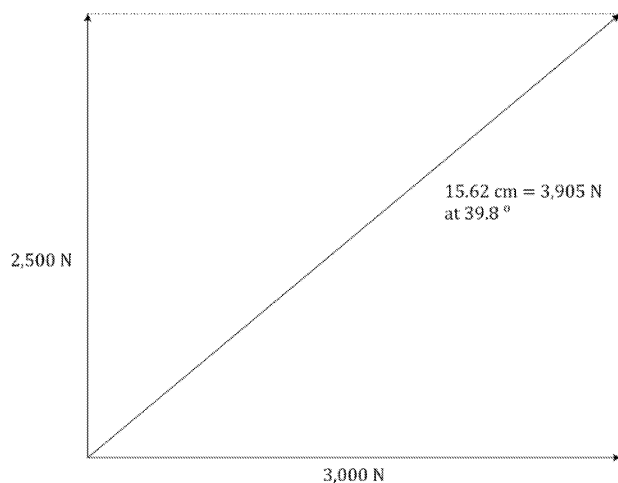
1. a. 1 mark for each correct selection:
 Magnitude [1]
 Direction [1]
- b. 1 mark for a 5 cm arrow pointing to the left

- c. i. Scale 1 cm = 10 N [1 mark for reasonable scale that allows the drawing to be completed]

 1 mark for each correctly drawn arrow using the scale indicated.
- ii. 5 N to the left [1 mark for magnitude (5 N). 1 mark for indicating the direction]
- iii. Team A is winning [1] because the resultant force is in their direction [1].
 Allow the explanation 'the left force is greater than the right force' for 1 mark
- d. The resultant force will decrease to 0 N [1]

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2. a. i. Any sensible scale can be used for this diagram for 1 mark.
 1 mark for the correctly drawn forces to the scale indicated.
 1 mark for completing the rectangle.
 1 mark for the correctly drawn resultant force (there is no requirement to the diagram).



1 cm = 250 N

- ii. Magnitude: 3905 N [1]
 Direction: 39.8° [1]

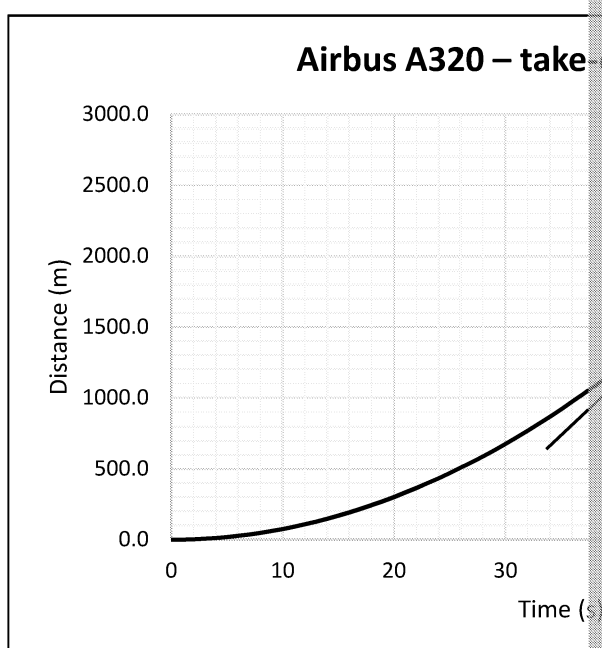
Chapter 10

Task A

- speed = gradient of the line
 gradient = change in $y \div$ change in x
 $= 2400 \div (10 \times 60) = 4 \equiv 4 \text{ m/s}$
- speed = gradient of the line
 $(4200 - 2400) \div ((20 - 15) \times 60) = 6.0 \text{ m/s}$
- They are stationary (not moving).

Task B

- Draw a tangent line at $t = 50 \text{ s}$ on the graph as shown.
 Then find the gradient of this tangent.
 Change in $y = 2550 - 1150 = 1400$
 Change in $x = 60 - 40 = 20$
 $V_1 \text{ speed} = \text{gradient of the tangent} = 1400 \div 20 = 70.0 \text{ m/s}$
- The line is curved because the plane is accelerating.



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Task C

1. The area under the line from B to C contains 150 squares (six blocks of 25 squares); there are 150 squares.
2. From C to D there are eight blocks of 25 squares equalling 200 m. Several of the large squares are shaded. These can be combined to form whole squares; this can be judged by eye.

Exam-style questions

1.
 - a. Speed is a scalar and velocity is a vector [1]
Allow velocity has direction as well as magnitude (size) for 1 mark.
 - b.
 - i. 5 minutes [1]
 - ii. speed = gradient of the line
change in distance (y) = 180 m [1]
change in time (x) = 120 s [1]
speed = $\frac{\text{change in distance}}{\text{change in time}} = 180 \div 120 = 1.5 \text{ m/s}$ [1]
 - iii. They were at rest for 1 minute (60 s) [1]. This is the period of time that the train is at rest.
 - iv. The speed is greater (double or higher) [1]. They might be running / jogging.
 - c. The device could take readings more frequently than once every 10 seconds. [1]
2.
 - a. The train is accelerating [1]
 - b. 1 mark for drawing a tangent line at 80 seconds.
1 mark for measuring the change in the y -axis value along the tangent.
1 mark for measuring the change in the x -axis value along the tangent.
1 mark for the speed: $20 \text{ m/s} \pm 2$
1 mark for suggesting the train does meet the safety requirement.
 - c.
 - i. change in time = 20 s [1]
change in velocity = 20 m/s [1]
acceleration = 1 m/s/s [1]
 - ii. The maximum velocity of the tram is 20 m/s [1]
 - iii. 1 mark for counting the square (16 large blocks of 25) = 400 [1]
distance = area under the line = 400 m [1]

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Chapter 11

Task A

a. Truck A will have the highest magnitude of acceleration. This is because it has a lower mass and will therefore produce a higher acceleration than truck B, which has a higher inertial mass.

b. $F = ma$

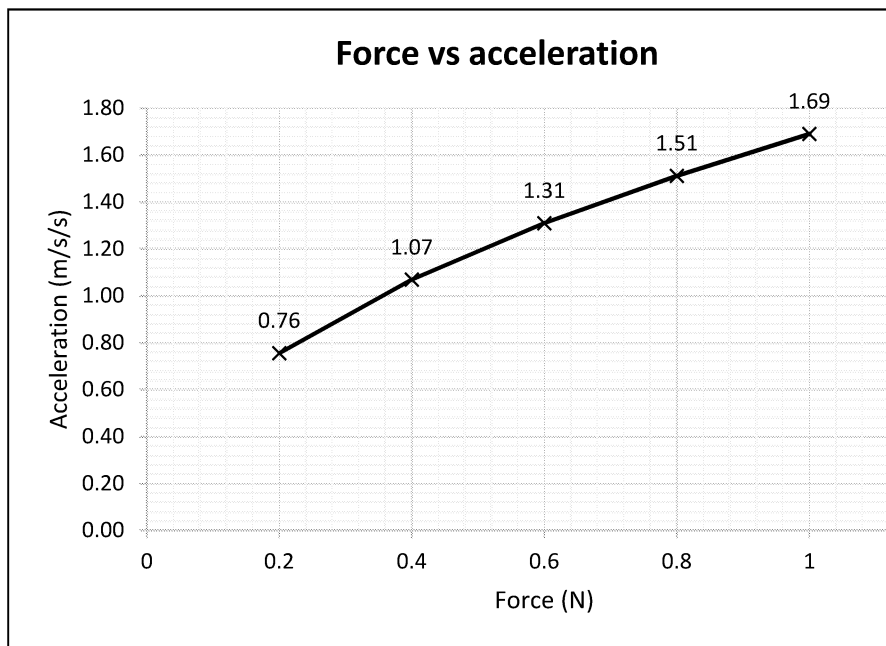
$$\therefore a = \frac{F}{m}$$

Truck A: $a = 18\,000 \div 15\,000 = 1.2 \text{ ms}^{-2}$

Truck B: $a = 18\,000 \div 35\,000 = 0.51 \text{ ms}^{-2}$

Task B

a. The acceleration increases as the force applied increases. The acceleration is proportional to the force.



b. The data could be made more reliable (repeatable) by repeating the experiment three times for each force and calculating the average.

Exam-style questions

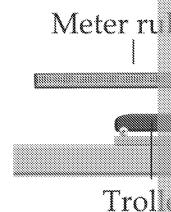
1. A model answer is provided. The method assumes gravity is 10 N/kg for convenience.

Apparatus

- Stop clock / stopwatch
- Track or length of bench 2 m
- Trolley or toy car large enough to attach the string to
- 5 × 1 N stacks of weights with holders
- Electric balance
- Metre ruler
- String
- Pulley and clamp
- Blu-Tack®
- Video camera

Method

1. Draw a results table to record the time taken for the trolley to move along each section of the track. You will use this to calculate the velocities and acceleration of the trolley for the five different magnitudes of force.
2. Set up the apparatus as shown in the diagram, right.
3. Use the metre ruler to mark along the side of the track at 10 cm divisions.
4. Place the trolley at the far end of the track from the pulley. Set up the camera so that it can video the whole of the track – ensure that the divisions are visible.
5. Place the first weight on the end of the string – this will give a pulling force of 1 N.



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6. Start the video recording and then release the trolley. **Remember to catch the table.** Stop the video recording.
7. Review the video in slow motion if possible, and using either the built-in timer or a stopwatch, measure how long it took the trolley to move between each of the 10 cm divisions. Record these results. Use this data to calculate the average acceleration ($a = \Delta v \div t$).
8. Add one more weight to the stack, adding an additional 1 N of force. Then repeat the process until you have reached 5 N of force.

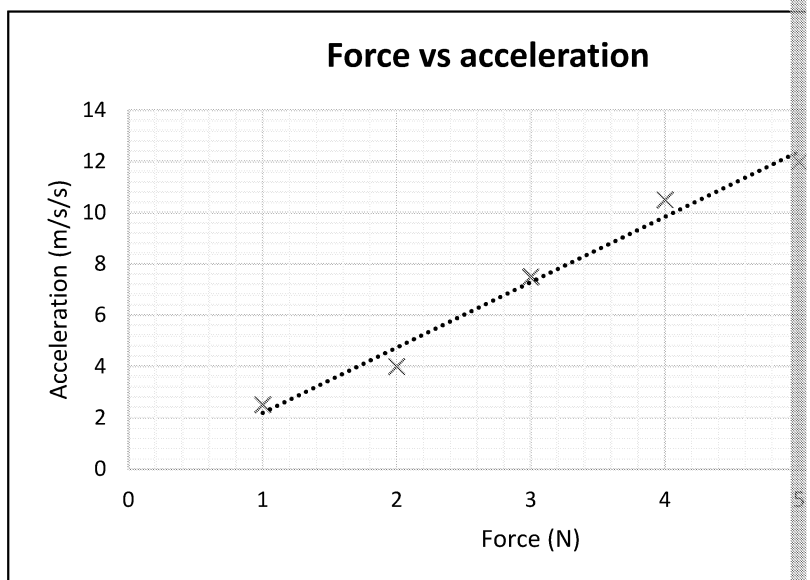
Safety: be aware of falling weights and moving trolleys in this practical. Do not let the trolley hit the floor. Do not place hands or feet in the way of falling weights or moving objects.

The official mark scheme uses this scheme:

Level	Band	Description
Level 3	5–6	Identifies and presents the main parts of the method in a way that would produce a valid outcome.
Level 2	3–4	Identifies and presents most parts of the method, but not all. The outcome would not be fully valid.
Level 1	1–2	Identifies some parts of the method, but steps are not clear. The outcome would not be valid.
	0	No relevant content.

Note that you do not lose any marks for not including a labelled diagram, but it is generally quicker to draw a diagram than to describe how to set up the apparatus.

b. i.



- Correct axes with appropriate scales [1]
 - Correct plotting of data points [2]
 - Line of best fit [1]
- ii. Acceleration is proportional to the applied force [1]
- iii. Mass ~ 400 g or 0.4 kg ± 0.1 kg [1]
 Any reasonable method: [1]
- Using the change in force and acceleration taken from the line of best fit
 - Choosing a suitable pair of data points from the table.
 - Applying $m = F \div a$ to the data points selected by any means.

2. a.

Block	Force (N)			Average force (N)
A	20	22	19	20
B	45	60	42	49

1 mark for each correctly calculated average.

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- b. Each block must have a different inertial mass [1]. The larger the inertial mass, the larger the force needed to make it start to move [1].
Allow full marks if the word mass is used rather than inertial mass.
- c. The second measurement for block B [1]. It is much larger than either of the other two measurements for this block [1].
3. a. mass = 2500 kg, initial speed = 18 m/s, final speed = 27 m/s, time = 3 s
- $$a = \frac{\Delta v}{t} = (27 - 18) \div 3 = 9 \div 3 = 3 \text{ ms}^{-2} \quad [1]$$
- $$F = ma \quad [1]$$
- $$F = 2500 \times 3$$
- $$F = 7500 \text{ N} \quad [1]$$
- b. $F = ma$
- $$\therefore m = \frac{F}{a} \quad \text{or inertial mass} = \text{ratio of force to mass} \quad [1]$$
- $$m = 14\,400 \div 0.4$$
- $$m = 36\,000 \text{ kg} \quad [1]$$

Chapter 12

Task A

- Golf ball** mass = 0.045 kg velocity = 15 m/s
 $p = mv = 0.045 \times 15 = 0.68 \text{ kg m/s}$
- Cricket ball** mass = 0.16 kg velocity = 15 m/s
 $p = mv = 0.16 \times 15 = 2.4 \text{ kg m/s}$

Task B

- Golf ball** mass = 0.045 kg velocity = 91 m/s
 $p = mv = 0.045 \times 91 = 4.1 \text{ kg m/s}$
- Tennis ball** mass = 0.056 kg velocity = 78 m/s
 $p = mv = 0.056 \times 78 = 4.37 \text{ kg m/s}$

Task C

Mass of foot and leg kicking ball = 3 kg

Mass of football = 0.45 kg

Velocity of foot and leg before collision is 2 m/s – after collision is 0 m/s

Velocity of ball before collision is 0 m/s

Because the leg stops in the collision (kick) and momentum is conserved, all the momentum is transferred to the ball.

Before kick (collision)
Momentum of the leg: $p = mv = 3 \times 2 = 6 \text{ kg m/s}$

Momentum of ball after kick = 6 kg m/s

\therefore as $p = mv$

$$v = \frac{p}{m}$$

$$v = \frac{6}{0.45} = 13.3 \text{ m/s}$$

If the leg and foot kept moving, less momentum would have been transferred to the ball. The velocity of the ball would have been lower.

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Question

Mass of car = 1500 kg Initial velocity = 15 m/s Final velocity = 32 m/s Force applied = 5000 N
 Change in velocity (Δv) = 32 – 15 = 17 m/s

$$F = \frac{m \Delta v}{t}$$

$$\therefore t = \frac{m \Delta v}{F}$$

$$t = \frac{1500 \times 17}{5000} = \frac{25\,500}{5000} = 5.1 \text{ s}$$

Exam-style questions

- $p = mv$ [1]
 $p = 40\,000 \times 4.5 = 180\,000 \text{ kg m/s}$ [1]
 - $p = mv$
 $\therefore v = \frac{m}{p}$ [1]
 $v = 80\,000 \div 40\,000 = 2 \text{ m/s}$ [1]
 - Momentum before = 180 000 + 80 000 = 260 000 kg m/s [1]
 Mass of train AB = 40 000 + 40 000 = 80 000 [1]
 $v = \frac{m}{p} = 260\,000 \div 80\,000 = 3.25 \text{ m/s}$ [1]
- $p = mv$ [1]
 $p = 12\,000 \times 8000 = 96\,000\,000$ or $96 \times 10^6 \text{ kg m/s}$ [1]
 - Change in velocity (Δv) = 20 000 – 8000 = 12 000 m/s [1]
 $F = \frac{m \Delta v}{t}$
 $\therefore t = \frac{m \Delta v}{F}$ [1]
 $t = \frac{12\,000 \times 12\,000}{8 \times 10^6} = 18 \text{ s}$ [1]

Chapter 13**Task A**

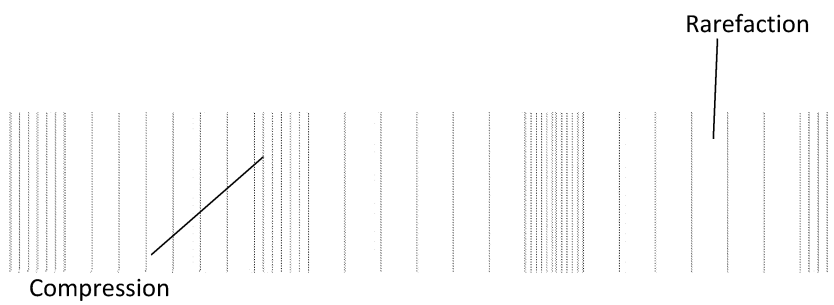
- Key points:
 - Water waves are transverse
 - Sound waves are longitudinal
 - Water waves and sound waves have similar properties, wavelength, velocity, frequency
 - Both waves travel (the energy does) but the medium they pass through does not
 - Water waves displace the water vertically (up and down)
 - Sound waves are made up of areas of compression and rarefaction of the air
- The limit of human hearing is between 20 Hz and 20 kHz. The range reduces with age, and loud sounds (high pitch). Loud music and other sounds also damage hearing, leading to a decrease in hearing.
- Sound waves interact with the solid (but thin) eardrum, making it vibrate in time with the rarefaction of the sound wave. These vibrations are passed to the hammer and then the bones in the inner ear in contact with the eardrum and each other). These vibrations are passed to a liquid-like structure in the inner ear filled with fluid. The vibrations move through the liquid and produce a nervous impulse that travels to the brain to create the sensation of sound.

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Task B

- Depth of sea floor:
 $\text{depth} = \text{velocity of sound} \times (\frac{1}{2} \text{ time taken for signal to return to the boat})$
 $\text{depth} = 1500 \times (\frac{1}{2} \times 0.06) = 45 \text{ m}$
 Shoal of fish:
 $\text{depth} = \text{velocity of sound} \times (\frac{1}{2} \text{ time taken for signal to return to the boat})$
 $\text{depth} = 1500 \times (\frac{1}{2} \times 0.02) = 15 \text{ m}$
- Waves of ultrasound (sound waves above the range of human hearing – over 20 kHz) are harmless through the various tissues. When they pass from soft tissue into the bone, some are reflected at the boundary. These are detected by the scanner and the computer uses these to produce an image.

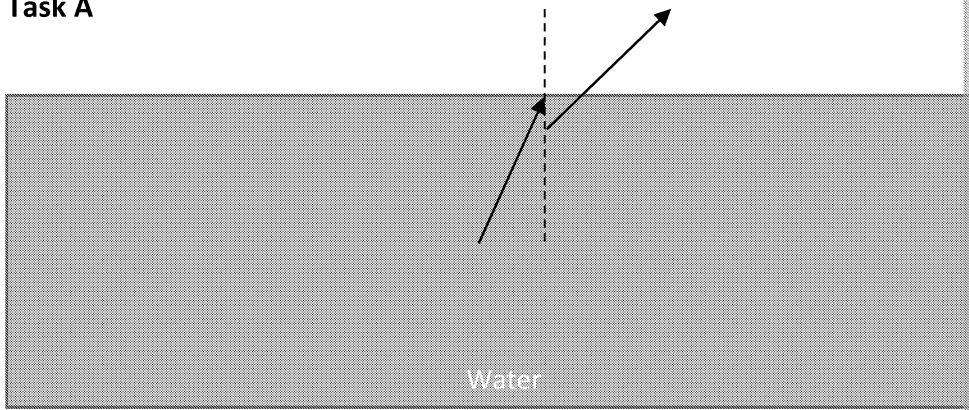
Exam-style questions

- Seismic P wave [1]
 - 
 - Pitch is controlled by (related to) the frequency of the wave [1]
 - The higher the frequency, the higher the pitch of the sound [1]
 - Eardrum or tympanic membrane [1]
 - The sound waves make the eardrum vibrate [1]
 - These vibrations pass from the eardrum via small bones to the cochlea [1]
 - The vibrations produce nerve impulses in the cochlea that pass to the brain [1]
 - 20,000 Hz or 20 kHz [1]
- When an earthquake occurs there are two types of seismic waves produced: P waves that travel through Earth's surface and through Earth's inner structures – the mantle, the outer core and the inner core.
 - S waves [1]
 - Side to side, sliding, horizontal [1]
 - The greatest amplitude would be detected at facility B [1]
 Any reasonable explanation such as:
 - Closest
 - Less energy will have been absorbed because it is closest
 - Nearest
 [Any one for 1 mark only.]
 - Only P waves will be detected at C [1]
 S waves cannot pass through Earth's core (outer core) [1]
 P waves can pass through all parts of the core [1]
 - The outer core is liquid [1]
 - S waves cannot pass through liquid but P waves can [1]
- A sound wave with a frequency above the maximum range of human hearing [1]
 - Above 20 kHz [1]
 - Ultrasound is directed into the body by an emitter device [1]
 - Ultrasound passes through the different tissues of the body [1]
 - At the boundary between different tissues (different densities), some are reflected [1]
 - These reflected waves are detected and used to produce an image [1]

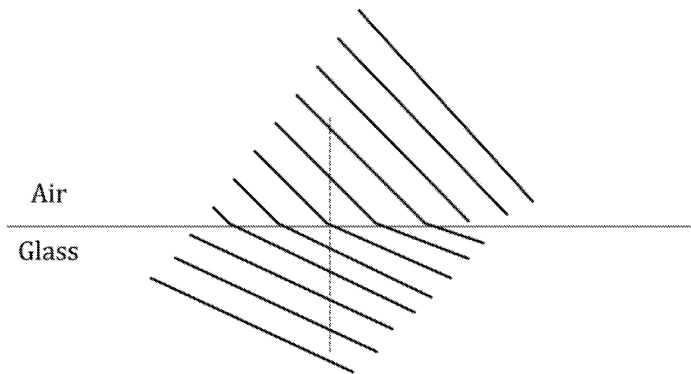
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Chapter 14

Task A



Task B



Exam-style questions

1. a. X-rays [1]
- b. Any two from: [max. 2]
 - Cooking
 - Mobile phone data and phone calls
 - Examination of microwaves from space
 - Communications
 - Detection (similar)
- c. Any two from: [max. 2]
 - TV (Freeview or terrestrial; not streaming)
 - Bluetooth™ (Airdrop, etc.)
 - Wi-Fi
- d. Key points: [1 mark per point]
 - Radio signal picked up by an aerial
 - Variations in the signal cause an oscillation in the attached circuit
 - AC current replicates the original broadcasted information
- e. The electrical energy (energy) from the tube makes an electron in the outer object jump [1] to a higher energy level orbit [1]. When this electron falls back to the original orbit, light energy is emitted [1].

1 mark for completing the diagram to illustrate this information.

Light energy e

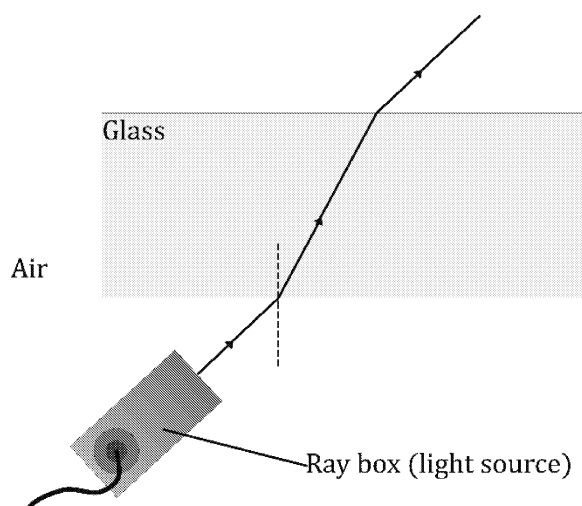


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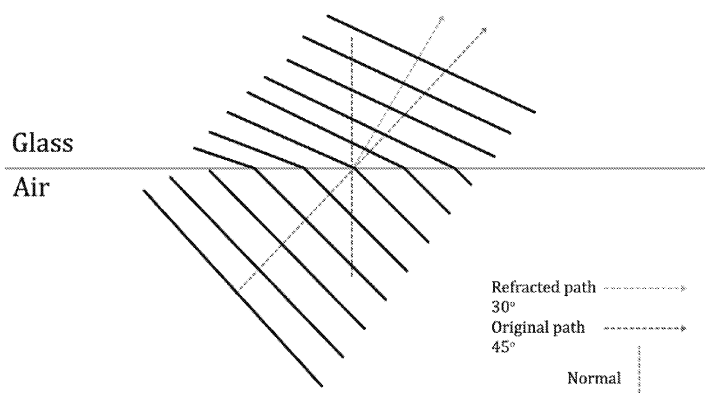


2. a.



1 mark for the ray of light bending towards the normal on entering the glass.
 1 mark for the ray of light bending away from the normal as it exits the glass block.
 1 mark for correct positioning of the normal.

b.



1 mark for a diagram that illustrates the bending of the ray of light and the difference in speed as they enter the glass from the air, as shown above.
 Note: the diagram does not need to show a normal or direction of ray arrow; the rays must be in the same direction as that shown in the answer to Q2a, above.

Key ideas in text of answer: [1 mark for each point]

- Glass is denser than air
- Light travels more slowly in denser materials
- The wave fronts slow down at different rates as they enter the block at an angle
- This causes the ray of light to bend / change direction at the boundary of the two materials

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Chapter 15

Task A

Recall that the command word *compare* means that you need to give both similarities and differences of the two stars.

Similarities:

- Both start as a nebula
- Both formed from a protostar – created by the gravitational collapse of a region of a nebula
- Nuclear fission provided the heat to make them expand and stop gravity from making them collapse
- Both have used up all their hydrogen and are using helium

Differences:

- Betelgeuse is more massive so has formed a super red giant; the Sun will form a red giant
- The Sun will collapse under gravity to form a white dwarf then a black dwarf
- Betelgeuse will eventually go supernova, after which it will collapse to form either a neutron star or a black hole

Task B

Key ideas:

- Red shift is seen in the light from galaxies (not from local stars in the Milky Way)
- Red shift results from the fact that the galaxies are moving away from us (receding)
- The further away a galaxy is, the greater the red shift and, therefore, the faster it is moving away from us
- Discovered by Edward Hubble and published in a scientific paper in 1929
- Caused by the stretching of the wave as the galaxy moves away from us
- Similar to the process of the Doppler effect we hear in the sound of a moving vehicle
- Red shift supports the idea that the universe is expanding and the idea that the universe began with the Big Bang

Exam-style questions

- a. The light was redshifted or had more wavelength in the red part of the spectrum [1]
 - b. The closer the galaxy, the less red shift was observed [1]
 - c.
 - i. The observations can be used to support parts of both theories [1]
 - ii. The idea that new evidence was found to support theory A [1]
Note: there is no need to know what this was – it is a test of the basic principles of science and approach.
 - d.
 - Red shift is found in the light from all galaxies [1]
 - Red shift happens when a light source (galaxy) is moving away from the observer [1]
 - If all galaxies are moving away from us, the universe must be getting larger [1]
- a. Gravity [1]
 - b.
 - i. Nuclear fusion (fusion) [1]
 - ii. It creates heat that tends to make the star expand [1]; this balances the pressure from gravity to keep the star at a constant size.
 - c.
 - i. The sequence is:
 - Red giant
 - White dwarf
 - Black dwarf1 mark for each, providing they are in this order only. Note: 1 mark only if the sequence starts with the red giant but the other two are incorrectly placed.
 - ii. Similarities:
 - They will both run out of hydrogen and use helium for fusion [1]
 - They will both eventually collapse due to gravity [1]Differences:
 - UY Scuti will go supernova and form a black hole [1]
 - The Sun will collapse to form a black dwarf [1]

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Challenges – A Level AQA Physics

1. Measurement and uncertainty

1.1

Physical quantity	Measuring devices	Sources
Length (distance) SI units: metre (m) Other units: parsec, light year, centimetre, millimetre	Ruler Laser Tape measure	Limitation of the Human error in errors
Mass SI units: kilogram Other units: gram, solar mass	Electric balance Scales (balance)	Human error in Limitation of the mass to which the
Temperature SI units: kelvin (°K) Other units: Celsius	Thermometer Thermocouple (electrical)	Limitation of the (minimum scale) Human error
Electrical current SI units: ampere (A) Other units: n/a	Ammeter Multimeter	As above
Amount of a substance SI units: moles (mol) Other units: n/a	This is normally calculated using mass in chemistry	As above
Luminosity SI units: candela (cd) Other units: lux	Light meter	As above

Have a go

- Volume:** distance (length) m^3
- Density:** mass and distance $kg.m^3$
 Logic: density = mass / volume kg / m^3
- Pressure:** mass, length and time $kg.m^{-1} s^{-2}$
 Logic: pressure = force / area (force = mass × acceleration)
 $\therefore \text{pressure} = \frac{Kg \cdot ms^{-2}}{m^2} = \frac{Kg \cdot s^{-2}}{m}$ or $kg.m^{-1} s^{-2}$
- Moment of a force:** mass, distance and time $kg.m^2.s^{-2}$
 Logic: moment of a force = force × perpendicular distance and for
 $\therefore \text{Moment} = (Kg \cdot ms^{-2}) \cdot m = kg.m^2 \cdot s^{-2}$

1.2 Your answer will depend on the measurements used; however, the percentage uncertainty and uncertainty should be less than 0.5 mm for most rulers.

How accurate were your measurements – were they repeatable?
 If they had an uncertainty below 5 % then they are repeatable.

How could you improve the uncertainty in these measurements?
 Use a device that has a higher level of accuracy (finer division on the ruler, for example) or reduce the human error, such as a laser linked to a computer sensor (such as might be used in a laboratory).

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2. Mechanics

Variables	Symbol	SI unit
Initial velocity	u	ms^{-1}
Final velocity	v	ms^{-1}
Acceleration	a	ms^{-2}
Time	t	s
Distance	s	m
Gravity	g	N
Force	F	N
Mass	m	kg

- 2.1 A car moves in a straight line from point A to point B in 10 s. At point B its velocity is 40 ms^{-1} . The distance AB is measured as 200 m.

$$s = \left(\frac{u+v}{2}\right)t$$

$$\therefore 2s = (u+v)t$$

$$\frac{2s}{t} = u+v$$

$$u = \left(\frac{2s}{t}\right) - v$$

$$u = \left(\frac{2 \times 200}{10}\right) - 40 = 0 \text{ ms}^{-1}$$

The car was, therefore, stationary at the start.

Point A is $\frac{1}{2}$ AB. Show that the time taken for the car to cover the distance AB was 5 s.

$$s = \left(\frac{u+v}{2}\right)t$$

$$\therefore t = \left(\frac{2s}{u+v}\right) = (2 \times 100) \div (0 + 40) = \underline{5 \text{ s}}$$

- 2.2 Calculate the acceleration of a sphere moving with an initial velocity of 5 ms^{-1} if it takes 2 min to travel a distance of 1000 m (ignore the effect of friction).

Recall t is in seconds = 2 min \times 60 s = 120 s

$$s = ut + \frac{1}{2}at^2$$

$$\therefore s - (ut) = \frac{1}{2}at^2$$

$$2(s - (ut)) = at^2$$

$$\frac{2(s - (ut))}{t^2} = a$$

$$a = \frac{2(1000 - (5 \times 120))}{120^2} = \frac{800}{14400} = 0.06 \text{ ms}^{-2}$$

What was the velocity of the sphere after the 1000 m?

$$v = u + at$$

$$v = 5 + (0.06 \times 120) = \underline{12.2 \text{ ms}^{-1}}$$

3. Astronomy

- 3.1 A. Stellar mass

Supermassive

Intermediate mass black holes

They are classified according to their size relative to the mass of our Sun (a solar mass).

Our Sun is too low in mass to produce a supernova and a black hole; its fate is to become a white dwarf.

- B. Gravitational waves, radio waves, X-rays and gamma rays.

- C. It would need to be supermassive to exert enough gravitational pull to hold the galaxy together and slowly pull it inwards. Eventually all the stars will spiral into the black hole and become part of the singularity at the heart of the galaxy.

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