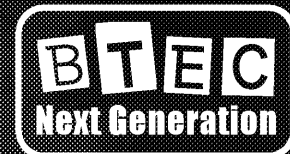


SCIENCE | BTEC LEVEL 2 | EDEXCEL

Teaching Pack

*For BTEC First Award in Applied Science
Unit 6: Applications of Physical Science*

Second edition 2nd March 2015



POD 4719

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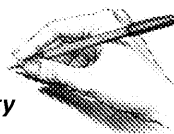
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Teacher's Introduction

This unit is taught over 30 guided learning hours (GLH). Teachers will have different approaches to the balance between teaching and working on assignments, as well as when they carry out assignment work. This scheme of work suggests splitting the time into 14 teacher-taught hours, ten assignment lessons and six spare lessons for additional assignment time to obtain missed assessment criteria and also catch-up time for students who have missed lessons or need extra support. For differentiation purposes, information that only distinction-level students need is marked in a boxes with a **D** symbol. 'Did you know' boxes are included to give students some fun or useful extra information about the topic – they do not need to know this information to complete their assignments.

This pack contains the following materials:

1. A single-page overview scheme of work
2. 14 lesson plans
3. Notes for each lesson covering all the learning aims between them
4. Questions in non-write-on and write-on format to reinforce learning, with answers
5. Assignments covering all the assessment criteria between them

This resource is designed to be flexible in the following ways:

- Proposed assignment tasks have been put into suggested slots after the relevant material has been covered.
- The assignments provided in this pack are designed to be independent of each other so that any one can be substituted if you have a preferred assignment from elsewhere.
- For each lesson there is a lesson plan followed by student notes and questions. Questions are then repeated provided in write-on format. You could use the material in one of the following ways:
 1. Use the notes to support your classroom teaching and then hand out either the non-write-on questions or the write-on questions at the end of the lesson (possibly for homework).
 2. Use the notes to supplement your own notes or the textbook and hand them out at the end of the lesson as a summary with the questions, so students can complete the questions using the notes as support.
 3. Just use the questions (either write-on or non-write-on as appropriate) at the end of the lesson and subsequently hand out the notes at revision time.

If using this resource for assessed work, then as with all BTEC assignments they must be **internally verified**. Also you must check suitability with the board* and follow the **important disclaimer notice below**.

* Note: Pearson BTEC / Edexcel currently offer a free Assignment Checking Service.

IMPORTANT DISCLAIMER REGARDING ASSESSMENT: if you choose to use the assignments in this resource for assessed work, it is your responsibility to internally verify them and to check with Edexcel that the material you use is suitable. This includes the requirement from September 2014 not to conduct 'interim assessment' within a Learning Aim. You should **not** use the material in this resource for actual assignments unless you have checked their suitability with Edexcel. The awarding body specifies the level of support that students can be given and you **must** check the level of support given in this pack is appropriate to meet these needs and as necessary **adjust and use the resource appropriately to meet these requirements**. Please check for the most up-to-date information from Edexcel at: <http://www.edexcel.com/btec/Pages/default.aspx>. Note that relevant paperwork for practical work, such as observation sheets, should also be obtained from Edexcel. Assignment details and requirements from the awarding bodies sometimes change after their initial published requirements and so you must check that the resource material here is in line with the latest requirements **before use**.

Also available from ZigZag Education

Assignment Pack

Three more sets of assignments for the new BTEC specification to give you a larger choice of assignments.

For more information please visit:
www.zzed.co.uk/btecassignments

Also available from ZigZag Education

Activity Pack

Worksheet-style activities, starter and plenaries matched to the new BTEC specification to supplement this pack and the textbook and give more variety and different approaches.

Practical sheets:

- Teacher sheets for all the suggested practicals and demonstrations for this unit.
- Student method sheets for all the practical experiments outlined in this scheme of work with observation grids.
- Health and safety guidance for demos and practicals.

For more information please visit:
www.zzed.co.uk/bteccactivities

Update (July 2014)

A new 'Important Disclaimer Regarding Assessment' has been added in the introduction.

Update: 2nd edition (February 2015)

Following changes to BTEC assessment rules which affect learners registered from 1st September 2014, this resource has been amended to meet these rules:

- Resubmission dates have been removed from all assignment briefs (pages 29, 46, 68, 91)

In addition, to meet current assessment rules, essential changes have been made, including:

- Assignment briefs each cover one Learning Aim in full. Therefore:
 - Assignments 1 and 2 have been merged and edited (pages 29, 30)
 - Assignments 4 and 5 have been merged and edited (page 68)
 - Assignments 6 and 7 have been merged and edited (page 91)
- Teacher's Introduction and Suggested Scheme of Work have been amended accordingly (pages 1, 3)
- Text aimed at students does not refer to Level 1 tasks or criteria (pages 29, 30, 31, 46, 47, 68, 69, 91, 92)

Other amendments: assignments have been renamed to be consistent with the Learning Aims:

- Merged assignments 1 and 2 have been renamed Assignment A (page 29)
- Assignment 3 has been renamed Assignment B (page 46)
- Merged assignments 4 and 5 have been renamed Assignment C (page 68)
- Merged assignments 6 and 7 have been renamed Assignment D (page 91)

Free updates

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** resulting from minor specification changes, suggestions from teachers and peer reviews, or occasional errors reported by customers*

Suggested Scheme of Work

GLH	LP	Title
1	1	Investigate Motion: Speed and Velocity
2	2	Investigate Motion: Acceleration
3	3	Investigate Motion: Conservation of Energy
4	4	Investigate Motion: Energy and Braking
5–7	<i>*Assignment A: Velocity, Acceleration and Energy Transfers</i>	
8	5	Investigate Forces: Resultant Forces
9	6	Investigate Forces: Forces and Work
10	7	Investigate Forces: Resistance to Sliding
11–13	<i>*Assignment B: Investigate Waves</i>	
14	8	Investigate Waves: Reflection of Light and Sound
15	9	Investigate Waves: Refraction of Light
16	10	Investigate Waves: Lenses and the Eye
17	11	Investigate Waves: Sound Waves
18–19	<i>*Assignment C: Light and Sound Waves</i>	
20	12	Investigate Electricity: Electric Circuits
21	13	Investigate Electricity: Series and Parallel Circuits
22	14	Investigate Electricity: Thermistors and LDRs
23–24	<i>*Assignment D: Electric Circuits, Thermistors and LDRs</i>	
25–30	<i>**Opportunity for catch-up and obtaining missing assignment credit</i>	



Learning Aims Note

'All students should' aims are levelled at Level 1 and Pass students, 'most students should' aims are levelled at Merit students and 'some students should' aims are levelled at Distinction students.

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Lesson Plan 1: Investigate Motion: Speed

Learning Aims






All students should:	Measure distance for simple experiments. Calculate speed and velocity for simple experiments. Produce accurate graphs to represent uniform motion.
Most students should:	Interpret graphs to identify objects that are stationary or moving at constant speed.
Some students should:	Calculate the gradient for distance–time graphs.

Keywords: distance, displacement, speed, velocity, gradient

Starter

Review previous learning. Briefly recap speed, distance and time.

Main

-  Brief introduction to distance and displacement, and speed and velocity.
-  Introduction to distance–time graphs. On the board, draw a table for an object's distance and time – students can plot a graph of these results.
-  Review graphs and discuss. Explain what sort of motion is represented by a straight line graph and explain that the gradient represents speed.
- Further examples of distance–time graphs – students can calculate the gradient and calculate the object's speed.
- Elicit answers to graph examples and discuss.
-  Air Track Experiment: Students use a rider on an air track to investigate an object travelling at (close to) uniform speed. Speed can be calculated from the distance travelled and the time taken. Actual speed values can be calculated (optional).
- Discuss results of air track experiment with students.
-  Answer Questions 1–7 from the worksheet pack.
- Elicit answers to questions in class discussion.

Plenary

Properties Checklist: Draw up a table of properties of distance, displacement and speed (whether it has a direction, whether it has units of m/s, etc). Students must use the table to show which properties apply to each.

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Speed and Velocity

Distance and Displacement

Distance and displacement are both measured in metres (m) – but they are not the same. **Displacement** is the distance an object has travelled in a given direction – size and a direction. **Distance** only has a size.

For example, if a remote control car travels 5 metres north, then turns around and travels 5 metres south, its **distance** travelled is 5 m + 5 m = 10 m. But its **displacement** is zero, because it is back to its starting point.

Speed and Velocity

Speed and velocity are both measured in metres per second (m/s). **Speed** just has a direction, **velocity** has a direction and a size. **Speed** and **velocity** are both measured in metres per second (m/s).

The **speed** of an object is its rate of change of **distance** travelled:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{distance travelled (m)} &= \text{speed (m/s)} \times \text{time (s)} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{speed (m/s)} &= \frac{\text{distance travelled (m)}}{\text{time (s)}} \end{aligned}$$

The **velocity** of an object is its rate of change of **displacement**:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{displacement (m)} &= \text{velocity (m/s)} \times \text{time (s)} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{velocity (m/s)} &= \frac{\text{displacement (m)}}{\text{time (s)}} \end{aligned}$$

Worked example

A car is travelling along a straight flat road at a constant speed of 40 m/s. How far does it travel in 2 minutes?

$$2 \text{ minutes} = (2 \times 60) \text{ s} = 120 \text{ s}$$

$$\text{distance travelled (m)} = \text{speed (m/s)} \times \text{time (s)} = 40 \text{ m/s} \times 120 \text{ s} = 4,800 \text{ m (or 4.8 km)}$$

Did you know?

When a car travels past a speed camera, the camera measures the time it takes for the car to travel between two white lines on the road.

The formula $\text{speed (m/s)} = \frac{\text{distance travelled (m)}}{\text{time (s)}}$ is used to work out how fast the car is travelling faster than the speed limit!

Distances in simple experiments can be measured using a **ruler**, **metre rule** or **tape measure**. Time can be measured using a **stopwatch**.

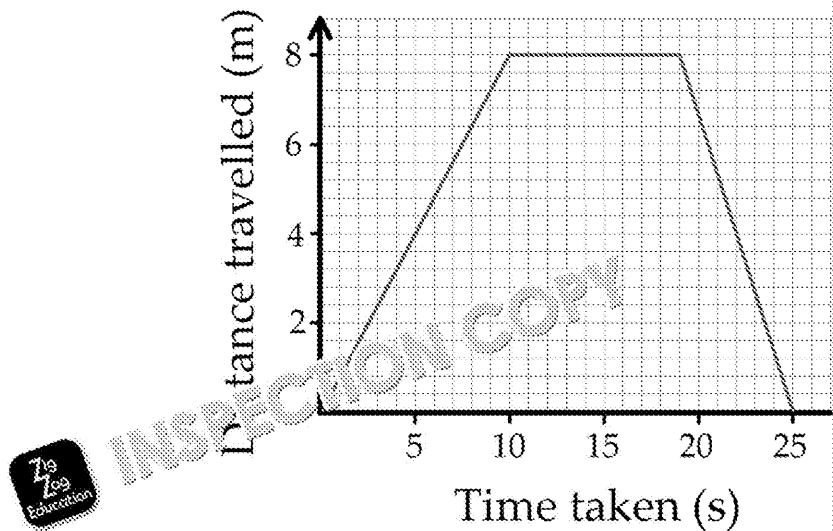
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Distance–Time Graphs

The distance–time graph of a moving object can tell us a lot about the motion of



The graph shows the motion of a remote-control car.

The first 10 seconds of the graph show a **straight line** sloping upwards. This shows that the distance travelled is increasing at a steady rate – so the car must be travelling at **constant speed**.

A steeper line would show us that the car's distance was increasing more quickly than the car's speed. On the other hand, a less steep line would show us that the car was travelling more slowly. The steepness of the line on a graph is called the **gradient**.

- On a distance–time graph, the **gradient** of the line represents **speed**.

D

From the graph, we can see that in the first 10 seconds the car travels a distance of 8 metres starting point at a steady rate. We can use this information to work out the speed of the car.

$$\text{speed (m/s)} = \frac{\text{distance travelled (m)}}{\text{time taken (s)}}$$

So in the first part of this graph, the speed of the car was $8 / 10 = 0.8$ m/s.

After 10 seconds, the line becomes flat. This shows that the car's distance from the starting point is not changing – therefore the car must be **stationary** when the line is **flat**.

After 19 seconds, the line slopes downwards in a straight line and returns to zero. This shows that the car has returned back to its starting position, travelling at constant speed.

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Speed and Velocity Questions

1. What is the difference between distance and displacement?
2. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words:

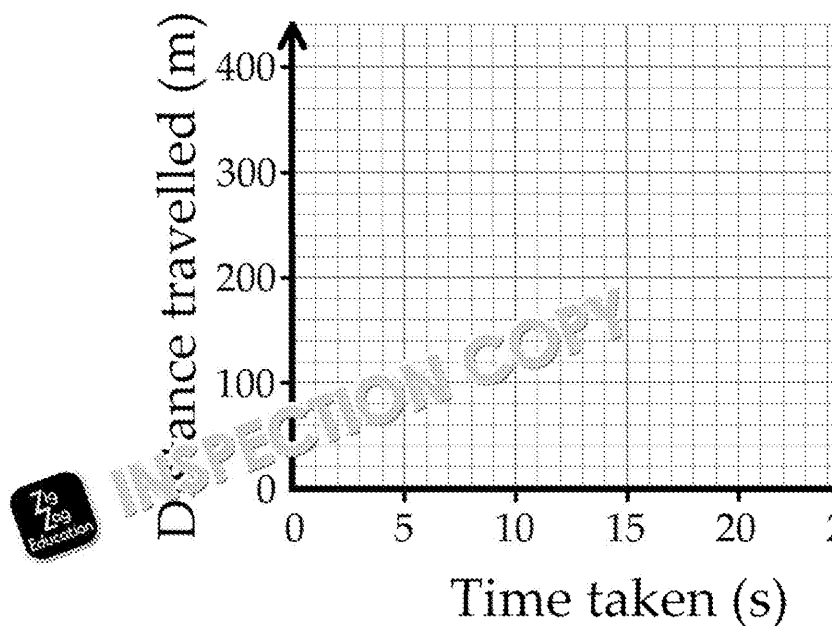
direction size	displacement speed	distance stationary	gradient velocity
-------------------	-----------------------	------------------------	----------------------

_____ is speed in a given _____. It is the rate of change of _____ of change of _____. The _____ of a distance–time graph representing an object must be _____.

3. An object travels at 5 m/s for 20 seconds. How far does it travel in this time?
4. In 100 seconds an object travelling at constant speed covers a distance of 200 m. What is its speed?
5. An object travels 80 m at a constant speed of 5 m/s. How long does it take to travel this distance?
6. In the distance–time graph on the information sheet, calculate the speed of the car from 19 seconds onwards.
7. A car is timed travelling along a straight flat road. The results are shown in the table below.

Time (s)	0	5	10	15	20
Distance (m)	0	40	160	280	340

- a) Copy and complete the graph below with the results.



- b) Calculate the speed of the car between 5 seconds and 15 seconds.
- c) Describe the motion of the car after 20 seconds.

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Speed and Velocity Questions

1. What is the difference between distance and displacement?

.....

2. Complete the phrases using some of the following words:

direction	displacement	distance	gradient	h
size	speed	stationary	velocity	

..... is speed and It is the rate of
 whereas speed is the rate of change of
 of a distance-time graph represents speed. If the line is flat, the object



3. An object travels at 5 m/s for 30 seconds. How far does it travel in this

.....

4. In 100 seconds an object travelling at constant speed covers a distance
 during this time?

.....

5. An object travels 80 m at a constant speed of 5 m/s. How long does it

.....

6. In the distance-time graph on the information sheet, calculate the speed
 from 19 seconds onwards.

.....



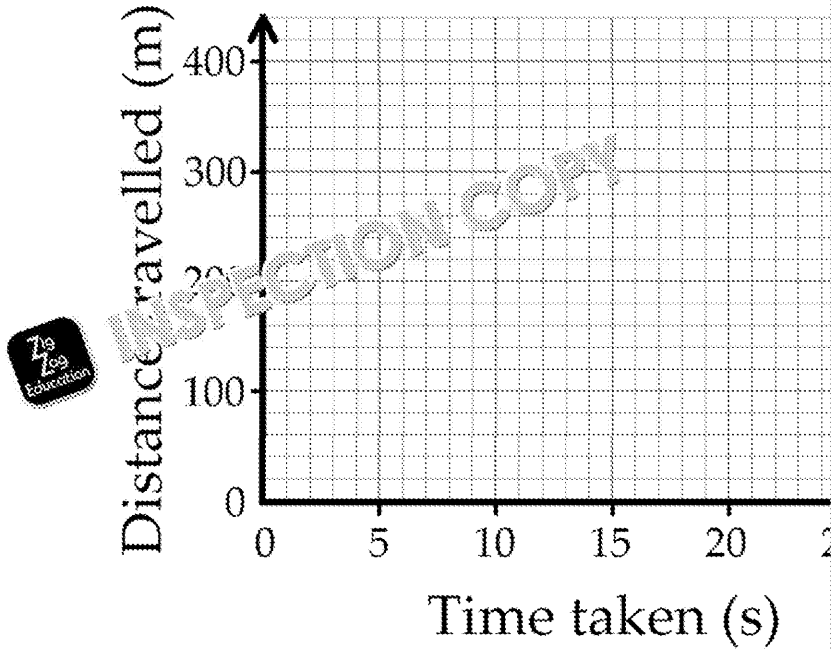
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7. A car is timed travelling along a straight flat road. The results are shown below.

Time (s)	0	5	10	15	20
Distance (m)	0	40	160	280	340

a) Plot these results on the graph below.



b) Calculate the speed of the car between 5 seconds and 15 seconds.

.....

.....

c) Describe the motion of the car after 20 seconds.

.....

.....

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Lesson Plan 2: Investigate Motion: Acceleration

Learning Aims

All students should:	Produce accurate graphs to represent uniform acceleration from primary data.
Most students should:	Interpret graphs to identify objects that are stationary, moving with constant speed and moving with increasing or decreasing speed.
Some students should:	Calculate the gradient and area of speed–time graphs.







Keywords: acceleration, deceleration, velocity, gradient, area

Starter

Review of previous learning. Recap the differences between distance and displacement and velocity.



Main

-  Introduction to acceleration as rate of change of velocity. Explain that speeding up and changing direction all count as acceleration.
-  Introduction to units of acceleration and the equation for calculating acceleration. Give example problems on the board for students to solve.
- Elicit answers to examples during class discussion.
-  Introduction to velocity–time graphs. On the board, draw a table of an object's velocity and time – students can plot a graph of these results.
-  Review graphs and discuss. Explain what sort of motion is represented by a straight line on a velocity–time graph and explain that the gradient represents acceleration and the area under the graph represents distance.
-  Trolley experiment: Students can set up a motion sensor or light gates to measure the speed of a trolley at different points (i.e. near the top and bottom of the ramp), as well as timing the trolley between light gates. Hence, calculate the average acceleration down the ramp.
- Discuss results of trolley experiment with students and what they would expect the velocity–time graph and speed–time graph of the trolley's motion to look like.
-  Give students Questions 1–4 from the pack.
- Elicit answers during class discussion.

Plenary

Fastest finger first: students to work in small groups. Ask students a series of questions about acceleration and the student that answers each question first gets to leave the group.

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Acceleration

When the velocity of an object changes, the object **accelerates**. If an object speeds up or slows down, or changes direction, it is accelerating. The quicker the velocity of an object changes, the greater the acceleration. Acceleration has a size and direction.

Calculating Acceleration

The **acceleration** of an object is its **rate of change of velocity** – the amount that its velocity changes in a given time. It is calculated using the equation:

$$a = \frac{v - u}{t}$$

where: a is acceleration, in metres per second squared (m/s^2)
 u is the initial velocity of the object, in metres per second (m/s)
 v is the final velocity of the object, in metres per second (m/s)
 t is the time taken, in seconds (s)

Worked example

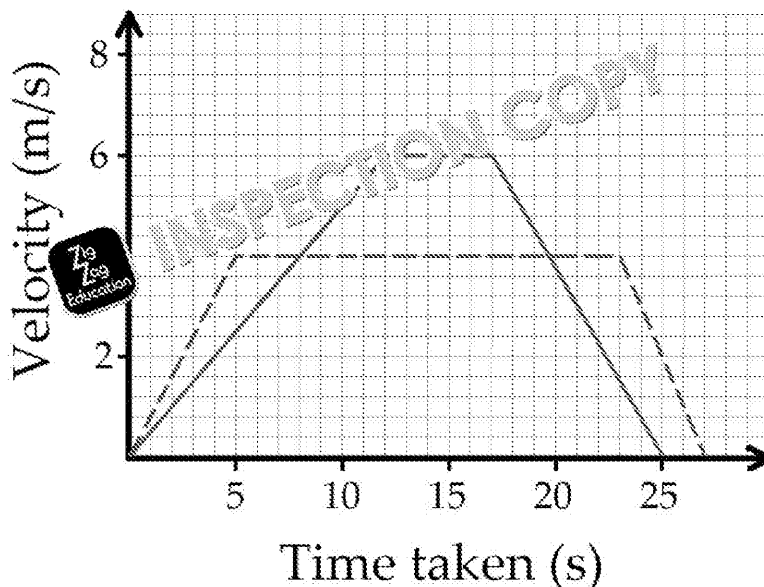
A car accelerates from 10 m/s to 30 m/s over a period of 5 seconds. Calculate the acceleration.

$$a = \frac{v - u}{t} = \frac{30 - 10}{5} = \frac{20}{5} = 4 \text{ m/s}^2$$

Speed–Time Graphs

The features of a speed–time graph (or velocity–time graph) are similar to those of a distance–time graph. A horizontal (flat) line shows that the object's **speed** is not changing, while a sloped line shows that the speed is changing at a constant rate.

- On a speed–time graph or velocity–time graph, the **gradient** of the line represents the acceleration of the object.
NB: Speed–time graphs and velocity–time graphs are the same, except that they can show negative velocity – like the one below.



This represents a car that starts from rest, accelerates to 5 m/s in 10 seconds, remains at 5 m/s for 10 seconds, and then decelerates to 0 m/s in 5 seconds.

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D

Using the acceleration equation, we can calculate that the dotted first 5 seconds is:

$$a = \frac{v - u}{t} = (4 - 0) / 5 = 0.8 \text{ m/s}^2$$

After 5 seconds, the dotted line becomes flat. This means that the car's **velocity** is travelling at constant velocity.

After 23 seconds, the line slopes back down towards zero. This shows that the car's acceleration is negative).

D

We can also use a speed–time graph to find the total **distance** travelled.

When we multiply an object's velocity by the time taken, it gives the distance travelled. So by finding the **area under the line** on a velocity–time graph, we can find the total distance.

On a velocity–time graph, the **area** underneath the line represents the total distance travelled by the object.

Tip: break the total area up into triangles and rectangles and calculate the area of each of them up.

For a rectangle, the area is simply the base \times height.

For a triangle, the area is $\frac{1}{2} \times \text{base} \times \text{height}$.



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Acceleration Questions

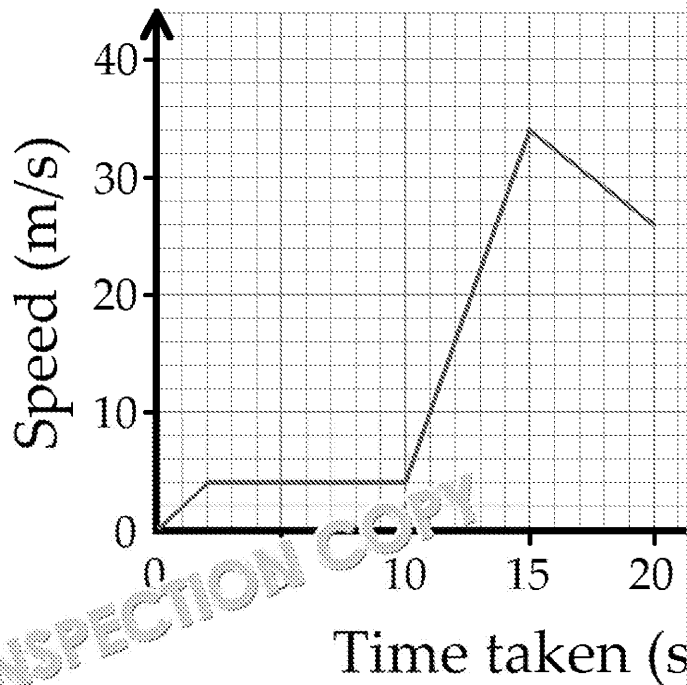
1. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words:

accelerating moving	acceleration negative	direction positive	distance size	gr s
------------------------	--------------------------	-----------------------	------------------	---------

Acceleration is the rate of change of _____. An object is _____ if it changes _____. If the acceleration of an object is _____, it can be _____.

The _____ of a velocity–time graph represents _____ and the area _____ represents _____.

2. In the velocity–time graph on the information sheet, describe the motion:
- in the first 12 seconds
 - between 12 seconds and 17 seconds
 - after 17 seconds
3. In the velocity–time graph on the information sheet, calculate:
- the initial acceleration of the solid-line car, before it reaches constant speed
 - the deceleration of the dotted-line car after 23 seconds
 - which car has travelled furthest?
4. The speed–time graph shows a rollercoaster in the first 20 seconds of pulling the rollercoaster slowly up a slope.



- Calculate the initial acceleration which starts the rollercoaster moving.
- When do you think the rollercoaster reaches the top of the slope?
- Describe what the graph shows between 10 and 15 seconds. What is it doing?
- Calculate the total distance travelled by the rollercoaster in the first 20 seconds.
- What is its average speed during this time?

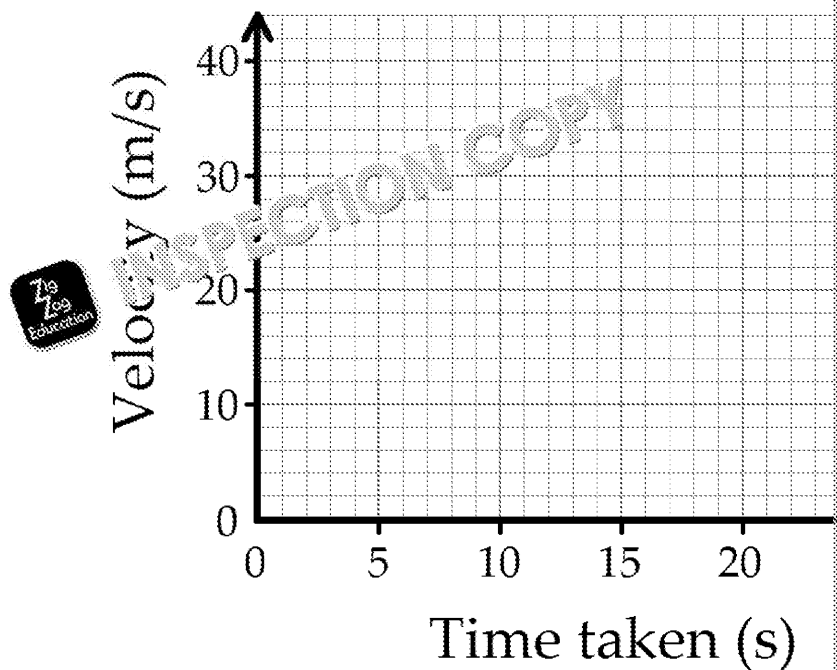
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5. A car is timed driving along a straight flat road and its velocity is recorded. The results are shown in the table.

Time (s)	0	5	10	15	20
Velocity (m/s)	0	16	32	32	30

- a) Copy and complete the graph below with your results.



- b) What is happening between 10 and 15 seconds?
c) Fully describe the motion of the car between 20 and 25 seconds.
d) Calculate the acceleration of the car in the first 10 seconds.
e) Calculate the distance the car has travelled.

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Acceleration Questions

1. Complete the phrases using some of the following words:

accelerating	acceleration	direction	distance	g
moving	negative	positive	size	s

Acceleration is the rate of change of _____. An object is _____ up, slows down or changes _____. If the acceleration of an object can be described as deceleration.

The _____ of a velocity-time graph represents _____ underneath the graph represents _____.



2. In the velocity-time graph on the information sheet, describe the motion

a) in the first 12 seconds
.....
.....

b) between 12 seconds and 17 seconds
.....
.....

c) after 17 seconds
.....
.....

3. In the velocity-time graph on the information sheet, calculate:

a) the initial acceleration of the solid-line car, before it reaches constant velocity
.....
.....

b) the deceleration of the dotted-line car after 15 seconds
.....
.....

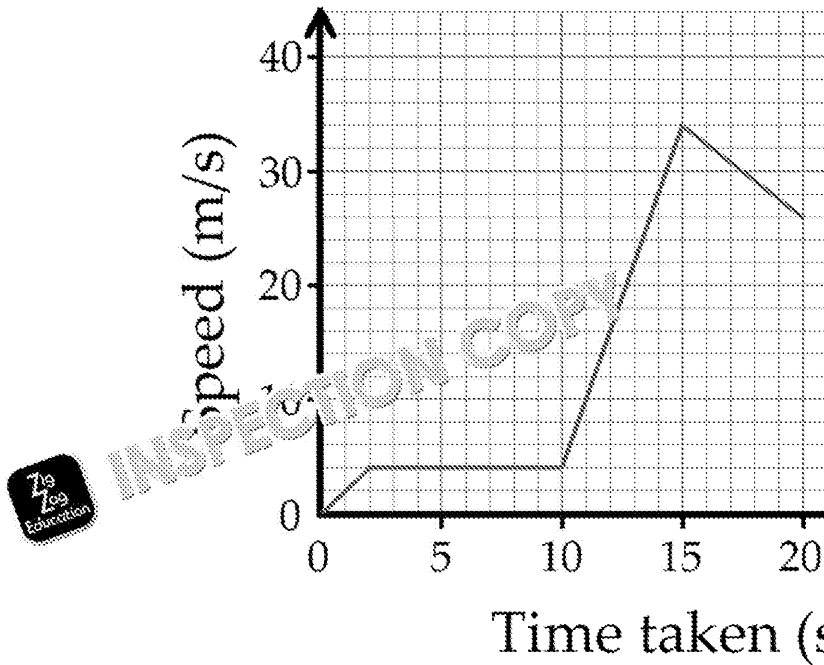
c) which car has travelled furthest?
.....
.....
.....
.....



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4. The speed–time graph shows a rollercoaster in the first 20 seconds of pulling the rollercoaster slowly up a slope.



a) Calculate the initial acceleration which starts the rollercoaster moving.

.....

b) When do you think the rollercoaster reaches the top of the slope?

.....

c) Describe what the graph shows between 10 and 15 seconds. What is it doing?

.....

d) Calculate the total distance travelled by the rollercoaster in the first 20 seconds.

.....

e) What is its average speed during this time?

.....

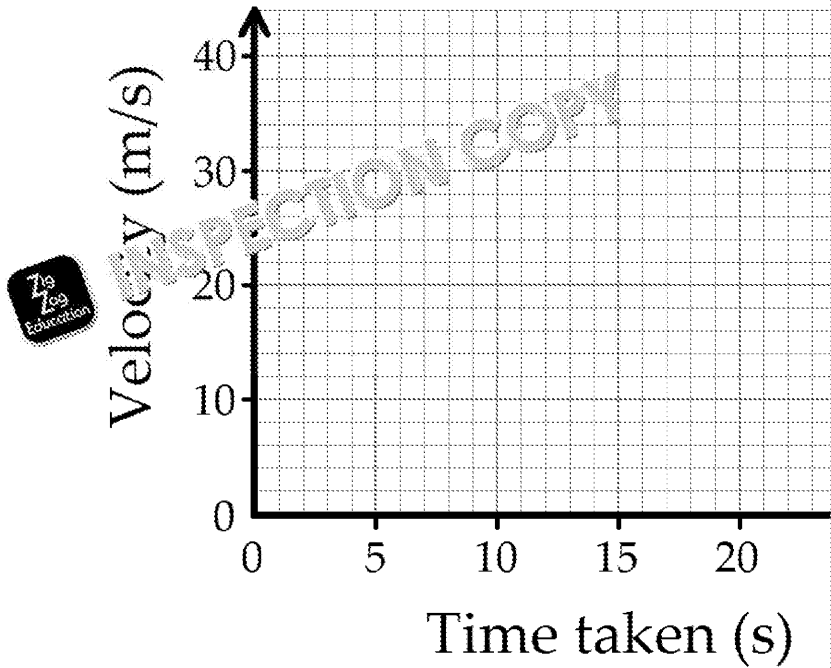
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5. A car is timed driving along a straight flat road and its velocity is recorded. The results are shown in the table.

Time (s)	0	5	10	15	20
Velocity (m/s)	0	16	32	32	30

a) Plot these results on the graph below.



b) What is happening between 10 and 15 seconds?

.....

c) Fully describe the motion of the car between 20 and 25 seconds.

.....

d) Calculate the acceleration of the car in the first 10 seconds.

.....

.....

e) Calculate the distance the car has travelled.

.....

.....

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Lesson Plan 3: Investigate Motion: Conservation of Energy

Learning Aims









All students should:	Draw energy transformation diagrams for simple circuits. Describe the conservation of energy for simple circuits. Draw energy transformation diagrams.
Most students should:	Calculate kinetic energy and changes in gravitational potential energy.
Some students should:	Understand that as an object falls, gravitational potential energy is converted into kinetic energy.

Keywords: energy, work, transfer, conservation, motion, input, output, gravitational potential energy, kinetic energy

Starter

Energy matching exercise. Students are given a list of appliances or processes and match them to its correct useful energy output.

Main

1. Review energy matching exercise and discuss.
2.  Introduction to conservation of energy and equivalency of work and energy.
3.  Explain the different types of energy and where they may be found.
4.  Introduction to energy transformation diagrams. Write examples of energy transformations. Students can attempt their own energy transformation diagrams.
5.  Explain how to calculate kinetic energy, using the worked example.
6.  Explain how to calculate gravitational potential energy, using the worked example. Explain how as an object falls, its gravitational potential energy is converted into kinetic energy.
7.  Falling object experiment: Students drop a piece of card from various heights and use a light gate to measure its speed before hitting the ground. Using the speed and the distance through which the card falls, they should be able to calculate the gravitational potential energy lost and the amount of kinetic energy gained. Compare the two.
8. Discuss results from the falling object experiment with students. Use the results of the experiment to draw an energy transformation diagram for the experiment.
9.   Answer Questions 1–6 from the pack.
10. Elicit answers during class discussion.

Plenary

Students work in pairs. Each student writes five questions (with answers) related to the lesson. One point is gained for every question they get correct; one point is lost for every question they get wrong. The winner is the one with the most points after all ten questions have been asked.

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Conservation of Energy

Whenever two objects interact, **energy is always conserved**. Energy is never created or destroyed, it is only **transferred** or **converted** into a different form.

When work is done on an object by a force, the amount of **energy transferred** to the object is equal to the amount of **work done** on the object:

$$\text{work done (J)} = \text{energy transferred (J)}$$

Work done and energy transferred are both measured in **joules (J)**.

Worked example

A ball is sitting stationary on a desk. 50 J of work is done on the ball to make it move. This energy was transferred to the ball.

work done = energy transferred (J), so the ball has 50 J of energy

The energy of an object which is moving is called **kinetic energy**.

Types of Energy

Energy is used and transferred in all sorts of different forms.

Type of energy	Description	Examples
Electrical	Energy carried by a current through electrical circuits	Any appliance (TV, mobile phone)
Kinetic	Energy of movement	Anything moving (a car, a skydiver)
Light/ electromagnetic	Energy of radiation of light (or other waves in the electromagnetic spectrum)	The Sun, a light bulb, a microwave oven
Potential (chemical, elastic, gravitational)	Stored energy with the potential to do work	Chemical: a battery Elastic: a stretched spring Gravitational: a ball held above the ground
Thermal/heat	Energy transferred as heat from hot objects to cold objects	Radiator, a hot cup of coffee
Sound	Energy of vibrations which cause sound	Musical instruments, a speaker

All of these forms of energy can be transformed into another.

- For example, a **light bulb** is supplied with **electrical** energy which it then converts into **light** and **heat**.
- A sprinter converts the **chemical** energy in food into **kinetic** energy and some **heat**.

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Energy Transformation Diagrams

When energy is transferred by a process, it can be converted from one form to another. For example, if a battery is connected to a light bulb in an electric circuit, the following takes place:

chemical energy stored in battery \Rightarrow **electrical energy** in circuit \Rightarrow **light**

Light is the only **useful** form of energy emitted by the bulb. Heat is just a by-product which is lost to the surroundings and so it is considered **wasted** energy.

Wasted energy is usually lost as heat or sound to the surroundings.

Sankey diagrams, like the one shown to the right, include all the different energy inputs and outputs of a process. Each arrow has a label which represents the proportion of each type of energy involved.

For example, if the diagram were describing a light bulb, the 'energy input' would be from the mains or a battery.

The 'useful energy output' would be **light** energy to light up the room.

The 'wasted energy' would be **heat lost** to the surroundings.

Remember that **energy is always conserved** – so the **total energy output** of a process is equal to the **total energy input**.

Kinetic Energy

Kinetic energy is the energy of movement – any moving object will possess kinetic energy. The amount of kinetic energy an object has depends both on its **mass** and its **speed**. The faster an object moves, the more kinetic energy it has.

Kinetic energy is calculated using the equation:

$$K.E. = \frac{1}{2} \times m \times v^2$$

where: $K.E.$ is kinetic energy, in joules (J)
 m is mass, in kilograms (kg)
 v is speed, in metres per second (m/s)

Worked example

A car of mass 1,500 kg is driving at a speed of 30 m/s. Calculate the kinetic energy.

$$K.E. = \frac{1}{2} \times m \times v^2 = 0.5 \times 1,500 \text{ kg} \times (30 \text{ m/s})^2 = 675,000 \text{ J (675 kJ)}$$

Energy input

100J

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Gravitational Potential Energy

Gravitational potential energy is the energy stored in any object in a gravitational field. If work is done on an object to move it further out of the gravitational field, its gravitational potential energy increases.

If an object is allowed to fall in the gravitational field due to gravity, its gravitational potential energy decreases.

NB: As an object falls due to gravity, it speeds up – its **gravitational potential energy** decreases and its **kinetic energy** increases.

An object's change in gravitational potential energy is calculated using the equation:

$$P.E. = m \times g \times h$$

where: $P.E.$ is the change in gravitational potential energy, in joules (J)

m is the mass, in kilograms (kg)

g is the acceleration due to gravity, in newtons per kilogram (N/kg)

h is the change in height, in metres (m)

On Earth, the acceleration due to gravity g is approximately **10 N/kg**.

Did you know?

When you are riding on a rollercoaster, the rollercoaster is converting energy between kinetic and gravitational potential energy as you go round the track.

The higher the rollercoaster gets the more gravitational potential energy it gains – this gravitational potential energy is then converted back into kinetic energy as the rollercoaster falls, which is the reason why you go so fast at the end of a vertical loop!

Worked example

A ball with a mass of 2 kg is dropped from a height of 1.8 m. Calculate its loss in gravitational potential energy.

$$P.E. = m \times g \times h = 2 \text{ kg} \times 10 \text{ N/kg} \times 1.8 \text{ m} = 36 \text{ J}$$

If all the gravitational potential energy lost is converted into kinetic energy, calculate the speed of the ball just before it hits the ground.

$$K.E. = P.E. = 36 \text{ J}$$

$$K.E. = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 = \frac{2K.E.}{m} = (2 \times 36) / 2 = 36; v = 6 \text{ m/s}$$

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Conservation of Energy Questions

- Name the types of energy input and output for each of the following
 - an electric kettle boiling
 - a cymbal being hit
 - a desk lamp
 - a skydiver falling

- Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words.

created potential	electricity surplus	equal transferred	heat useful	w
----------------------	------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---

Energy cannot be _____ or _____; it can only be _____ or converted _____ of a process always _____ to the total energy output.

Energy _____ processes transfer _____ energy, which is in the form we want _____ – usually as _____ or sound lost to the surroundings.

- A stationary car has a mass of 2,000 kg. 900 kJ of work is done by the engine. If 100 kJ of energy is wasted, what is the speed of the car after this work is done?
- A ball is stationary on a desk. 80 J of work is done on the ball to make it move.
 - How much useful energy is transferred to the ball?
 - What do you think happens to the wasted energy?
 - The ball moves off at 16 m/s. Calculate the mass of the ball.
- A skydiver with a mass of 75 kg jumps out of a plane and falls 500 m before opening his parachute.
 - Calculate the gravitational potential energy lost by the skydiver before he opens his parachute. ($g = 10 \text{ N/kg}$)
 - Assuming all gravitational potential energy is transferred to kinetic energy, calculate the speed of the skydiver just before the parachute opens.
- Group Activity:** In groups, discuss a wide range of appliances you have at home. What types of energy transfer are taking place when you use these appliances?



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Conservation of Energy Questions

1. Name the types of energy input and output for each of the following

a) an electric kettle boiling

Input

Output

b) a cymbal being hit

Input

Output

c) a desk lamp

Input

Output

d) a skydiver falling

Input

Output

2. Complete the phrases using some of the following words.

created	electricity	equal	heat
potential	surplus	transferred	useful

Energy cannot be _____ or destroyed; it can only be _____

energy _____ of a process is always _____ to the total en

Energy processes transfer _____ energy, which is in the form w

also _____ – usually as _____ or sound lost to the surrou

3. A stationary car has a mass of 2,000 kg. 900 J of work is done by the engine. If 10% of the energy is wasted, what is the speed of the car after this work is done?

.....

.....

.....

.....

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4. A ball is stationary on a desk. 80 J of work is done on the ball to make it move.
- a) How much useful energy is transferred to the ball?
.....
 - b) What do you think happens to the wasted energy?
.....
 - c) The ball moves off at 16 m/s. Calculate the mass of the ball.
5. A skydiver with a mass of 75 kg jumps out of a plane and falls 500 m before opening his parachute.
- a) Calculate the gravitational potential energy lost by the skydiver before the parachute opens. ($g = 10 \text{ N/kg}$)
.....
.....
.....
 - b) Assuming all gravitational potential energy is transferred to kinetic energy, calculate the speed of the skydiver just before the parachute opens.
.....
.....
.....
6. **Group Activity:** In groups, discuss a wide range of appliances you have at home. What types of energy transfer are taking place when you use these appliances?



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Lesson Plan 4: Investigate Motion: Energy

Learning Aims







All students should:	Understand the concept of a vehicle's stopping
Most students should:	Identify the factors affecting transportation and
Some students should:	Explain how changes in energy will affect trans distances.

Keywords: brakes, kinetic energy, speed, stopping distance, thinking distance

Starter

Review of previous learning. Recap 'work done = energy transferred'.

Main

-  Introduction to braking. Discuss with students the energy transferred by brakes.
-  Introduction to stopping distance, including safety implications.
-  Discuss with students the different factors that may affect thinking distance.
-  Discuss measures that could be taken to reduce stopping distance.
-  Stopping distance experiment: Students roll a trolley or toy car on different types of surface and measure the stopping distance once it has stopped. Students should comment on how the stopping distance is affected. Relate this to the stopping distances of vehicles under various road conditions.
- Discuss results of experiment with students.
-  Answer Questions 1–4 from the pack.
- Elicit answers during class discussion.

Plenary

Stopping Factors List: Create a list of factors which may affect the stopping distance. Students must sort the factors according to which part of the stopping distance, thinking distance, or both.

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Energy and Braking

Braking

To stop a vehicle, the driver has to apply the brakes. The brakes do work against the motion of the vehicle to decelerate it.

D

When the brakes are applied, they provide a **frictional force** between the wheel tyres. This frictional force does work to convert **kinetic energy** (and some **sound**), which is transferred to the brake pads, wheels and the air. This energy increases the temperature of the brake pads and the wheels. Sometimes you can hear a 'squealing' sound when the brakes are applied to a moving vehicle.

The greater the speed of the vehicle, the more kinetic energy it has. To stop the vehicle (or decelerate it by a given amount) you need to do more work.



Stopping Distance

The **stopping distance** of a vehicle is the shortest distance in which it can safely stop. Stopping distance is very important for **road safety** – a shorter stopping distance means a driver can stop their vehicle more quickly, so they are less likely to run into an unexpected hazard (e.g. a person crossing the road).

Stopping distance is made up of two different components:

- **thinking distance** – the distance the vehicle travels during the time it takes the driver to react
- **braking distance** – the distance the vehicle travels while the brakes are being applied

The total stopping distance is the sum of these two components:

$$\text{stopping distance} = \text{thinking distance} + \text{braking distance}$$

Thinking distance and braking distance are each affected by a number of factors:

Thinking distance	Braking distance
<p>Alcohol and drugs – these slow down the reaction time of the driver, increasing the thinking distance.</p> <p>Tiredness will also slow down reactions, increasing the thinking distance.</p>	<p>Road conditions – if the road surface is poorly maintained, you should brake more gently to avoid skidding, which increases the braking distance.</p>
<p>Distractions in the car – like using a mobile phone, or fiddling with the car radio – can increase the thinking distance because the driver is not paying full attention to the road.</p>	<p>Brake condition – if the brakes are worn, they will not be as effective at slowing the vehicle down. This increases the braking distance.</p>
<p>Visibility – fog, heavy rain and snow can make it harder for the driver to see what is ahead so their reaction time is likely to be affected. This increases the thinking distance.</p>	<p>Tyre condition – if tyres are worn, they will not slow down the vehicle as effectively, which increases the braking distance.</p>
<p>Speed – the faster a vehicle is travelling, the greater the thinking and braking distances. Travelling fast, the driver travels further while reacting to a situation, so the thinking distance is greater. Also, the faster the vehicle is moving, the more energy it has, so it takes more energy to stop the vehicle, so the braking distance will also be greater.</p>	

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Energy and Braking Questions

1. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words (write once):

braking	chemical	distance	energy	energy
heat	kinetic	mass	potential	stopping
speed	stopping	thinking	tyres	

When a vehicle brakes, its _____ energy is converted into _____
 _____ a vehicle is travelling, the more _____ needs to be done to
 _____.

The _____ distance of a vehicle is the sum of the thinking distance
 Alcohol and drugs affect the _____ distance, while the condition of
 brakes affects the _____ distance. The greater the _____ of a vehicle
 will be.

2. A vehicle is travelling at 30 m/s before the driver spots a hazard in the road.
- The driver takes 2 seconds to react to the hazard. Calculate the distance travelled in this time.
 - What is the name of this distance?
 - The driver then applies the brakes – the vehicle travels a further 30 m before it comes to a complete stop. Calculate the total stopping distance of the vehicle.
 - State a precaution the driver could have taken which would have reduced the total stopping distance.
3. List and explain three factors which affect a) thinking distance, b) braking distance.
4. **Group Activity:** Prepare a group presentation on the different factors which affect the total stopping distance. Do some group research on the energy changes that occur when a vehicle brakes and suggest how stopping distances can be reduced.



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Energy and Braking Questions

1. Complete the phrases using some of the following words (words may be used more than once)

braking	chemical	distance	energy	energy
heat	kinetic	mass	potential	speed
speed	stopping	thinking	tyres	

When a vehicle brakes, its _____ energy is converted into _____ energy. The _____ a vehicle is travelling, the more _____ over a certain _____.

The _____ distance of a vehicle is the sum of the thinking distance and the braking distance. Alcohol and drugs affect the _____ distance, while the condition of the _____ affects the _____ distance. The greater the _____ of the _____, the shorter the _____ distances will be.

2. A vehicle is travelling at 30 m/s before the driver spots a hazard in the road.

a) The driver takes 2 seconds to react to the hazard. Calculate the distance travelled during this time.

.....

b) What is the name of this distance?

.....

c) The driver then applies the brakes – the vehicle travels a further 30 m before coming to a complete stop. Calculate the total stopping distance of the vehicle.

.....

d) State a precaution the driver could have taken which would have reduced the stopping distance.

.....

3. List and explain three factors which affect a) thinking distance, b) braking distance.

a) 1

2

3

b) 1

2

3

4. **Group Activity:** Prepare a group presentation on the different factors which affect stopping distance. Do some group research on the energy changes that occur when a vehicle brakes and suggest how stopping distances can be reduced.

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Assignment A: Velocity, Acceleration and Energy

Learner's name:

Start date:

Deadline:

Da

Velocity, Acceleration and Energy Tra

Scenario

You have joined your school science club. The school open evening is coming up and you need to make some posters of experiments they have done. Your first task is to carry out an experiment that investigates speed and acceleration, and create a poster showing your results about the subject.

Your science club is part of a campaign to promote safer driving in local residential areas. You are asked to produce a poster to raise the awareness of the issue by explaining its scientific basis and how to avoid it.



Task 1

Carry out one of the experiments you have studied during this unit and create a poster about the experiment you carried out.

You may find it helpful to split the poster into different sections, e.g. aims, apparatus, procedure, results, discussion and conclusion.

1. Your poster should explain what you did, including how all your measurements (e.g. time) were taken. You should also explain what you can conclude from your results.
Remember to include units with your measurements.
2. You should include a distance–time graph of your results.
3. You should also include a speed–time graph for examples of motion where the speed is constant, accelerating or decelerating.
4. Include calculations of speed/velocity from your distance and time data.
Show the formulae you use and remember to give units.
5. Use your graphs to describe the type of motion that is occurring at each part of the graph.
You should be able to highlight parts of the graph which show when an object is moving at constant speed, accelerating or decelerating.
6. Use the gradients of your graphs to calculate acceleration and velocity and use your speed–time graph to calculate the distance travelled.



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Task 2

1. Describe the energy transfers that take place when a car brakes; illustrate with an energy transformation diagram. Provide a description of an experiment you have designed to investigate energy conservation (e.g. measuring K.E. and P.E. of a falling object) and an energy transformation diagram for this as well.
2. Describe the law of conservation of energy and describe how your energy transformation diagram represents it for your experiment.
3. Use the equation for kinetic energy to calculate the kinetic energy of a car and the gravitational potential energy of a falling object if the potential energy is converted into kinetic energy. Show the formulae you use and remember to include the relevant units. The mass of the car is 1,500 kg, although you don't have to stick to this if you don't want to.
4. Explain how stopping distance is affected by the speed/kinetic energy of a car. How can this be addressed to reduce the stopping distance.



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Learner's name:	Start Date:
Learner's declaration: I certify that the work submitted for this assignment is my own. I have clearly referred to sources of information used in my work. I understand that false declaration is a form of malpractice.	
Learner's Signature:	Date:
Learner's comments for the assessor:	

Teacher's/assessor's name:	
Marking Criteria	
Task:	Criteria:
1	2A.P1 Produce accurate graphs to represent uniform and non-uniform motion using primary data.
	2A.P2 Calculate speed and velocity for simple experiments.
	2A.M1 Interpret graphs to identify objects that are stationary, moving at constant speed and moving with increasing or decreasing speed.
	2A.D1 Calculate the gradient for distance–time graphs and the gradient and area of speed–time graphs.
2	2A.P3 Describe the conservation of energy for simple experiments, including energy transformation diagrams.
	2A.M2 Calculate kinetic energy and changes in gravitational potential energy.
	2A.D2 Explain how changes in energy will affect transportation and stopping distances.
Deadline:	
Summative feedback:	
Date assessed:	

Internal verifier's name:
Internal verifier's feedback:
Date:

If a learner has met the Level 2 criteria, they can be assessed on the Level 1 criteria:	
1A.1	Produce accurate graphs to represent uniform motion using primary data.
1A.2	Measure distance for simple experiments.
1A.3	Draw energy transformation diagrams for simple experiments.

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Lesson Plan 5: Investigate Forces: Resultant

Learning Aims








All students should:	Identify the forces on objects. Describe the effects of balanced and unbalanced forces.
Most students should:	Calculate the force on objects, in relation to their application. Identify 'pairs' of forces that act on different objects. Identify forces that are equal in size and opposite in direction.
Some students should:	Explain the various forces involved, and their applications.

Keywords: force, weight, newtons, resultant, equilibrium, mass, acceleration

Starter

Review of previous learning. Discuss forces acting on an object at rest, e.g.

Main

-  Brief introduction to 'pairs' of forces (every action has an equal and opposite reaction).
-  Introduction to resultant forces, including implications of zero resultant force on a stationary or moving object.
-  Use free body force diagrams to allow students to calculate resultant forces as a class.
-  Resultant force experiment: Students place a weight on a set of scales. A newton meter is placed onto the weight and slowly apply a lifting force to it. How do the newton meter and scales relate to the reading on the scales? Draw a free body diagram of the weight experienced by the weight – does this explain the results?
- Discuss results of resultant force experiment (including the free body diagram). Discuss how we can tell that the forces are balanced and what might happen if they are not.
-  Explain how weight is not the same as mass and demonstrate the difference.
-  Introduction to $F = m \times a$, using a worked example from the information pack for the students to solve their own problems.
- Elicit answers to problems during class discussion.
-  Answer Questions 1–5 from the pack.
- Elicit answers during class discussion.

Plenary

True or false: Ask students a series of true or false statements about resultant forces. Students move to either end of the room to vote.

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Resultant Forces

A **force** is an interaction between two objects. If two objects collide, rest against each other, or are pulled by a gravitational pull on each other, forces are acting between the two objects. Force

One of the most important rules about forces is that **every action has an equal and opposite reaction**.

- If a block is resting on a table, the **weight** of the block is acting downwards and an equal and opposite **normal reaction force** is exerted on the block by the table, in response to the weight.
- NB: A normal reaction force from a surface always acts in response to an applied force.*
- If a horse pulls a cart, the **pulling force** the horse exerts on the cart is matched by an equal and opposite **pulling force** by the cart on the horse.

Most objects have more than one force acting on them at once. To simplify a problem, we can combine all the forces with one **resultant force**, which has the same effect as all the forces combined.

If all the forces on an object are **balanced**, the resultant force is **zero** and the object remains stationary or moves at a constant speed.

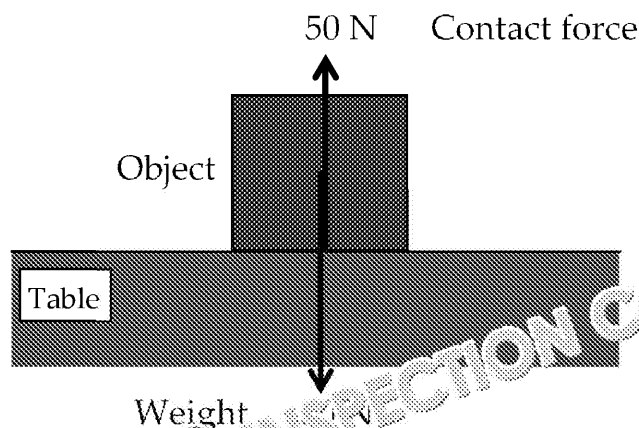
- If the object was stationary, then it will remain **stationary**.
- If the object was moving, then it will continue to move at a **constant speed**.

However, if the resultant force is **unbalanced**, the object will experience an **acceleration** in the direction of the resultant force.

- If the object was stationary, then it will begin to move in the direction of the resultant force.
- If the object was moving and the resultant force acts in the direction of motion, it will **accelerate** (increase its speed).
- If the object was moving and the resultant force acts against the direction of motion, it will **decelerate** (decrease its speed).

Calculating the Resultant Force

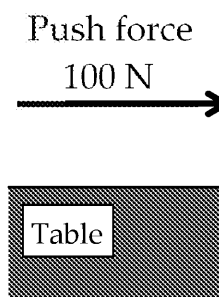
The resultant force is the sum of all the forces acting in one particular direction – if a force acts in the opposite direction, it is subtracted.



The block shown on the table is stationary. The weight of the block and the contact force from the table cancel each other out. It remains stationary – if it was moving, it would continue at a constant speed.

A force of 100 N is applied to the side of the block. The table generates a frictional force of 20 N in the opposite direction. The overall resultant force is in the direction of the push force and its size is $100\text{ N} - 20\text{ N} = 80\text{ N}$.

This means the block accelerates in the direction of the push force.



NB: These are **free body force diagrams**. It is always useful to draw a free body diagram for every question about forces.

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Weight

The **weight** of an object is the gravitational force that acts on it. It is measured in newtons (N).

Mass is the **quantity of matter** in an object and is measured in kilograms (kg). An object's mass does not change no matter where it is.

Weight is different from mass. An object's weight varies depending on the **gravitational field strength** it is subjected to. The Earth's gravitational field strength is approximately **10 N/kg** and can vary depending on where you are.

Did you know?

Astronauts on the Moon feel incredibly light and are able to bounce around – the gravitational field strength of the Moon is only about one-sixth of the Earth's. So the astronaut's weight on the Moon that they would feel on the Earth! Although their weight is different on the Moon, it is important to remember that their mass remains the same wherever they are.



If we know the mass of an object, we can calculate its weight using:

$$W = m \times g$$

where: W is weight, in newtons (N)
 m is mass, in kilograms (kg)
 g is gravitational field strength, in newtons per kilogram (N/kg)

Forces and Motion

When a resultant force acts on an object, the object **accelerates** in the direction of the force.

The resultant force is linked to the **mass** of the object and the **acceleration** caused by the force.

$$F = m \times a \quad \left(\text{or } a = \frac{F}{m} \right)$$

where: F is the resultant force acting on the object, in **newtons** (N)
 m is the mass of the object, in kilograms (kg)
 a is the acceleration of the object, in metres per second squared (m/s^2)

The *greater* the force, or the *smaller* the mass, the *greater* the acceleration.

Worked Example

A 2.5 kg block is at rest. A force of 7.5 N is applied and the block accelerates to a speed of 15 m/s in 5 seconds.

$$\text{Acceleration } a = (v - u) / t = 15 / 5 = 3 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$F = m \times a = 2.5 \text{ kg} \times 3 \text{ m/s}^2 = 7.5 \text{ N}$$

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Resultant Forces Questions

1. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words.

acceleration	drag	equilibrium	gravitational
motion	opposite	reaction	resultant
weight			

Every action has an equal and _____ reaction. A body resting on a table, but experiences a _____ force from the table in response.

A _____ force is a single force with the same effect as all the forces zero, the object is in _____; if it remains so, and if it is constant _____.

A non-_____ resultant _____ causes an _____ in the direction of the

2. A book with a weight of 5 N rests on a desk. Calculate the reaction force on the book.
3. A car of mass 1,000 kg begins to accelerate at a rate of 5 m/s^2 . Calculate the resultant force on the car.
4. An object is travelling at a constant speed of 3 m/s. A resultant force of 10 N acts in the direction of motion. After 5 seconds the object's speed has increased to 13 m/s.
- Assuming the acceleration is constant, calculate the acceleration of the object.
 - What is the mass of this object?
5. An object is falling through the air, accelerating at 8 m/s^2 . Its mass is 4 kg.
- Calculate the resultant force acting on this object.
 - Calculate the weight of the object ($g = 10 \text{ N/kg}$).
 - What is the size of the force acting against the object's motion?
6. **Group Activity:** Do some group research to investigate the effect of unbalanced forces on an accelerating mass – examples could include a sledge running down a hill, a ball being kicked through the air.



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Resultant Forces Questions

1. Complete the phrases using some of the following words.

acceleration	drag	equilibrium	gravitational
motion	opposite	reaction	resultant
weight			

Every action has an equal and _____ reaction. A body rests _____ on the table, but experiences a _____ force

A _____ force is a single force with the same effect as all the forces acting on it. If the resultant force is zero, the object is in _____; if it is _____ it will continue to move _____.

A non-zero resultant _____ causes an _____ in the

2. A book with a weight of 5 N rests on a desk. Calculate the reaction force.

.....

3. A car of mass 1,000 kg begins to accelerate at a rate of 5 m/s². Calculate the resultant force on the car.

.....

4. An object is travelling at a constant speed of 3 m/s. A resultant force of 10 N acts in the direction of motion. After 5 seconds the object's speed has increased to 13 m/s.

a) Assuming the acceleration is constant, calculate the acceleration of the object.

.....

b) What is the mass of this object?

.....

5. An object is falling through the air, accelerating at 2 m/s². Its mass is 4 kg.

a) Calculate the resultant force acting on the object.

.....

b) Calculate the weight of the object ($g = 10 \text{ N/kg}$).

.....

c) What is the size of the force acting against the object's motion?

.....

6. **Group Activity:** Do some group research to investigate the effect of increasing the mass of an accelerating object – examples could include a sledge running down a slope or a ball kicked through the air.

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Lesson Plan 6: Investigate Forces: Forces

Learning Aims






All students should:	Describe work done in terms of forces moving the object. Calculate the work done by forces acting on objects.
Most students should:	Identify applications of compressive and tensile forces.
Some students should:	Understand that compressive and tensile forces can be stored as internal energy and can later be transferred.

Keywords: force, work, energy, distance, compressive, tensile, elastic

Starter

Introduction to a force which does work on (and therefore transfers energy to) something which does work on (and therefore transfers energy to) something else.

Main

-  Brief introduction to forces and work (work done = energy transferred).
-  Calculation of work done by a force over a certain distance. Use the information sheet to demonstrate.
-  Write example problems on the board for the students to solve, relating work done and energy transferred.
- Elicit answers to examples during class discussion.
-  Introduction to compressive and tensile forces, including examples.
-  Answer Questions 1–3 from the pack.
- Elicit answers during class discussion.

Plenary



Tensile Force Experiment: Students can investigate the elastic potential energy stored in a spring by extending it to different lengths and measuring how far it can fire. They can plot a graph of distance extended against distance the projectile is fired. They can then relate the relationship between the two and relate this to energy transfers.

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Forces and Work

When a resultant force acts on an object, it does **work** to move that object. The work done is equal to the **energy transferred** to the object.

For example, if a heavy load is lifted into the air, the force that lifts it against gravity does **work done** by the force is equal to the **energy transferred** to the load – which is its potential energy.

Work Done by a Force

When a force moves an object through a distance, it is doing **work** on the object.

The greater a force, and the further it moves an object, the more work is done by the force.

We can calculate the work done by a force using the following equation:



$$W = F \times d$$

where: W is the work done by the force, in joules (J)

F is the force, in newtons (N)

d is the distance moved in the *direction of the force*, in metres (m)

Worked example

A crane lifts a 2,500 kg load to a height of 10 metres. How much work does the crane do?

The force exerted by the crane is equal to the weight of the load. $F = m \times g = 2,500 \text{ kg} \times 10 \text{ N/kg} = 25,000 \text{ N}$

$$W = F \times d = 25,000 \text{ N} \times 10 \text{ m} = 250,000 \text{ J (250 kJ)}$$

Compressive and Tensile Forces

A **compressive** force is one which does work to **squash** the shape of an object.

A **tensile** force is one which does work to **stretch** the shape of an object.

An **elastic** object stores the work done by a compressive or tensile force as **elastic potential energy**. When the force is removed, it can then use this energy to restore its original shape.

Examples of elastic objects are **rubber bands, squash balls, bungee cords** and **coiled springs**.



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Forces and Work Questions

1. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words.

compressive force	distance work	elastic restore	elastic potential shrink	elastic stretch
velocity	gravitational potential			

When a _____ moves an object, it does _____ on the object. The
the _____, the more work is done.

A _____ force does work to squash the shape of an object; a _____
_____ the shape of an object. If the object is _____, it stores this
which is then used to _____ its shape once the force is removed.

2. A weightlifter picks up a dumb-bell from the floor and lifts it 1.5 metres. The
bell has a mass of 20 kg.
- Calculate the change in gravitational potential energy of the dumb-bell.
 - How much work has the weight lifter done?
 - The weight lifter drops the dumb-bell. If all the gravitational potential energy is converted to kinetic energy during the fall, what is its speed just before it hits the floor?
3. A slingshot has 30 J of work done on it to stretch it. The slingshot continues to stretch until the force stretching the slingshot is removed.
- What is the name of the force that stretched the slingshot?
 - What type of energy was stored in the slingshot while it was being stretched?
 - If all the energy is transferred to the rock as kinetic energy, calculate the speed of the rock.
 - In practice, the rock would probably travel more slowly. Why do you think this is?



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Forces and Work Questions

1. Complete the phrases using some of the following words.

compressive force	distance work	elastic restore	elastic potential shrink	elastic potential energy
velocity	gravitational potential			

When a _____ moves an object, it does _____ of work. The larger the _____, the more work is done.

A _____ force does work to squash the shape of an object; a _____ force does work to stretch an object. If the object is stretched, it stores _____ energy, which is then used to _____.



2. A weight lifter picks up a dumb-bell from the floor and lifts it 1.5 metres. The dumb-bell has a mass of 20 kg.

a) Calculate the change in gravitational potential energy of the dumb-bell.

.....

b) How much work has the weight lifter done?

.....

c) The weight lifter drops the dumb-bell. If all the gravitational potential energy is converted to kinetic energy during the fall, what is its speed just before it hits the floor?

.....

3. A slingshot has 30 J of work done on it to stretch it. The slingshot continues to stretch until the force stretching the slingshot is removed.

a) What is the name of the force that stretched the slingshot?

.....

b) What type of energy was stored in the slingshot while it was being stretched?

.....

c) If 20 J of energy is transferred to the rock as kinetic energy, calculate the speed of the rock.

.....

d) In practice, the rock would probably travel more slowly. Why do you think this is?

.....

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Lesson Plan 7: Investigate Forces: Resis

Learning Aims

All students should:	Identify friction forces and situations where they occur. Describe how friction and normal reaction forces oppose an applied force.
Most students should:	Explain how friction and normal reaction forces oppose an applied force.
Some students should:	Explain the various forces involved, and their applications.








Keywords: resistive force, friction, drag force, air resistance, static, kinetic

Starter



Demonstration of static and kinetic friction: Use a newton meter to pull a mass across a surface to demonstrate that up to a point the mass does not move and then once it starts moving it is easier to pull (could also be used as a simple practical).

Main

-  Introduction to resistive forces and friction, including when they occur.
-  Explanation of static and kinetic friction.
-  Discuss the example of a car beginning, continuing and ending its motion, identifying the various forces acting at different stages.
- Students can fill in the labels on a free body force diagram of a car travelling at a constant speed.
-  Discuss the example of forces acting on a parachutist during the fall, identifying the terminal velocity.
-  Discuss the case study of forces acting on a rocket at different stages of its motion.
-  Drag force experiment: Show that fluids of different viscosities exert different drag forces on a ball bearing / marble. Use about three fluids each in a separate container (e.g. wallpaper paste of different thicknesses). Students can use stopwatches to measure the time taken for a ball bearing to fall through a known depth of each fluid and calculate the drag force exerted on it.
-  Answer Questions 1-5 from the pack.
- Elicit questions during class discussion.

Plenary



Parachute experiment: Students design a parachute for a fixed mass and see whose can keep the plasticine in the air the longest (could take a competition).



Hydrogen rocket demonstration: Set up a hydrogen rocket to show the forces involved. Instruction in the YouTube video: http://youtu.be/M_9vTsqp9D0. Ask students to discuss the forces in class.

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Resistive Forces

When an object is travelling at constant speed, the resultant force on the object is **driving force** causing the object to move is balanced by other forces which **oppose** the motion, known as **resistive forces**.

The most common form of resistive force is **friction**.

- Friction can occur between an object and a solid surface.
- It can also occur when an object moves through a fluid – more commonly known as **air resistance**.
- The drag force on an object by the air is often referred to as **air resistance**.

Friction

Like the normal reaction force (which acts against weight), friction only acts in the opposite direction to the motion. When a force is applied to try to move something, friction will act against it – and if it is large enough, it will match it. This is known as **static friction**. Once this point has been exceeded, the friction still acts against the motion. This is known as **kinetic friction**.

Imagine pushing a heavy box across the ground. If at first you only apply a small force, the box does not move. This is because the frictional force is matching your applied force.

It is only when you increase your applied force to a point where it exceeds the frictional force that the box will start to move.



When a car accelerates from rest, it is the **friction** between the tyres and the road that provides the **driving force** of the engine. The frictional force acts in the opposite direction to the motion of the car.

As the car accelerates, **air resistance** acts against the driving force. However, if the driving force is large enough to overcome the air resistance, the car will continue to accelerate.

The greater a vehicle's **speed**, the greater the air resistance will be that opposes the motion. To reduce air resistance and save fuel, some vehicles are more **streamlined** – this means they allow more air to pass over them, so the overall air resistance is lower.

Car brakes work by applying a frictional force between the brake pads and the wheels. This frictional force does work to **oppose** the motion of the car – this work is transferred to the wheel tyres and the brake pads. Kinetic friction and air resistance also do work against the motion of the car. Because the **driving force** from the engine has been removed, the car decelerates.

Did you know?

One of the reasons that racing cars can travel so fast is because they are **streamlined** and race on **smooth ground**. This means that they experience much less air resistance than the average car.

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Terminal Velocity

As a parachutist falls through the air, the weight of the parachutist is opposed by **resistance** – a form of friction between the air and the parachutist.

The amount of air resistance acting on the parachutist is relatively small, but grows as the parachutist accelerates until it matches their weight. At this point the parachutist is in equilibrium, falling at a constant speed called **terminal velocity**.

Once the parachutist opens their parachute, the **area** over which the air resistance acts increases dramatically. This means the air resistance increases, so the parachutist **decelerates**. As their speed falls, air resistance decreases until once again it matches the weight of the parachutist. **Terminal velocity** is reached once again but this time it is much slower.

Case Study: Forces on a Rocket

A rocket experiences enormous forces in the processes of both launching and landing.

The driving force from a rocket comes from chemicals (such as hydrogen and oxygen) reacting to form a large amount of very hot expanding gas. The gas is channelled out through the rocket's exhaust, generating a **thrust force** (a reaction force opposing the downwards force of the expanding gas). The NASA Space Shuttle was capable of producing over 17 million newtons of thrust in total.

The thrust produced by a rocket is far greater than its weight and any air resistance upwards until it reaches space. Some rockets aim to enter an orbit around the Earth to proceed on into outer space.

For a rocket orbiting the Earth, the only force acting on it is the Earth's gravity. The rocket is able to maintain a constant orbiting speed. Technically the rocket is in free fall. As it matches the curvature of the Earth, it does not fall closer to Earth unless it reduces its speed.

When a rocket returns to Earth, its weight is counteracted by air resistance so it does not accelerate. The NASA Space Shuttle was designed so that it was able to glide back to Earth.

D

How to explain the various forces involved in a variety of applications

You should be able to name all the forces acting in the examples shown. You should also be able to name the forces that may be acting on an object in a given situation.

- The motion of the object. Which force is making the object move and in which direction?
- The weight of the object. The weight will usually be acting downwards. Are there any other forces acting upwards to counteract this?

To estimate the size of the weight force acting, think about what the weight force is. $W = m \times g$. For estimating the size of a driving force, it can be useful to think about what the driving force is.

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Resistive Forces Questions

1. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words.

air resistance	causes	drag force	energy	
kinetic	opposes	resistive	static	terminal

Friction is a _____ force which _____ motion. In fluids it is more _____, and in air it is usually called _____.

Up to a point, friction matches the _____ applied to an object – this
Beyond this limit, _____ friction occurs.

A falling object reaches _____ when its _____ is balanced by resistive forces.

2. What do resistive forces and the normal reaction force have in common? What causes them to act.
3. A parachutist of mass 75 kg opens his parachute, mass 25 kg, and falls.
- What is the combined weight of the parachutist and parachute? (g = 10 N/kg)
 - What is the size of the air resistance force acting upwards on the parachutist?
4. What is the difference between static friction and kinetic friction? Explain using an object along a rough surface.
5. Explain why an object falling through a fluid will eventually reach terminal velocity.
6. **Group Activity:** Discuss all the different forces which act on either a car or a plane at different stages of its motion. Which of these are resistive forces and what causes them?
7. **Group Activity:** Do some research into the various safety features that are used in cars. Discuss, in terms of forces, how these safety features protect the passengers.



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Resistive Forces Questions

1. Complete the phrases using some of the following words.

air resistance	causes	drag force	energy	terminates
kinetic	opposes	resistive	static	

Friction is a _____ force which _____ motion. In fluids it is _____, and in air it is usually called _____.

Up to a point, friction matches the _____ applied to an object – _____ friction. Beyond this limit, _____ friction occurs.

A falling object reaches _____ when its _____ is balanced.

2. What do gravitational forces and the normal reaction force have in common? What causes them to act.

.....

.....

3. A parachutist of mass 75 kg opens his parachute, mass 25 kg, and falls.

a) What is the combined weight of the parachutist and parachute? (g = 10 N/kg)

.....

b) What is the size of the air resistance force acting upwards on the parachutist?

.....

4. What is the difference between static friction and kinetic friction? Explain by pushing an object along a rough surface.

.....

.....

.....

.....

5. Explain why an object falling through a fluid will eventually reach terminal velocity.

.....

.....

.....

.....

6. **Group Activity:** Discuss all the different forces which act on either a car or a cyclist at each stage of its motion. Which of these are resistive forces and what causes them?

7. **Group Activity:** Do some research into the various safety features that are used in cars. Discuss, in terms of forces, how these safety features protect the passengers.

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Assignment B: Investigate Forces

Learner's name:		
Start date:	Deadline:	Date:

Investigate Forces

Scenario

You are employed at NASA and your initial duties include showing tourists around the planet. Your supervisor suggests that you prepare a presentation describing all the forces experienced by a rocket. This will give visitors an insight into the physics of space travel.

Task

Prepare a slideshow presentation on the forces which act on a rocket. Some data is provided below for you to use.

	Mass of rocket	
	Overall acceleration when launching	15
	Acceleration downwards due to gravity (all stages)	
	Air resistance when launching and landing	5,000
	Lift when landing	
	Total height reached by the rocket	

Your presentation should include the following points.

1. Draw a free body force diagram of all the forces acting on a rocket during its flight, from launch on Earth, and as it returns to Earth.
Point out at least two examples of balanced forces and two examples of unbalanced forces.
2. Out of these forces, highlight which of them are friction forces. Describe the situations that include friction forces.
3. Explain how a force does work as it moves the rocket through a certain distance. Calculate the work done that is being done at various points.
Also include two other examples of when a force does work to move an object.
4. Use figures in the table to calculate the amount of work done to propel the rocket through the atmosphere.
Also calculate the work done for your two other examples, using estimates of distance travelled (you can research example values for these). Show the formulae you use and give units.
5. Explain the way in which resistive forces (i.e. friction and the normal reaction force) do work. Calculate the work done.
You should use examples, e.g. pushing a heavy box. Describe how resistive forces do work up to a certain point.
6. Explain how these resistive forces are increased.
Explain what your examples tell you about when resistive forces act and what effect they have.
7. In terms of the motion of the rocket at different points, describe how force imbalances affect motion.
8. Calculate the sizes of the forces involved during the flight of the rocket.
Use the information in the table to help you calculate estimates of the forces you use. Remember to include all relevant units.
9. Explain in detail the nature of all the forces acting, complete with calculating the work done during the flight of a rocket and for all the other examples you have included.
Think about all the forces that could be acting at each stage and investigate their approximate sizes. At each stage, explain the effect that the combination of forces has on the objects.

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Learner's name:	Start Date:
Learner's declaration: I certify that the work submitted for this assignment is my own. I have clearly referred to sources of information. I understand that false declaration is a form of malpractice.	
Learner's Signature: _____	Date: _____
Learner's comments for the assessor:	

Teacher's/assessor's name:	
Marking Criteria	
Task:	Criteria must:
1	2B.P1 Describe the effects of balanced and unbalanced forces on objects.
	2B.P5 Calculate the work done by forces acting on objects for simple experiments.
	2B.P6 Describe how friction and normal reaction forces are produced in response to an applied force.
	2B.M3 Calculate the force on objects, in relation to their mass and acceleration for an application.
	2B.M4 Explain how friction and normal reaction forces are produced in response to an applied force.
	2B.D3 Explain the various forces involved, and their approximate sizes in a variety of applications.
Deadline: _____	
Summative feedback:	
Date assessed:	

Internal verifier's name:
Internal verifier's feedback:
Date: _____

If a learner has not met the following criteria, they can be assessed on the Level	
1B.4	Identify the forces on objects.
1B.5	Describe work done in terms of force moving through a distance.
1B.6	Identify friction forces and situations where they occur.

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Lesson Plan 8: Investigate Waves: Reflection of

Learning Aims










All students should:	Describe, using diagrams, reflection of light in practical applications. Describe how sound is reflected for simple applications.
Most students should:	Describe how mirrors can affect rays of light. Draw diagrams to explain the reflection of light.
Some students should:	Explain how reflection of light and sound can be used.

Keywords: reflection, mirror, concave, convex, plane, ray diagram, echo, ultrasound


Starter

Review of previous learning. Ask students to contribute to class discussion about light, sound and waves in general.

Main

-  Brief introduction to reflection of both light and sound.
-  Introduction to mirrors – discuss different basic shapes of mirrors and images produced.
-  Introduction to ray diagrams. Draw a diagram of the image formation and give a brief explanation. It may aid the students' grasp of ray diagrams if they draw the diagram themselves.
-  Explanation of how a periscope works.
-  Periscope experiment: Students should build their own basic periscope in a box or carton, by cutting holes and fastening pieces of mirror carefully. Students can then use their periscopes to look over/around obstacles.
-  Discuss applications in which mirrors are useful. Encourage class discussion.
-  Introduction to echoes of sound, including a discussion of its applications from the information sheet to demonstrate the use of sonar.
-  Answer Questions 1-6 from the pack.
-  Elicit answers during class discussion.

Plenary

 Reflection experiment: Students use a light box and a plane mirror on a surface to investigate reflection of a straight beam of light. With the lights dimmed, student marks a fixed point on the plane mirror and sketch the path of the light on the surface. The angle of incidence and reflection can then be measured and compared.

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Reflection of Light and Sound

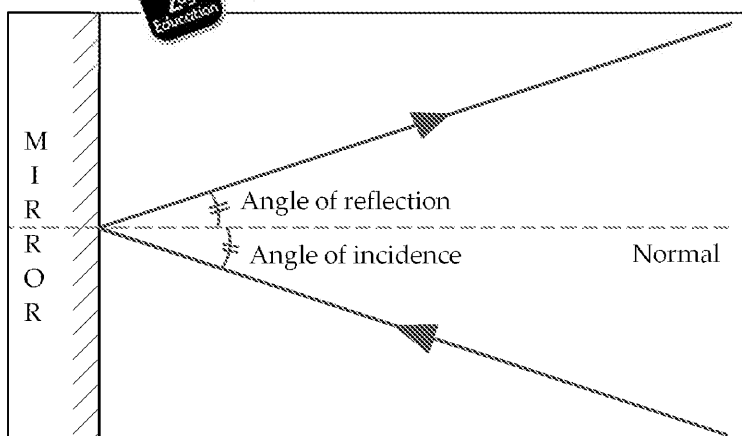
Light and sound both travel in **waves**. When a wave hits a boundary that it cannot pass through, it is **reflected** in a new direction. Everything we see is visible because some light has been reflected into our eyes.

There are many applications where it can be useful to change the direction of light. This is called **reflection**.

Mirrors

A **mirror** is a surface which is designed to reflect almost all the light that hits it. Mirrors can be **plane** (flat surfaces), **convex** (curved outwards) or **concave** (curved inwards).

Light rays travel in straight lines. We can use straight lines on a **ray diagram** to represent the path of light.



Light hitting a mirror is reflected at an angle. The angle is measured relative to an imaginary line perpendicular to the surface of the mirror, called the normal.

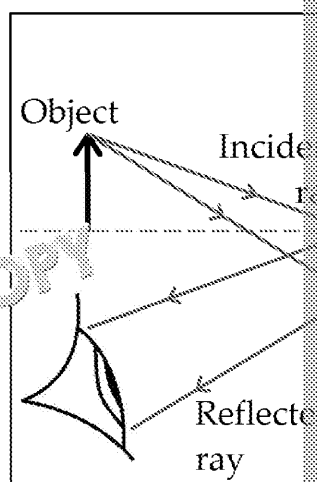
The angle at which the light is reflected is called the angle of reflection. The angle at which the light hits the mirror is called the angle of incidence.

The angle of incidence is always equal to the angle of reflection

The image shown in a mirror is known as a **virtual image** – the light rays form the image in a way which makes it appear to come from behind the surface of the mirror, as shown in the diagram.

A plane mirror produces an **upright** image, as the diagram shows. Convex mirrors also display upright images, but images in concave mirrors are upside down (for example when you look into the bowl of a spoon).

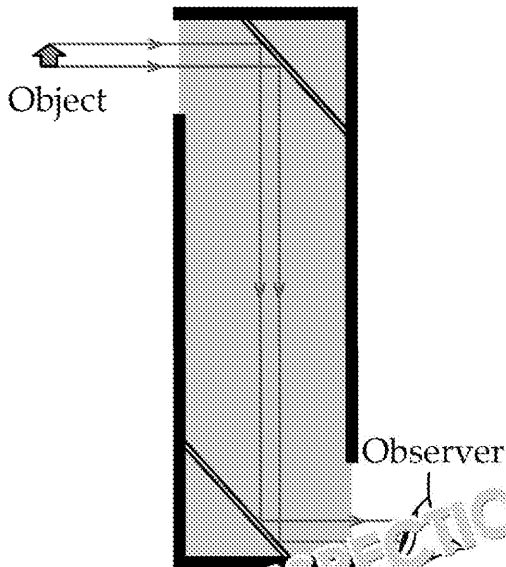
The image in a mirror is **laterally inverted**. This means that the left and right hand sides have been switched round – your left hand is your reflection's right hand and vice versa.



Virtual image formation

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Plane mirrors are used in **periscopes** to provide an image of an object which is above the surface of the water. For example, in a **submarine** a periscope is used to look above the surface of the water.

The diagram shows how two **plane mirrors** are used in a simple periscope, to direct light from the object at the top corner and into the eye of the observer at the bottom corner.

D

Mirrors have many applications where they can show us views that we cannot see directly.

- **Rear-view mirrors** in cars give the driver a view of what is happening behind them. Convex mirrors can be useful for this purpose because they provide a wide view. However, they can also distort the image, unlike plane mirrors which provide a true image.
- Mirrors are also used at **road junctions** where a driver might not be able to see around a corner ahead. A convex mirror can provide a wide view of the junction showing whether another car is approaching.
- **Reflecting telescopes** use mirrors to focus an image of a distant object. They are commonly used in astronomy, since they tend to be more accurate than **refracting telescopes** which use lenses.

Echoes

An **echo** is a reflected sound wave. When you talk in a large room, you can sometimes hear your own voice – these are sound waves from your mouth which have travelled across the room and reflected off the walls.

- Bats use echoes of **ultrasound** – sound waves above the range of human hearing – to navigate through their surroundings. The longer an echo from an object takes to return to the bat, the further away the object is.
- Ships and submarines imitate this technique by sending pulses of sound which reflect off the seabed. The use of sound reflection is known as **sonar**.
- Ultrasound is also used in **medical imaging**, including prenatal scans of unborn babies. As the ultrasound waves pass through the body, different boundaries are detected and put together to form an image of the patient's internal organs.

Worked example

A fishing ship uses sonar to detect a shoal of fish. The echo arrives back exactly 6 seconds after the pulse is sent. If the speed of sound in water is 1,500 m/s, how far away are the fish?

Distance = speed × time = 1,500 m/s × 6 s = 9,000 m. Therefore the sound wave has travelled 9,000 m.

*But this is the distance there **and** back – so the shoal is **half** this distance away – 4,500 m.*

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Reflection of Light and Sound Questions

1. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words.

concave	echo	incidence	light
reflected	reflection	refracted	refraction
ultrasound			

_____ travels in straight lines. When it is _____, the angle of _____ angle of reflection. A _____ mirror is a flat surface designed for _____

_____ waves can also be reflected – this is known as an _____. For their surroundings, while ships and submarines use it in a technique of _____

2. A group of students shine a beam of light at a mirror from different angles which are reflected in a table. Copy the table below and fill in the missing values.

Angle of incidence	Angle of reflection
30°	
	45°
90°	

3. The image shown in a plane mirror is **virtual**, **upright** and **laterally inverted**.
- Explain what is meant by each of these terms.
 - How would the image differ if the mirror were concave?
4. Describe three applications in which mirrors can be used to widen our view.
5. A submarine detects a large obstacle in its path using sonar. There is a pulse being sent and the signal being returned. Given that the speed of sound in water is 1500 m/s, how far away is the obstacle?
6. **Group Activity:** On a poster, draw a diagram of an object reflected in a plane mirror. Show how the paths of the light rays form an image which appears to be behind the mirror.

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Reflection of Light and Sound Questions

1. Complete the phrases using some of the following words.

concave	echo	incidence	light
reflected	reflection	refracted	refraction
ultrasound			

_____ travels in straight lines. When it is _____ is always equal to the angle of reflection. A _____ mirror is _____ of light.

_____ waves can also be reflected _____ known as an _____ to detect their surroundings, while ships and submarines _____.

2. A group of students shine a beam of light at a mirror from different angles which are reflected in a table. Fill in the missing results for them.

Angle of incidence	Angle of reflection
30°	
	45°
90°	

3. The image shown in a plane mirror is **virtual**, **upright** and **laterally inverted**.

a) Explain what is meant by each of these terms.

Virtual.....

Upright.....

Laterally inverted.....

b) How would the image differ if the mirror were concave?

.....

4. Describe three applications in which mirrors can be used to widen our view.

1

.....

2

.....

3

.....

5. A submarine detects a large obstacle in its path using sonar. There is a pulse being sent and the signal being returned. Given that the speed of sound in water is 1500 m/s, how far away is the obstacle?

.....

.....

6. **Group Activity:** On a poster, draw a diagram of an object reflected in a plane mirror and show how the paths of the light rays form an image which appears to be behind the mirror.

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Lesson Plan 9: Investigate Waves: Refraction

Learning Aims







All students should:	Describe, using diagrams, reflection and refraction applications.
Most students should:	Describe how lenses can affect rays of light.
Some students should:	Explain how reflection and refraction of light can be used in optical devices.

Keywords: refraction, normal, total internal reflection, critical angle, optical fibre

Starter

 Refraction demonstration (student participation): Place a coin at the bottom of a glass. Give one attempt each at stabbing it with a knitting needle. Can you see it?

Main

-  Introduction to refraction, including what causes it to occur.
-  Brief discussion of the use of refraction in corrective lenses (although more detail in subsequent topics).
-  Explanation of total internal reflection in a glass prism – draw diagram on the board to aid explanation.
-  Total Internal Reflection experiment: Students use a light box to shine a light through a glass semi-circular prism on a piece of paper. They can then sketch the path of the light in, and out of the prism, in order to investigate refraction and total internal reflection.
-  Discuss applications which make use of total internal reflection.
-  Answer Questions 1–4 from the pack.
- Elicit answers during class discussion.

Plenary

Fastest Finger First: Students work in pairs. Ask a series of questions about reflection – the pair who answers first and answer correctly get the points.

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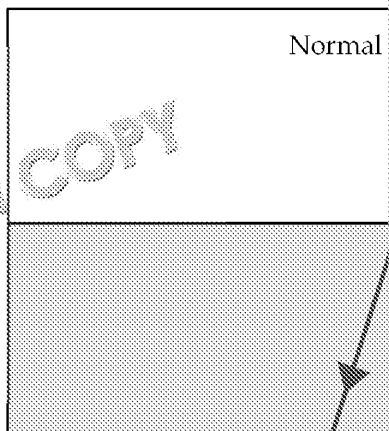
Refraction of Light

When you put a straw in a glass of water, the straw appears to be in a different position causing it to look 'broken'. This is an optical illusion caused by the **refraction** of light.

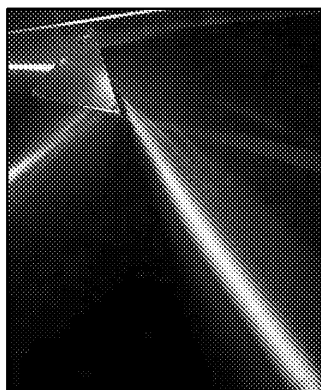
Refraction

Waves move through different media at different speeds. When a wave moves from one medium into another, its speed changes and this can also change the **direction** in which the wave is travelling.

The change in direction is called **refraction**. It will happen whenever a wave crosses a boundary between two materials of different densities – for example, a ray of light passing from air into water.



The only time a wave will *not* change direction is when it is travelling along the normal at exactly 90° to the boundary between the media. However, it will still change speed.



When a beam of white light enters a glass prism, all the different colors of light are refracted by different amounts. This splits the light into its constituent colors which can be seen as they exit the prism. The effect can be seen in a rainbow.

Refraction is used in **corrective lenses** to improve the focusing of light which would otherwise focus in the wrong place. Refraction corrects this so that objects appear more clearly. This is discussed in greater detail in the next section.

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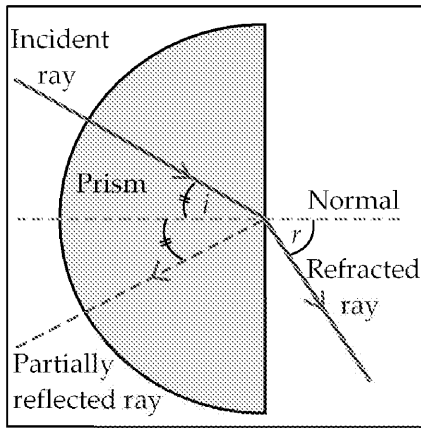


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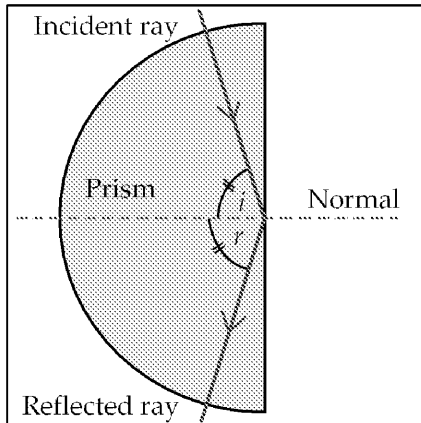


Total Internal Reflection



When a ray of light is refracted travelling from a denser to a less dense one (e.g. glass into air), then as well as a refracted ray, there is also a **partially reflected** ray. This reflects back into the denser medium following the normal rules of reflection (at an equal angle to the angle of incidence.)

If we gradually increase the angle of incidence, eventually we find a point where the refracted ray is refracted **along the boundary**. The angle of incidence where this occurs is known as the **critical angle**.



For angles of incidence greater than the critical angle, no light is refracted – instead the ray is entirely **reflected** back into the denser medium. This is known as **total internal reflection**.

The angle of reflection is *always* equal to the angle of incidence.



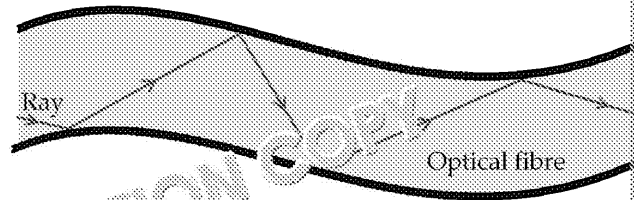
From this angle, the surface of the water acts as a mirror because of total internal reflection.

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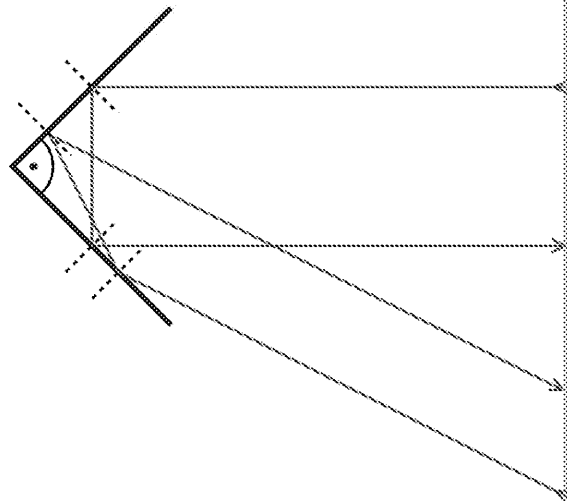


Total internal reflection is useful because it is possible to reflect rays of light along known as **optical fibres** – without any of the light leaving the tube.

- Optical fibres can be used to send information, such as phone or internet calls.
- Optical fibres are used in **keyhole surgery** in medicine, to see inside parts of the body that would be difficult to operate on. One bundle of fibres provides light through a narrow tube, and a second bundle carries the reflected light back to be displayed on a monitor, so the surgeon can see what they are doing on the monitor.



Total internal reflection is also used in **road safety reflectors**, such as the ones at the corners of roads. Each reflector consists of a series of prisms, which are designed to reflect light back towards the source.



Refraction of Light Questions

1. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words.

<i>absorbed</i>	<i>boundary</i>	<i>critical</i>	<i>denser</i>	<i>direction</i>
<i>less dense</i>	<i>normal</i>	<i>reflected</i>	<i>reflection</i>	<i>refracted</i>
<i>total internal reflection</i>				

_____ occurs when a wave passes from one medium into another. The wave changes _____.

If the wave is passing from a _____ medium to a _____ one, it will undergo _____ at a _____ angle where the whole wave is deflected back into the medium. _____ occurs at the boundary.

- When is the only time that a wave travelling across a boundary will not be refracted?
- Explain how total internal reflection can be useful a) in medicine, b) in communication.
- Group Activity:** On a poster, present a series of diagrams which explain total internal reflection. Describe a real-life application which uses this.

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Refraction of Light Questions

1. Complete the phrases using some of the following words.

absorbed	boundary	critical	denser	dis
less dense	normal	reflected	reflection	ref
total internal reflection				

_____ occurs when a wave passes from one medium into a _____
causes the wave to change _____.

If the wave is passing from a _____ medium to a _____
_____ at the boundary, up to a _____ angle where
along the _____. Beyond this angle, _____ occur.

2. When is the only time that a wave travelling across a boundary will not
.....
.....

3. Explain how total internal reflection can be useful a) in medicine, b) in
.....
.....
.....

4. **Group Activity:** On a poster, present a series of diagrams which explain how
occurs. Describe a real-life application which uses this.
.....
.....

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Lesson Plan 10: Investigate Waves: Lenses

Learning Aims






All students should:	Describe, using diagrams, the refraction of light
Most students should:	Describe how different types of optical lens can
Some students should:	Explain how the eye lens focuses light onto the retina and how they can correct simple eye problems.

Keywords: lens, convex, concave, focus, short sight, long sight, retina


Starter

Provide students with a variety of lenses. Students can play around with them and notice about the effects they cause.

Main

-  Introduction to lenses as devices designed for refraction of light. Discuss convex and concave lenses.
-  Use ray diagrams to demonstrate the functions of convex and concave lenses. It is beneficial for students to copy these diagrams down themselves.
-  Discuss ways in which a lens can be made more (or less) powerful.
-  Explain how lenses are used to correct defects in vision, using diagrams.
-  Answer Questions 1–4 from the pack.
- Elicit answers during class discussion.

Plenary

 Light Focusing experiment: Students shine light from behind a simple object to form a silhouette on a 'screen' (sheet of white card or paper). They can move the screen to form a sharper image more into focus by placing a lens (or more than one) in between.

Convex and Concave Lenses 'Splat': Students divide into two groups, each stands by the board. Teacher writes 'convex' and 'concave' on the board, reads out a word and asks which the answer is either 'convex' or 'concave'. Students must advise the correct answer.

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Lenses and the Eye

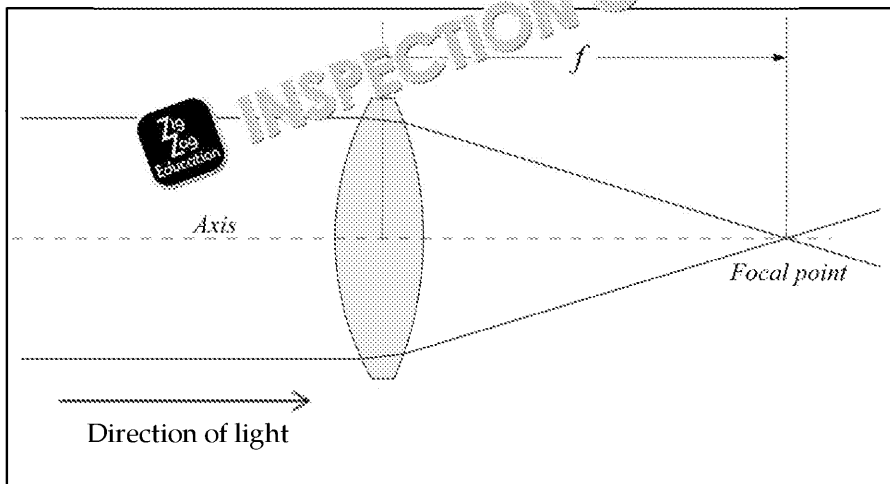
Lenses

A lens is a medium which **refracts** light to create an image. The purpose of a lens is to focus light on a certain point to create a clearer image.

Our eyes already contain natural lenses which focus light rays for us. Lenses can be used in vision or in devices such as magnifying glasses and cameras.

Types of lens

The two basic shapes of lens are **convex** (converging) and **concave** (diverging) lenses.

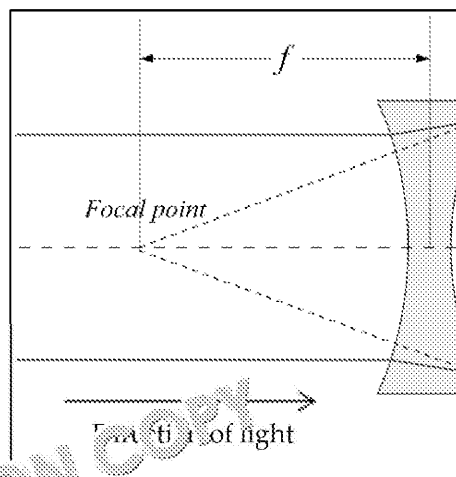


Convex lens

Concave lenses are designed to make parallel rays diverge away from each other, so that they appear to have come from a single point behind the lens. To do this, they have surfaces which curve inwards like the one shown.

Concave lenses are designed to make parallel rays diverge away from each other, so that they appear to have come from a single point behind the lens. To do this, they have surfaces which curve inwards like the one shown.

Diverging lenses are primarily used to correct **short-sightedness**.



Concave lens

The **power** of a lens is the amount of refraction it causes; different lenses must be used for different levels of refraction. The power of a lens can be increased by using a **more** refractive lens with a more **highly curved surface**.

Did you know?

When someone goes to the optician for a new pair of glasses, the optician is able to find out how much their eyes need refocusing.

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Correcting Vision

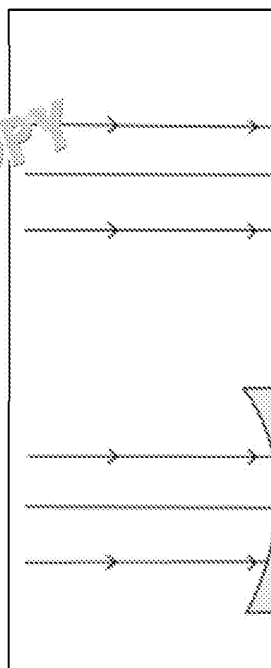
Our eyes work by using a **lens** to focus light onto the back of the eye (the **retina**) to our brain. However, sight defects are very common and are usually caused by light focusing in front of or behind the retina so that the images we receive are out of focus. This is the wrong length, or because the lens is unable to focus an image in the correct

These defects can be easily corrected by placing a corrective lens in front of the eye

Short sight is caused by the eyeball being too long or the focusing power of the lens being too great. Images of **distant** objects are focused slightly in front of the retina, meaning the image detected at the retina is out of focus.



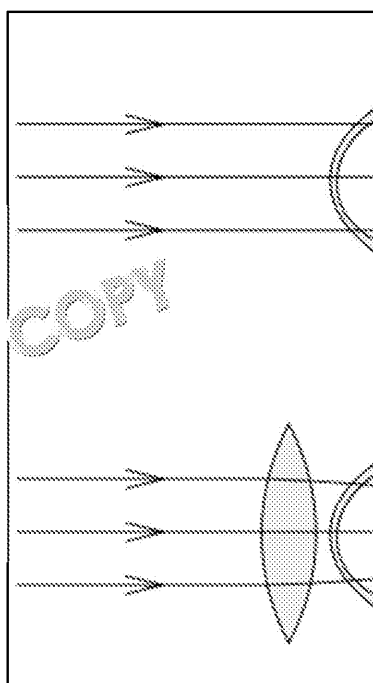
By placing a **concave** lens in front of the eye, the focusing power of the eye lens is slightly counteracted and images are focused slightly further back onto the retina.



Uncorrected

Long sight is caused by the eyeball being too short, or the focusing power of the lens not being strong enough. Images of **close** objects are focused slightly behind the retina, meaning the image detected at the retina is out of focus.

By placing a **convex** lens in front of the eye, the light rays are converged slightly before reaching the eye, so the eye lens does not have to be as powerful. Images are focused slightly further forward onto the retina.



Uncorrected

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Lenses and the Eye Questions

1. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words.

<i>concave</i>	<i>converge</i>	<i>convex</i>	<i>curved</i>	<i>diverge</i>
<i>long</i>	<i>reflective</i>	<i>refractive</i>	<i>short</i>	

_____ lenses refract parallel rays so that they converge. They are used in _____.

_____ lenses refract parallel rays so that they _____ and are used in _____.

Lenses can be made more powerful by using a more _____ material, or _____.

2. What are the two possible causes of short sight?
3. Which properties of a lens can you increase in order to increase the power of a lens?
4. Explain how different types of lens can be used to treat short sight and long sight.

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Lenses and the Eye Questions

1. Complete the phrases using some of the following words.

concave	converge	convex	curved	d
long	reflective	refractive	short	

_____ lenses refract parallel rays so that they converge. They are used to correct _____ sight. _____ lenses refract parallel rays so that they _____ sight. A lens can be made more powerful by using a more _____ making the shape more _____

2. What are the two principal causes of short sight?

- 1
- 2

3. Which two properties of a lens can you increase in order to increase the refractive power?

- 1
- 2

4. Explain how different types of lens can be used to treat short sight and long sight.

Short sight

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Long sight

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Lesson Plan 11: Investigate Waves: Sound

Learning Aims








All students should:	Describe the importance of a medium for the transmission of sound through a variety of substances for applications.
Most students should:	Describe the propagation of sound waves, including reflection and refraction.
Some students should:	Explain how sound waves can be applied in everyday life.

Keywords: sound, longitudinal, compression, rarefaction, wavelength, frequency


Starter

Review of previous learning. Encourage class discussion on what students know about sound waves.

Main

-  Introduction to sound waves and properties of longitudinal waves.
-  Demonstration of longitudinal waves: Use a Slinky spring to demonstrate how waves travel via compressions and rarefactions.
-  Explain concepts of wavelength, frequency and amplitude, and their relationship.
- Write example problems on the board for students to solve using this during class discussion.
-  Discuss why sound needs a medium through which to propagate and why it travels more quickly through solids and liquids than through air.
-  Yoghurt Pot Telephone experiment: Students can make a basic telephone using yoghurt pots by tying a string between the bases of the pots. By holding the pots to their ears, they should be able to use the pots to hear each other across the class.
-  Discuss applications of sound waves – including ones previously covered in 'Light and Sound'.
-  Answer Questions 1-6 from the pack.
- Elicit student responses during class discussion.

Plenary

 Demonstration of pitch and frequency: Encourage students who play musical instruments to bring them into class (or borrow some from music dept. if not enough musical instruments are available) and observe the effects of pitch and volume of a note on an oscilloscope.

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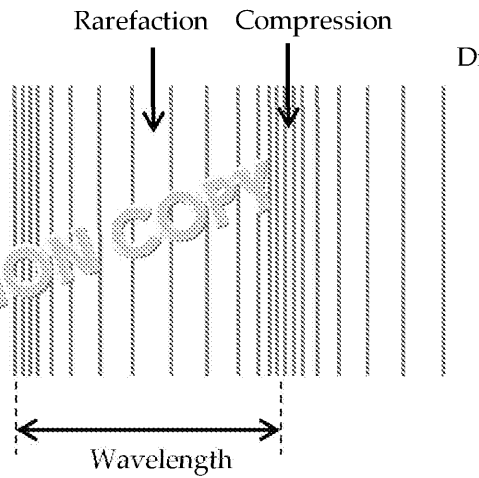
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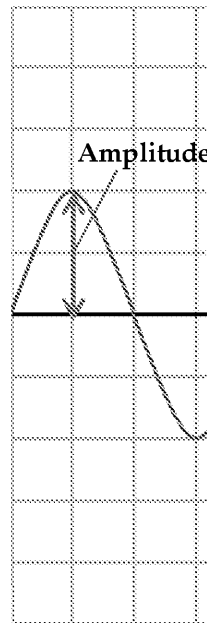
Sound Waves

Sound waves are waves which transfer sound energy by vibrating through a medium in our ears as sound. Sound waves cannot travel in a vacuum – they rely on a medium to propagate, so that the vibrations can be passed from molecule to molecule.

Sound waves are **longitudinal** waves, which means they oscillate **parallel** to the direction of propagation. A longitudinal wave pushes the air together to form **compressions** and pulls it apart to form **rarefactions** along the direction of propagation.



A sound wave has wavelength, frequency and amplitude – but it is not easy to understand and describe amplitude when looking at a longitudinal wave diagram like the one above. However, if you play a sound into the microphone of an oscilloscope it will show it in the form of a **transverse** wave, like the one shown.



Now it is easier to look at the three elements of a sound wave: its **wavelength**, **frequency** and **amplitude**.

- The **wavelength** of a wave is the distance between any point on a wave and the next identical point. For example, the distance between two identical areas of compression or rarefaction shown above.
- The **frequency** of a wave is the number of waves that pass a certain point **per second**. The frequency of a sound wave determines the **pitch** of the sound. A sound with a high frequency will produce a high sound, while one with low frequency will produce a lower sound.
- The **amplitude** of a wave is its **maximum displacement** from its undisturbed position. The amplitude of a sound wave determines how **loud** the sound is. A sound with a large amplitude will produce a loud sound, while one with small amplitude will produce a quiet sound.

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We can use the wavelength and frequency of a wave to calculate its speed:

$$v = f \times \lambda$$

where: v is the wave speed, in metres per second (m/s)

f is the frequency, in Hertz (Hz)

λ is the wavelength, in metres (m)

The medium through which sound travels affects the speed of the sound waves. Sound travels through solids and liquids faster than through air. This is because the molecules in a solid or liquid are closer together so they can pass the vibrations on more quickly.

For example, the speed of sound in water is about 5 times faster than in air. This is why whales can communicate over long distances and also allows some animals like whales to communicate quickly.

Sound travels faster through a brick wall than through air – but the sound we hear is much quieter because the sound is partly reflected by the surface of the wall.

This partial reflection is useful in **ultrasound imaging**, where each reflection of a sound wave off a boundary is between different types of tissue.

Did you know?

Space is a vacuum, so sound waves cannot travel through it. If you tried to make a sound in space, you would not hear it! Sound itself cannot be transmitted through space – it can only be transmitted through electromagnetic radiation and converted back to sound waves by a receiver.

D

Sound waves are useful for a variety of applications. As discussed in 'Sound', sound waves are used for **ultrasound imaging** and **sonar** – used in the following applications:

- **Voice recognition** is used by police and forensics analysts to identify a person's voice. Each person's voice has a unique **frequency spectrum** called a **speech signature**. The police can use computer software to identify a person (e.g. a telephone call) to a person using their speech signature.
- Ultrasound can also be used to break up **kidney stones**. High-energy sound waves are directed at the kidney stone, causing it to vibrate strongly enough to break into smaller fragments. These fragments are small enough to exit the kidney naturally.

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Sound Waves Questions

1. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words.

<i>amplitude</i>	<i>compression</i>	<i>frequency</i>	<i>liquid</i>	<i>longitudinal</i>
<i>rarefaction</i>	<i>transverse</i>	<i>vacuum</i>	<i>wavelength</i>	

Sound waves are _____; they travel by creating areas of compression and rarefaction in a _____ medium. Sound waves cannot travel in a _____.

The higher the _____ of a sound wave, the higher its volume. The _____ of the sound is determined by the _____ of the sound.

2. A wave has a frequency of 150 Hz and a wavelength of 7 m. Calculate the speed of the wave.
3. A sound wave travels through air at 340 m/s. If its wavelength is 17 cm, calculate the frequency of the wave.
4. If a sound wave has a very small amplitude but a high frequency, how would it sound?
5. Sound travels almost five times faster through water than it does through air. Explain why.
6. Name four applications which use sound waves. For each one, explain its important role in the application.

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Sound Waves Questions

1. Complete the phrases using some of the following words.

<i>amplitude</i>	<i>compression</i>	<i>frequency</i>	<i>liquid</i>	<i>longitudinal</i>
<i>rarefaction</i>	<i>transverse</i>	<i>vacuum</i>	<i>wavelength</i>	

Sound waves are _____; they travel by creating areas of compression and rarefaction through a medium. Sound waves cannot travel in a _____.

The higher the _____ of a sound wave, the higher its volume. The higher the _____ of the sound, the higher its pitch.

2. A wave has a frequency of 50 Hz and a wavelength of 7 m. Calculate its speed.

.....

3. A sound wave travels through air at 340 m/s. If its wavelength is 17 cm, calculate its frequency.

.....

4. If a sound wave has a very small amplitude but a high frequency, how would it be described?

.....

5. Sound travels almost five times faster through water than it does through air. Explain why.

.....

.....

6. Name four applications which use sound waves. For each one, explain the important role in the application.

1

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Assignment C: Light and Sound Waves

Learner's name:

Start date:

Deadline:

Day:

Light and Sound Waves

Scenario

You are working at a science museum. You are asked to write an article for the medical applications of light via reflection, refraction and total internal reflection.

Your manager then asks you to contribute to an exhibition on sound waves, by describing the medical applications that sound waves can be used for.

Task 1

Write an article on the many medical applications of light.

1. For medical applications that use reflection, include a basic ray diagram to demonstrate how waves are reflected.
Ultrasound imaging is a good example of a medical application which relies on reflection.
2. For medical applications that use refraction or total internal reflection, show refraction and total internal reflection in a prism to aid your explanations of how they work.
Optical fibres are a good example of a medical use of total internal reflection.
3. Describe the different ways in which lenses and mirrors can change the direction of light.
Include mirrors and lenses which are both convex and concave in shape.
4. Relate these processes to their uses in additional medical applications, such as endoscopy.
Provide a diagram to illustrate your answer.

Task 2

Your poster should include:

1. An explanation of how reflection of sound is used for techniques such as ultrasound imaging and sonar.
Relate the way sound is used for ultrasound imaging and sonar to the way in which sound waves are reflected.
2. Discussion of how it is vital for sound waves to have a medium to travel through in certain applications.
Describe how the medium affects the way in which sound travels. Include examples such as air, water, wall partitions, etc.
3. An explanation of the way in which sound waves propagate.
Refer to the fact that sound waves are longitudinal waves and travel via compression and rarefaction.
4. An overall discussion of the benefits of sound waves for medical applications.
They are used for diagnosis and treatment.

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Learner's name:	Start Date:
Learner's declaration: I certify that the work submitted for this assignment is my own. I have clearly referred to sources of work. I understand that false declaration is a form of malpractice.	
Learner's Signature:	Date:
Learner's comments for the assessor:	

Teacher's/assessor's name:		
Marking Criteria		
Task:	Criteria:	Learner must:
1	2C.P7	Describe, using diagrams, reflection and refraction of light for simple applications.
	2C.M5	Describe how lenses and mirrors can affect rays of light.
	2C.D4	Explain how reflection and refraction of light can be used in applications.
2	2C.P8	Describe the importance of a medium for the transmission of sound waves through a variety of substances for simple applications.
	2C.M6	Describe the propagation of sound waves, including compression and rarefaction.
	2C.D5	Explain how sound waves can be applied in everyday uses.
Deadline:		
Summative feedback:		
Date assessed:		

Internal verifier's name:
Internal verifier's feedback:
Date:

If a learner has not met the Level 2 criteria, they can be assessed on the Level 1 criteria:	
1C.7	Describe, using diagrams, reflection of light in plane mirrors for simple applications.
1C.8	Describe how sound is reflected for simple applications.

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Lesson Plan 12: Investigate Electricity: Ele

Learning Aims







All students should:	Understand the meanings of common circuit symbols. Measure currents and voltages in electric circuits.
Most students should:	Calculate resistances from measured currents and voltages.
Some students should:	Analyse an everyday life situation in which the resistance is not constant.

Keywords: current, voltage, potential difference, resistance, ohmic, non-ohmic

Starter

Review of previous learning. Provide students with a table containing all the circuit symbols they know – students must fill in the name of the component each symbol represents.

Main

1. Review table of circuit symbols and discuss.
2.  Introduce 'new' circuit symbols – thermistor and LDR – and briefly discuss the function of each of these components.
3.  Discuss current, voltage and resistance (*this can be treated as revision of Science unit 3 – Energy and Our Universe, but will help with the new content*).
4.  Introduction to Ohm's law, and ohmic/non-ohmic conductors.
5.  Introduction to current–voltage graphs, and comparison of graphs for a piece of wire/resistor and a filament bulb.
6.  Current vs. Voltage experiment: Students investigate the effect of changing the current through a) a resistor, b) a filament bulb, by controlling the voltage of the power supply and using a voltmeter and ammeter to take readings. Students then plot current–voltage graphs of the relationships they find (i.e. ohmic or non-ohmic).
7.  Answer Questions 1–3 from the pack.
8. Elicit answers during the discussion.

Plenary

Discuss results of current vs. voltage experiment with students. Discuss why some components do not obey Ohm's law.

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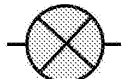
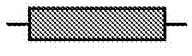


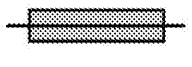
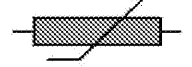
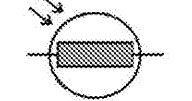
Electric Circuits

An **electric circuit** is a complete circuit of electrical components, connected by wires. **Current** flows around the circuit when **voltage** from a power supply is provided.

Electric circuits can be represented in the form of **circuit diagrams**.

Circuit Symbols

The symbols shown below are some of the most important **circuit symbols** used to represent the components of the circuit. You will need to be familiar with these symbols so that you can draw your own.

Circuit Symbol	Name of Component	Function of Component
	Battery	Pushes charge around a circuit. Current always flows from the positive terminal of the cell round to the negative terminal.
	Switch	Connects or disconnects the circuit.
	Filament lamp	Emits light when the circuit is closed.
	Resistor	Limits the current that flows through the circuit.
	Ammeter	Measures current flowing through the circuit.
	Voltmeter	Measures voltage across a component.
	Fuse	Melts and disconnects the circuit if the current is above a set amount.
	Thermistor	Varies resistance according to temperature.
	LDR (light-dependent resistor)	Varies resistance depending on the amount of light falling on it.

Current

An electric circuit is a **flow of charge** around a complete circuit. Current will only flow if there are **conductors** in the circuit – most of these are metals. The current in a circuit carries the electrical energy.

Current will only flow in a circuit if it is complete and has a power supply. If any part of the circuit is broken, there is no voltage supplied to the circuit, the current around the entire circuit will stop.

Current is measured in **amperes** (also called amps, A). The current at a particular point in a circuit is measured using an **ammeter**. The ammeter is connected in **series** at the relevant point in the circuit so that the current is passing through it in amps (A) or milliamperes (mA).

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Voltage

The **voltage** across a component is the amount of electrical **energy transferred** to **charge** that passes through it. The higher the voltage, the more energy the component receives.

The voltage of a power supply is the **work done** by the power supply on **each unit of charge** that passes around the circuit. The higher the voltage of the supply, the more energy it provides.

Voltage is measured in **volts (V)**. The voltage across one or more components in a circuit is measured by a **voltmeter**. The voltmeter is connected in **parallel** across a component and reads in **volts** or **millivolts (mV)**.

In the UK, the mains power supply in our homes provides a voltage of 230 V.

Resistance

The amount of current that flows through a component depends on the **resistance** of the component. The greater the resistance of a component, the less current is able to pass through it. Resistance is measured in **ohms (Ω)** or **kilohms (k Ω)**.

For a given voltage, the higher the resistance, the smaller the current that flows. Voltage, current and resistance are all related by **Ohm's law**:

$$V = I \times R$$

where: V is voltage, in volts (V)
 I is current, in amps (A)
 R is resistance, in ohms (Ω)

NB: This equation can be rearranged as $I = \frac{V}{R}$, to find current, or $R = \frac{V}{I}$, to find resistance.

Did you know?

When an electrician wires up a circuit in a house, they have to make sure the circuit is safe. A high current can be a fire hazard. The more current that flows in a wire, the hotter the wire gets – so they use a **resistor** in the circuit to reduce the amount of current that flows.

D

Ohm's law states that this relationship between a voltage, current and resistance only holds true at **constant temperature**. Electrical components which follow this rule are called **ohmic conductors**.

However, not all components do follow this rule. For example, a filament light bulb is a **non-ohmic conductor**. At low temperatures, but at higher temperatures its resistance increases. The current through it does not rise at the same rate as the voltage. A filament light bulb is a **non-ohmic conductor**.

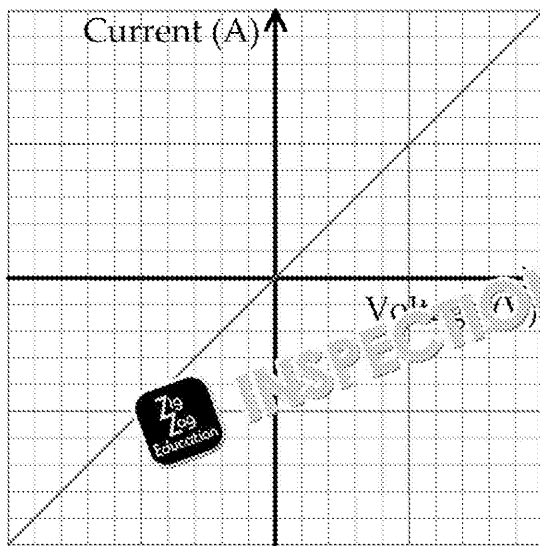
You can analyse an everyday example of a non-ohmic conductor by taking measurements of current through it for different voltage values and plotting a current–voltage graph (as shown below). A non-ohmic conductor does not follow Ohm's law, but the graph will change as the voltage increases.

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Current–Voltage Graphs

Current–voltage graphs show us how the current through a component varies with voltage.

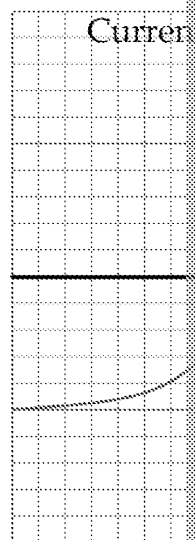


A **wire** in an electric circuit is **ohmic**, so the current–voltage graph is a straight line, showing a proportional relationship, in a current–voltage graph.

A **resistor** is also ohmic at constant temperature. A current–voltage graph also looks like this.

At low currents, a **filament bulb** is roughly ohmic. However, we can see on the graph that as the voltage is increased, the graph starts to curve because current is not increasing at the same rate. A filament bulb is a **non-ohmic** conductor.

This is because as the current through the bulb rises, the **temperature** of the filament wire rises. As the temperature rises, its **resistance** also rises – restricting the amount of current that flows.



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Electric Circuits Questions

1. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words (write each word only once).

current	filament bulb	fuses	Hooke's	non-ohmic
Ohm's	power	resistance	resistors	resistor
voltmeter				

_____ law states that at constant _____, voltage and _____ are proportional. Components which obey this rule are called _____ conductors. The _____.

Components which do not obey the rule are called _____ conductors. For non-ohmic resistors _____ through it increases, because its temperature rises.

2. a) When a current of 2.7 A passes through a bulb, its resistance is 3 Ω . Calculate the potential difference across the bulb.
 b) The current increases to 5 A; the potential difference across the bulb is now 15 V. Calculate the resistance of the bulb now?
3. Sketch the current–potential difference graphs of a) a resistor, b) a filament bulb. State whether the component is an ohmic or non-ohmic conductor, giving reasons.



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Electric Circuits Questions

1. Complete the phrases using some of the following words (words may be used more than once)

current	filament bulb	fuses	Hooke's	non-ohmic
Ohm's	power	resistance	resistors	resistor
voltmeter				

_____ law states that at constant _____, voltage and _____ are proportional. Components which obey this rule are called _____ and _____.

Components which do not obey this rule are called _____ conductors. For _____, the resistance through it increases, because its temperature _____ rises.

2. a) When a current of 2.7 A passes through a bulb, its resistance is 3 Ω. What is the potential difference across the bulb.

.....

b) The current increases to 5 A; the potential difference across the bulb is 15 V. What is the resistance of the bulb now?

.....

3. Sketch the current–potential difference graphs of a) a resistor, b) a filament bulb. State whether the component is an ohmic or non-ohmic conductor, giving reasons.

a)

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b)



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Lesson Plan 13: Investigate Electricity: Series and Parallel Circuits

Learning Aims

All students should:	Describe, using diagrams, how to build series and parallel circuits. Measure currents and voltages in series and parallel circuits.
Most students should:	Calculate resistances from measured currents and voltages in series and parallel circuits.
Some students should:	Use information about a parallel circuit to calculate current through or resistance of a particular appliance.







Keywords: current, voltage, resistance, series, parallel

NB: The section 'Series and Parallel Circuits' is also covered in the Teaching Pack Unit 3 – Energy and Power. The following section can be treated as revision to help students consolidate the new concepts being introduced.

Starter

Review of previous work. Solve problems related to current, voltage and resistance. Encourage students to discuss their solutions.

Main

-  Discuss rules of current, voltage and resistance in a series circuit.
-  Demonstration on the board using worked example in the pack for students to solve themselves.
- Elicit answers to examples during class discussion.
-  Discuss rules of current, voltage and resistance in a parallel circuit.
-  Demonstration on the board again using worked example in the pack for students to solve themselves.
- Elicit answers to examples during class discussion.
-  Investigating series and parallel circuits: Students can set up circuits in two ways of connecting two filament lamps and a resistor in a circuit. One way is connecting in series and the other in parallel. In particular students should compare the brightnesses of the lamps when connecting them both in series and parallel.
-  Solve Questions 1–5 from the pack.
- Elicit answers during class discussion.

Plenary

Properties Match: Create a list of properties of either series or parallel circuits and match them into the correct category.

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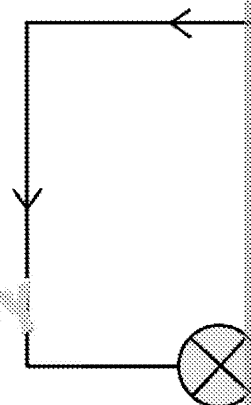


Series Circuits

These two bulbs are connected in **series**.

In a **series circuit**, all the components are linked in a single 'loop'.

Series circuits have certain rules regarding voltage, current and resistance.



In a series circuit, the same current flows through each component.

The cell pushes the same amount of charge round the circuit each second – so the same amount of charge flows through each bulb per second. This means the current is the same in each bulb and in the rest of the circuit.

In a series circuit, the total voltage provided by the supply is shared between the components.

The voltage of the **cell** is the amount of energy it transfers to each unit of charge that flows round the circuit, it transfers this energy to all the **components** in the circuit before it returns to the cell. Therefore the total energy held by each unit of charge is **shared** between the components. If one of the bulbs has a higher resistance, it will receive more of the energy and get brighter than the other bulb.

For cells connected in series, the total voltage is the sum of the voltage of each cell.

If another cell were added to this circuit alongside the first one, each unit of charge would receive energy from the first cell and then more energy from the next cell. The total amount of energy transferred to each unit of charge is the sum of the energy it receives from each individual cell. Therefore the total voltage is the sum of the voltages of the cells.

Resistance in Series Circuits

The total resistance of the circuit is the sum of the resistance of each component.

Resistance is calculated using $R = \frac{V}{I}$. Each bulb in the diagram has a **share** of the total voltage, so they must also each have a **share** of the total resistance of the circuit.

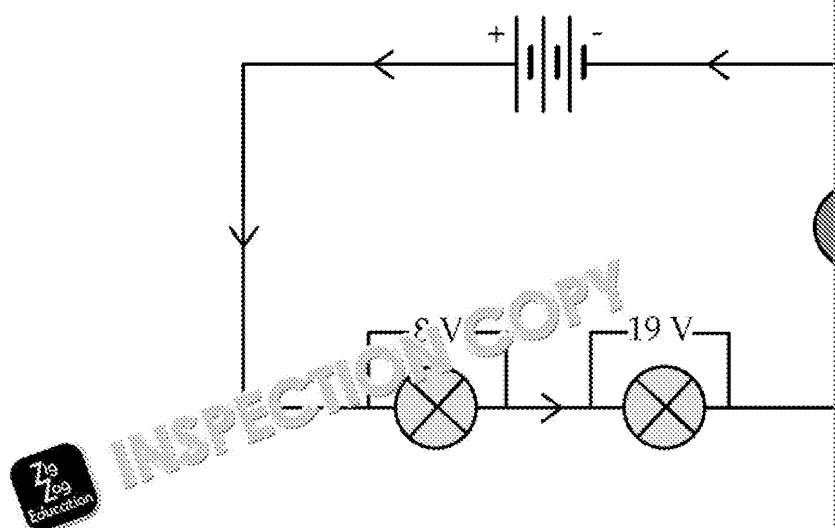
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Worked Example

An electrician sets up two bulbs in series with three identical cells as shown. The measured as 8 V and 19 V as shown. Calculate the voltage supplied by *each* cell.



- The total voltage provided by the supply is shared between the components. be equal to the sum of the voltages of the bulbs. $8\text{ V} + 19\text{ V} = 27\text{ V}$.
- The 27 V voltage is provided by 3 cells – if they are all identical, then each cell voltage – so $27\text{ V} / 3 = 9\text{ V}$.

The ammeter gives a reading of 5 A. Calculate the resistance of each bulb.

- $R = \frac{V}{I}$. We know the same current flows throughout a series circuit, so the $8\text{ V} / 5\text{ A} = 1.6\ \Omega$. The resistance of the 19 V bulb is $19\text{ V} / 5\text{ A} = 3.8\ \Omega$.

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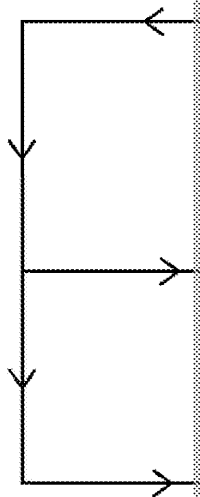
Parallel Circuits

These two bulbs have been connected to the power supply in **parallel**.

In a **parallel circuit**, different components lie on different **branches** of the circuit. The current in the circuit can travel down either branch.

Parallel circuits have certain rules regarding voltage, current and resistance – but they are different from the rules for series circuits.

*NB: If two components lie on the same branch of a parallel circuit, those two components are still **in series with each other**. The two components as a whole are in parallel with the rest of the circuit.*



In a parallel circuit, the voltage across each component in parallel is the same as the voltage across the power supply. Each unit of charge still carries the same amount of energy, regardless of which route it takes. As shown above, each unit of charge will pass through exactly one bulb – none will pass through both. Therefore, the energy transferred from each unit of charge is the same for each component in parallel.

The total current throughout the circuit is the sum of the current through each component in parallel. When the current reaches a junction, some will flow down one route and some will flow down the other. Therefore the current is split between the two routes. The amount of current that flows through each component depends on the **resistance** of that component. If the resistance of one bulb is higher than the other, more of the current will flow through the lower resistance.

If the voltage of a parallel circuit and the resistance of a component are known, you can calculate the current that will flow through that component using $I = \frac{V}{R}$.

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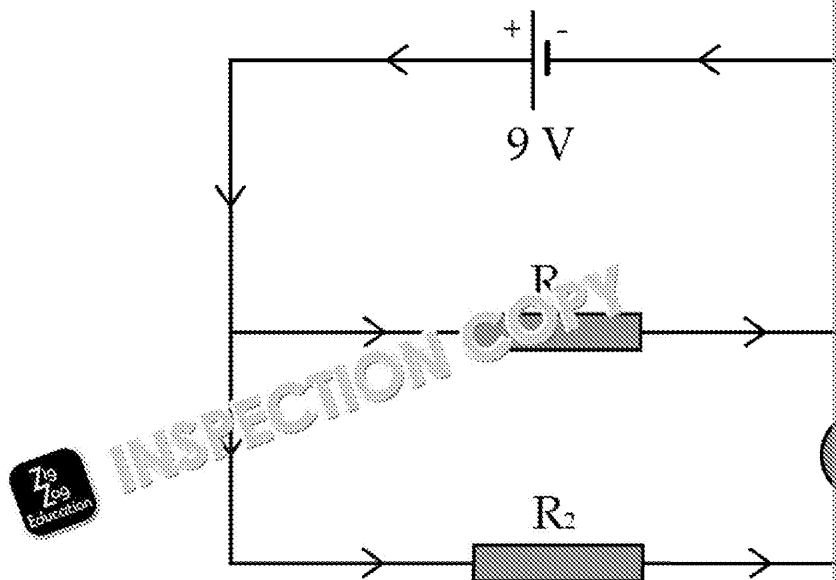
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Worked Example

Two resistors, R_1 and R_2 , are set up in parallel with a 9 V power supply as shown. The ammeter reads 5 A. Calculate the resistance of R_2 .



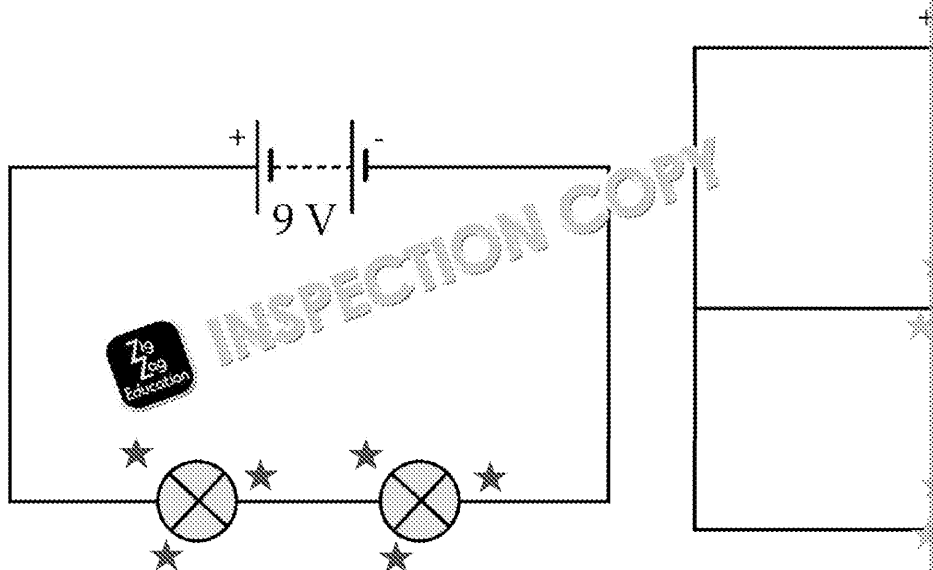
- $R = \frac{V}{I}$; we know that voltage is the same across each component as the voltage of the power supply.

$$9\text{ V} / 5\text{ A} = 1.8\ \Omega.$$

R_1 has a resistance of $18\ \Omega$. Calculate the current flowing throughout the circuit.

- Calculate current through R_1 : $I = \frac{V}{R}$; $9\text{ V} / 18\ \Omega = 0.5\text{ A}$.
- Current flowing throughout the circuit is the sum of the current through each resistor: $5\text{ A} + 0.5\text{ A} = 5.5\text{ A}$.

In a parallel circuit, each component receives the same amount of voltage that it is connected by itself in parallel. This means that a pair of filament lamps connected in parallel is **brighter** than a pair of filament lamps connected in series with the same supply.



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Series and Parallel Circuits Questions

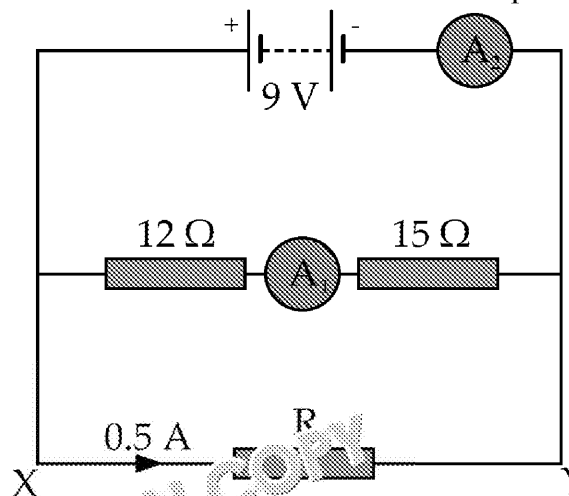
1. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words (write each word only once).

ammeter	components	current	parallel	power
series	voltage	wire		

In a _____ circuit, the current is the same at any point. The _____ is shared between the individual _____.

A _____ circuit has the same _____ across each branch of the circuit provided by the _____. The _____ in the circuit is divided between the branches that flows in each direction. This depends on the _____ of the components.

2. Draw a circuit diagram of two resistors in series with two 9 V cells.
- What is the total voltage provided by the cells?
 - One resistor has a resistance of $5\ \Omega$; the other has a resistance of $7\ \Omega$. Calculate the total resistance of the circuit?
 - The current of the circuit is $1.5\ \text{A}$. Calculate the voltage across each resistor.
3. Draw a circuit diagram of a bulb and a resistor each in parallel with a 9 V cell.
- The resistance of the bulb is $16\ \Omega$. Calculate the current through the bulb.
 - The total current in the circuit is $3.75\ \text{A}$. Calculate the resistance of the resistor.
4. Two resistors are set up in series. A third resistor, R, is added in parallel with the series combination.



- Calculate the voltage across the 12 Ω resistor.
 - The voltage across the 15 Ω resistor is 5 V. Calculate the voltage across the 12 Ω resistor.
 - Calculate the total resistance of the 12 Ω and 15 Ω resistors in series.
 - Calculate the current flowing through ammeter A_1 .
 - Calculate the current flowing through ammeter A_2 .
 - Calculate the resistance of resistor R.
5. **Group Activity:** Draw your own circuit diagrams for certain simple appliances. Explain how it is best to lay out the components (i.e. series or parallel).

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Series and Parallel Circuits Questions

1. Complete the phrases using some of the following words (words may be used more than once)

ammeter	components	current	parallel	power
series	voltage	wire		

In a _____ circuit, the current is the same at any point. The _____ the _____ is shared between the individual _____

A _____ circuit has the same _____ across each branch. _____ the amount provided by the _____ is shared between branches – the amount of current that flows in each direction depends on the number of _____ components.

2. Draw a circuit diagram of two resistors in series with two 9 V cells.

a) What is the total voltage provided by the cells?

.....

b) One resistor has a resistance of $5\ \Omega$; the other has a resistance of $7\ \Omega$. Calculate the total resistance of the circuit?

.....

c) The current of the circuit is 1.5 A. Calculate the voltage across each resistor.

.....

.....

3. Draw a circuit diagram of a bulb and a resistor each in parallel with a 12 V cell.

a) The resistance of the bulb is $16\ \Omega$. Calculate the current through the bulb.

.....

b) The total current in the circuit is 3.75 A. Calculate the resistance of the resistor.

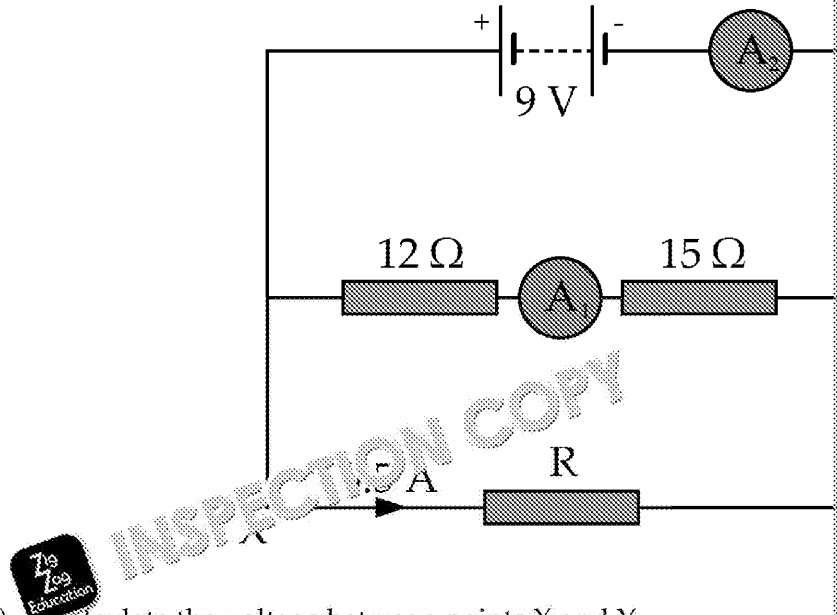
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4. Two resistors are set up in series. A third resistor, R, is added in parallel



- a) i) Calculate the voltage between points X and Y.

 ii) The voltage across the $15\ \Omega$ resistor is 5 V. Calculate the voltage across the $12\ \Omega$ resistor.

- b) i) Calculate the total resistance of the $12\ \Omega$ and $15\ \Omega$ resistors in series.

 ii) Calculate the current flowing through ammeter A_1 .

 iii) Calculate the current flowing through ammeter A_2 .

- c) Calculate the resistance of resistor R.

5. **Group Activity:** Draw your own circuit diagrams for certain simple appliances and explain how it is best to lay out the components (i.e. series or parallel).

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Lesson Plan 14: Investigate Electricity: Thermistors and LDRs

Learning Aims








All students should:	Describe the use of a thermistor or LDR for an application. Investigate an application of thermistors or LDRs.
Most students should:	Mathematically or graphically process the results from thermistors or LDRs to draw conclusions.
Some students should:	Evaluate the investigation into thermistors or LDRs and apply it to a real-life application.

Keywords: thermistor, LDR, resistance, temperature, light intensity, NTC

Starter

Review of previous lessons. Discuss with class the basic functions of a thermistor and an LDR.

Main

-  Introduction to thermistors. Explain how NTC thermistors respond to changes in temperature and that this can be used in applications.
-  Discuss applications in which a thermistor could be useful.
-  Introduction to LDRs. Explain how LDRs respond to changes in light intensity and that this can be used in applications.
-  Discuss applications in which an LDR could be useful.
-  Analyse and discuss the current–voltage profiles for thermistors and LDRs.
-  Investigation into thermistors and LDRs: Students construct a simple circuit containing an NTC thermistor and a bulb and vary its temperature to see the effect on the bulb. Repeat with an LDR, by varying its exposure to light and discuss on what this shows about the function of a thermistor and an LDR.
- Discuss results of thermistors/LDRs investigation with students. Discuss which a thermistor or LDR could be useful, based on the students' findings.
-  Answer Questions 1–6 from the main text.
- Elicit answers during class discussion.

Plenary

Text it: Pupils write to explain how thermistors or LDRs work in 160 characters.

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Thermistors and LDRs

Thermistors

A **thermistor** is a form of resistor. However, unlike an ordinary resistor, a thermistor's resistance varies with **temperature**.

A **negative temperature coefficient** (NTC) thermistor **decreases** in resistance as it allows more current to flow at higher temperatures.

NB: There are also positive temperature coefficient thermistors, which do the opposite. You will know about these for your BTEC course.

NTC thermistors can be useful in appliances which control or monitor **temperature**. The thermistor can be used to directly affect the appliance, or it can be detected by a control device which controls other parts of the appliance.

Uses of NTC Thermistors

- *Air-conditioning systems / thermostats*
When the ambient temperature in a room changes, it will affect the resistor. This change in resistance is picked up as an input signal by a control device, which alters the system accordingly.
- *Temperature monitors in cars, e.g. for oil and coolant*
Again, any change in temperature in the oil/coolant will change the resistor. This change is detected by a control device, which can give a reading for temperature or alert the driver if the temperature is too high.
- *Ambient temperature monitors, e.g. in a greenhouse or an incubator*
These work in a similar way to ordinary thermostats – a change in ambient temperature is detected by the resistance of the thermistor and a control device can interpret this change to turn a heater on or a monitor.

LDRs

Another form of resistor is an **LDR** (light-dependent resistor). An LDR is designed so that its resistance varies with **light intensity**.

The resistance of an LDR **decreases** as light intensity **increases** – allowing more current to flow when it is more exposed to light.

LDRs are found in many everyday applications where you need to control or monitor brightness of **light**. Like a thermistor, the change in resistance of the LDR can be used either to directly affect the function of the appliance, or as an **input signal** to a control device.

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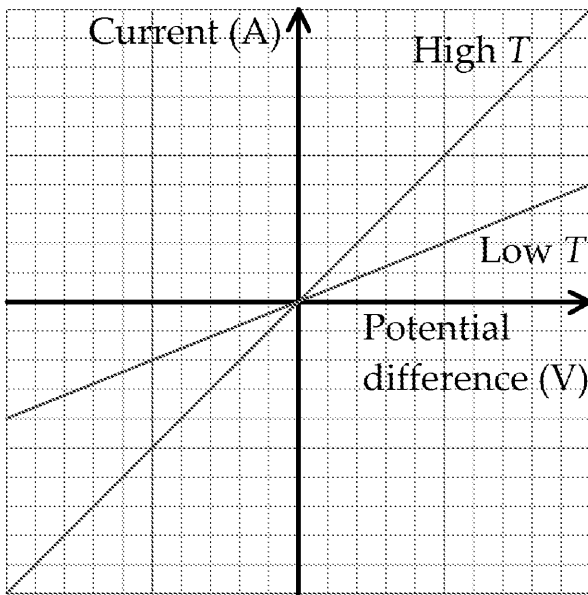


Uses of LDRs

- *Street lighting*
As light intensity drops, the LDR's resistance increases; at a certain point, this will trigger a circuit to switch the street lamp on. When the light intensity rises, the resistance will drop again and the control device will switch the lamp back off.
- *Burglar alarms*
Some alarms can be placed in lit areas, where if a shadow is cast by a burglar, the light intensity changes. This changes the resistance of the LDR, which sends a signal to the alarm.
- *Camera light meters*
The light meter can use the resistance of the LDR as a measure of the light intensity being taken. A control device interprets this as a measurement for the camera.
- *Solar lighting, e.g. in gardens and in road studs*
These work in the same way as street lighting.

Current–voltage graphs for Thermistors and LDRs

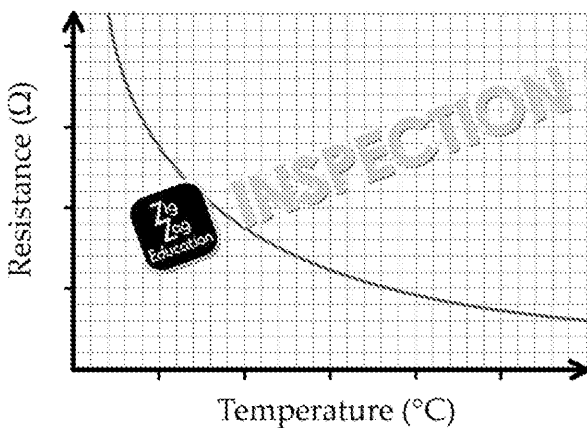
Thermistors and LDRs are both forms of **resistor** and so they are both **ohmic** components. At a constant temperature, the current flowing through them is **directly proportional** to the potential difference. Their current–voltage graphs both show a straight line through the origin.



Thermistors drop in resistance as temperature increases – so the higher the temperature, the more current flows through them.

The graph shows how the current is affected by a high temperature. More current flows at high temperatures. Current **increases** as temperature increases.

The lower the temperature, the less current flows through and so the resistance is higher.



This graph is an easier way of showing how resistance changes with increasing temperature on a thermistor.

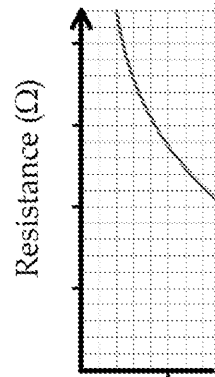
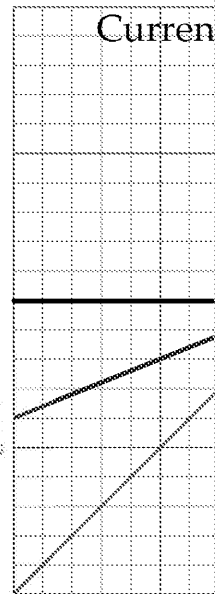
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LDRs drop in resistance as the intensity of light they are exposed to increases – so the brighter the light that falls on them, the more current flows.

The graph shows how the current through an LDR is affected by brighter light compared with dimmer light. More current flows when the LDR is more exposed to light, so the **gradient increases** as light intensity increases.

The dimmer the light intensity, the less current the LDR lets through and so the **more effective** it is.



This graph is an easier way of showing the effect of increasing light intensity on the resistance of an LDR.



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D

How to Evaluate an Investigation into Thermistors or LDRs

For your assignment you will need to draw conclusions from an investigation into thermistors or LDRs work. From these conclusions, you should be able to describe which a thermistor or LDR could be used. In each case, you will need to justify your choice, which could be useful based on what you have found from your own work.

For example, the resistance of a thermistor depends on heat – your explanation of the relationship is, and from this you should be able to think of some practical applications of heat that you could use the thermistor for, and suggest improvements.



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Thermistors and LDRs Questions

1. Copy and complete the phrases using some of the following words:

current	higher	less	light intensity	tem
negative	positive	resistance	resistor	
voltage				

The _____ of a _____ varies with temperature. If it has a _____ resistance will fall as its _____ rises, allowing more _____ to flow.

An LDR is also a form of _____. Its resistance varies with _____. When exposed to light, the _____ its resistance and so the _____ current can flow.

2. What do the terms a) PTC, b) LDR, c) NTC stand for?
3. List three applications which use thermistors. For each one, explain why it is an important part of the application.
4. List four applications which use LDRs. For each one, explain why an LDR is used in the application.
5. a) Sketch and label a current–voltage graph for a thermistor at a high temperature. Explain what the graph shows.
b) On a new set of axes, sketch a current–voltage graph for an LDR at a high light intensity. Again, explain what the graph shows.
6. **Group Activity:** Discuss the types of applications which may benefit from the use of LDRs. Can you think of any new ideas that they might be useful in?

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Thermistors and LDRs Questions

1. Complete the phrases using some of the following words:

current	higher	less	light intensity	tem
negative	positive	resistance	resistor	
voltage				

The _____ of a _____ varies with temperature. If it has a coefficient, its resistance will fall as its _____ rises, allowing mo

An LDR is also a form of _____. Its resistance varies with _____. It is exposed to, the _____ resistance, and so the _____

2. What do the terms a) LDR, b) NTC stand for?

- a)
- b)

3. List three applications which use thermistors. For each one, explain why an important part of the application.

- 1
- 2
- 3

4. List four applications which use LDRs. For each one, explain why an the application.

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4

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5. a) Sketch and label a current–voltage graph for a thermistor at a high temperature. Explain what the graph shows.

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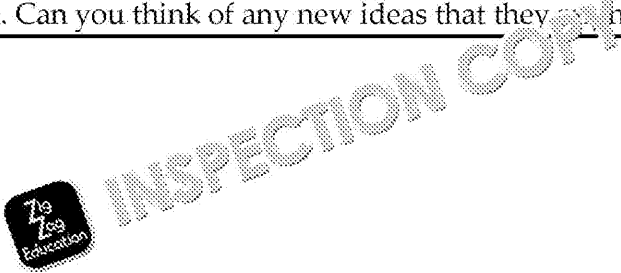
b) On a new set of axes, sketch a current–voltage graph for an LDR at a low light intensity. Again, explain what the graph shows.

.....

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6. **Group Activity:** Discuss the types of applications which may benefit from LDRs. Can you think of any new ideas that they might be useful in?



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Assignment D: Electric Circuits, Thermistors and LDRs

Learner's name:

Start date:

Deadline:

Date:

Electric Circuits, Thermistors and LDRs

Scenario

You are working for a company that produces electronic components for use in toys. You have been given the job of designing a circuit that uses thermistors and LDRs. Your first task today is to check the circuits that run inside a particular product. A particular product requires three light bulbs – you have been given the job of designing both series and parallel circuits and compiling a report.

Your manager then asks you to compile a report on either a thermistor or an LDR. The report must include a description of exactly how the thermistor responds to light intensity along with a number of suggestions for application in toys. You must also include a number of suggestions for applications which could be improved.

Task 1

1. Draw two circuit diagrams – one showing how you would set these bulbs up in series and one showing how you would set them up in parallel. Build these circuits to test them. *You could include photos of your circuits in your report as well.*
2. Put together 'test cards' for each of the circuits, showing the current and voltage through each component of the circuit. Test whether these values are consistent with your calculations.
3. Use your current and voltage values to work out the resistance of each component. *Show the formulae you use and remember to give units.*
4. Explain what a non-ohmic conductor is and explain why the filament bulb is non-ohmic. *To do this you will have to measure the current through one of the bulbs at different voltages. Plot a voltage-current graph for your bulb and use your graph to find out its resistance. Describe the effect this will have on the function of the toys.*

Task 2

1. Introduce your report with a description of the basic function of your component in an application.
2. With your teacher's guidance, set up an electronic circuit which allows you to measure the current and voltage across your component. Take readings at a wide range of temperatures and light intensities (for an LDR) to generate data on the effectiveness of the component.
3. Use your data to make a graph showing how temperature/light intensity affects the resistance. Explain what your graph shows. *If time allows, you could compare several different components and use your graph to suggest the best for a particular application.*
4. Conclude your report by summarising what your experiment has shown. Use your graph to explain how a real life application using thermistors or LDRs could be improved.

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Learner's name:	Start Date:
Learner's declaration: I certify that the work submitted for this assignment is my own. I have clearly referred to sources of information and used my own work. I understand that false declaration is a form of malpractice.	
Learner's Signature:	Date:
Learner's comments for the assessor:	

Teacher's/assessor's name:	
Marking Criteria	
Task:	Criteria learner must:
1	2D.P5 Measure currents and voltages in series and parallel circuits.
	2D.M7 Calculate resistances from measured currents and voltages.
	2D.D6 Analyse an everyday life situation in which the resistance of a conducting wire is not constant.
2	2D.P10 Investigate an application of thermistors or LDRs using primary data.
	2D.M8 Mathematically or graphically process the results of the investigation into thermistors or LDRs to draw conclusions.
	2D.D7 Evaluate the investigation into thermistors or LDRs, suggesting improvements to a real-life application.
Deadline:	
Summative feedback:	
Date assessed:	

Internal verifier's name:
Internal verifier's feedback:
Date:

If a learner has not met the 2 criteria, they can be assessed on the Level	
1D.9	Describe using diagrams, how to build series and parallel circuits.
1D.10	Describe the use of a thermistor or LDR for an application.

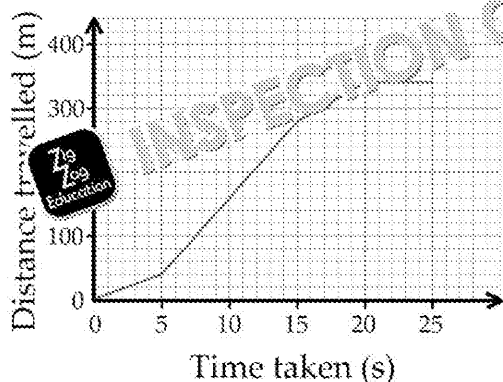
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Answers to Questions

Lesson Plan 1: Speed and Velocity

- Distance only has a size; displacement has both size and direction (distance is a scalar, displacement is a vector).
- Velocity** is speed in a given **direction**. It is the rate of change of **displacement** (not distance). The **gradient** of a distance–time graph represents speed. An object is **stationary** if the distance does not change.
- Distance = speed \times time = 5 m/s \times 30 s = 150 m
- Speed = distance / time = 250 m / 100 s = 2.5 m/s
- Distance = speed \times time; time = distance / speed = 80 m / 5 m/s = 16 s
- Speed = distance / time (or gradient of line) = 8 m / 6 s = 1.33 m/s (to 2 d.p.)
- a)



- Speed = distance / time (or gradient of line) = (280 – 40) / (15 – 5) = 240 / 10 = 24 m/s
- The car is stationary.

Lesson Plan 2: Acceleration

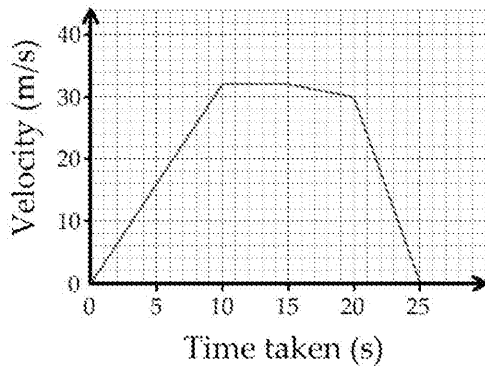
- Acceleration is the rate of change of **velocity**. An object is **accelerating** if it speeds up or changes **direction**. If the acceleration of an object is **negative**, it can be described as **decelerating**. The **gradient** of a velocity–time graph represents **acceleration** and the area under the graph represents **distance**.
- It is accelerating from rest, with constant acceleration.
 - It is moving at constant velocity
 - It is decelerating to a stop, with constant deceleration.
- $a = \frac{v-u}{t}$ (or gradient of line) = (6 – 0) / 12 = 0.5 m/s²
 - $a = \frac{v-u}{t}$ (or gradient of line) = (0 – 4) / 4 = - 1 m/s², or deceleration of 1 m/s²
 - Distance travelled = area under line.
Solid-line car: area = (0.5 \times 12 \times 6) + (5 \times 6) + (0.5 \times 3 \times 6) = 36 + 30 + 24 = 90 m
Dotted-line car: area = (0.5 \times 5 \times 4) + (5 \times 4) + (0.5 \times 4 \times 4) = 10 + 72 + 8 = 90 m
Both cars travelled the same distance.
- $a = \frac{v-u}{t}$ (or gradient of line) = (4 – 0) / 2 = 2 m/s²
 - At 0 seconds – until this point it is travelling at a steady speed while at this point its speed dramatically increases.
 - Sharp acceleration – the rollercoaster is probably rolling down a steep slope.
 - Distance travelled = area under graph
Area = (0.5 \times 2 \times 4) + (8 \times 4) + [(5 \times 4) + (0.5 \times 5 \times 30)] + [(5 \times 26) + (0.5 \times 5 \times 26)]
Area = 4 + 32 + [20 + 75] + [130 + 20] = 281 m
 - Average speed = distance / time = 281 / 20 = 14.05 m/s

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5. a)



- b) The car is travelling at constant velocity.
 c) The car is decelerating to a stop, with constant deceleration
 d) $a = \frac{v-u}{t}$ (or gradient of line) $= (32-0) / 10 = 3.2 \text{ m/s}^2$
 e) Distance = area under line
 $= (0.5 \times 10 \times 32) + (5 \times 32) + ((5 \times 30) + (0.5 \times 5 \times 2)) + (0.5 \times 5 \times 30)$
 $= 160 + 155 + 75 = 550 \text{ m}$

Lesson Plan 3: Conservation of Energy

- a) Input: electrical energy Output: heat and sound energy
 b) Input: kinetic energy Output: sound energy
 c) Input: electrical energy Output: light and heat energy
 d) Input: gravitational potential energy Output: kinetic energy
- Energy cannot be **created** or **destroyed**; it can only be **transferred** or **converted**.
 Energy processes transfer **useful** energy, which is in the form we want, but some is usually lost as **heat** or **sound** lost to the surroundings.
 process is always **equal** to the total energy output.
- $K.E. = \frac{1}{2} \times m \times v^2$; $v^2 = \frac{2K.E.}{m} = (2 \times 900,000) / 2,000 = 900$ $v = 30 \text{ m/s}$
- a) $80 \text{ J} \times 80\% = 64 \text{ J}$
 b) It is lost to the surroundings as heat and a small amount of sound energy
 c) $K.E. = \frac{1}{2} \times m \times v^2$; $m = \frac{2K.E.}{v^2} = (2 \times 64) / (16^2) = 128 / 256 = 0.5 \text{ kg}$
- a) $P.E. = m \times g \times h = 75 \times 10 \times 500 = 375,000 \text{ J} (375 \text{ kJ})$
 b) $K.E. = \frac{1}{2} \times m \times v^2$; $v^2 = \frac{2K.E.}{m} = (2 \times 375,000) / 75 = 10,000$ $v = 100 \text{ m/s}$



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Lesson Plan 4: Energy and Braking

- When a vehicle brakes, its **kinetic energy** is converted into **heat** and **sound** energy. When travelling, the more **work** needs to be done to stop it over a certain **distance**. The **stopping distance** of a vehicle is the sum of the thinking distance and braking distance. **Drugs** affect the **thinking distance**, while the condition of the road, **tyres** and **brakes** affect the **braking distance**. The greater the **speed** of a vehicle, the greater both distances will be.
- Distance = speed \times time = 30 m/s \times 2 s = 60 m
 - Thinking distance
 - Stopping distance = thinking distance + braking distance = 60 m + 35 m = 95 m
 - Travelled at a slower speed
- Alcohol/drugs – slow down a driver's reaction time, increasing thinking distance. Distractions, e.g. phone or radio – distract driver, increasing thinking distance. Visibility – poor weather conditions can make it harder for the driver to see, increasing thinking distance.
 - Road conditions – wet or icy roads, or poorly maintained roads, carry a danger of skidding, increasing braking distance.
Brakes – worn brakes are less effective at slowing the vehicle down, increasing braking distance.
Tyre condition – worn tyres do not grip the road as well, so the vehicle will skid, increasing braking distance.

Lesson Plan 5: Resultant Forces

- Every action has an equal and **opposite** reaction. A body resting on a table experiences a **reaction force** from the table in response.
A **resultant force** is a single force with the same effect as all the forces acting on an object. If an object is in **equilibrium**; if it is **stationary** it remains so, and if it is moving it remains at the same speed. A non-zero resultant force causes an **acceleration** in the direction of the force.
- The book is at rest, so the reaction force must be equal and opposite to the weight.
Reaction force = 5 N.
- $F = m \times a = 1,000 \text{ kg} \times 5 \text{ m/s}^2 = 5,000 \text{ N}$
- $a = \frac{v - u}{t} = (13 - 3) / 5 = 2 \text{ m/s}^2$
 - $F = m \times a$; $m = F / a = 50 \text{ N} / 2 \text{ m/s}^2 = 25 \text{ kg}$
- $F = m \times a = 4 \text{ kg} \times 8 \text{ m/s}^2 = 32 \text{ N}$.
 - $W = m \times g = 4 \text{ kg} \times 10 \text{ N/kg} = 40 \text{ N}$.
 - 40 N – 32 N = 8 N.

Lesson Plan 6: Forces and Work

- When a **force** moves an object, it does **work** on the object. The greater the force, the more work is done.
A **compressive** force does work to squish the shape of an object; a **tensile** force does work to stretch the shape of an object. If the object is a spring, we store this as **elastic potential energy**, which can be used to return the object to its original shape once the force is removed.
- $F = m \times g = 20 \text{ kg} \times 10 \text{ N/kg} \times 1.5 \text{ m} = 300 \text{ J}$
 - Work done = energy transferred. So, the weight lifter has done 300 J of work.
 - $K.E. = \frac{1}{2} \times m \times v^2$; $v^2 = \frac{2K.E.}{m} = (2 \times 300) / 20 = 30$ $v = 5.48 \text{ m/s}$
- Tensile force
 - Elastic potential energy
 - $K.E. = \frac{1}{2} \times m \times v^2$; $v^2 = \frac{2K.E.}{m} = (2 \times 30) / 0.2 = 300$ $v = 17.32 \text{ m/s}$ (approx)
 - Not all the elastic potential energy would be transferred to the rock; some would be lost as heat and sound to the surroundings.

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Lesson Plan 7: Resistive Forces

- Friction is a **resistive** force which **opposes** motion. In fluids it is more common, in air it is usually called **air resistance**.
Up to a point, friction matches the **force** applied to an object – this is known as **static friction**.
Beyond this point, **kinetic friction** occurs.
A falling object reaches **terminal velocity** when its **weight** is balanced by resistive forces.
- Friction and the normal reaction force are both resistive forces which only act perpendicular to the surface. They both act against the force applied to oppose motion.
- $W = m \times g = (75 \text{ kg} + 25 \text{ kg}) \times 10 \text{ N/kg} = 1,000 \text{ N}$
 - At terminal velocity, forces are balanced so air resistance = 1,000 N
- When a force is applied to push an object across a surface, at first the friction force and the object will not move – this is static friction.
If the applied force is increased above a certain limit, the applied force will be greater than the friction force and the object will start to move. The friction experienced during its motion is kinetic friction.
- An object falling through a fluid accelerates due to the weight of the object. This is opposed by an increasing upward resistive force known as the drag force. The point at which the drag force equals the object's weight. At this point the object reaches a steady speed known as the terminal velocity.

Lesson Plan 8: Reflection of Light and Sound

- Light** travels in straight lines. When it is **reflected**, the angle of **incidence** is equal to the angle of **reflection**. A **plane mirror** is a flat surface designed for **reflection** of light.
Sound waves can also be reflected – this is known as an **echo**. Bats use **ultrasound** to navigate their surroundings, while ships and submarines use it in a technique called **sonar**.

2.

Angle of incidence	Angle of reflection
30°	30°
45°	45°
90°	90°

- Virtual – the source of the light rays appears to be behind the mirror, although it is not.
Upright – the image is formed the right way up, not upside down.
Laterally inverted – the left and right sides of the image are reversed.
 - The image in a concave mirror would be upside down.
- Rear-view mirrors** in cars give the driver a view of what is happening behind them. They are useful for this purpose because they provide a wider field of view – but they are convex mirrors, not plane mirrors which provide an accurate image.
Mirrors are also used at **road junctions** where a driver might not have full view. A convex mirror can provide a wide view of the junction from a different angle, showing approaching vehicles.
Reflecting telescopes use mirrors to focus an image of a distant object. They are used in astronomy, since they tend to be more accurate than refracting telescopes.
- Distance = speed \times time = $2 \text{ m/s} \times 3.75 \text{ s} = 7,500 \text{ m}$
The obstacle is half of this distance away – 3,750 m

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Lesson Plan 9: Refraction of Light

1. **Refraction** occurs when a wave passes from one medium into another. The wave tends to change **direction**.
If the wave is passing from a **denser** medium to a **less dense** one, it will be pulled up to a **critical angle** where the whole wave is deflected along the **boundary**. **Total internal reflection** occurs at the boundary.
2. When the wave travels along the normal, perpendicular to the boundary.
3. a) Total internal reflection is used to send light along optical fibres. This allows light to travel through a narrow incision into a patient's body and receive images from exactly what they are doing on a monitor.
b) Road safety reflectors contain a series of prisms, which are designed to reflect light back to the source using total internal reflection.

Lesson Plan 10: Lenses and the Eye

1. **Convex** lenses refract light rays so that they converge. They are used to correct **long sight**. Concave lenses refract light rays so that they **diverge**, and are used to correct **short sight**. The power of a lens is increased by using a more **refractive** material, or by making the shape more curved.
2. The eyeball being too long, or the focusing power of the lens being too great.
3. Using a more refractive material, or increasing the curvature.
4. **Short sight** (or myopia) occurs when the eyeball is too long, or when the focusing power of the lens is too great. This causes images of distant objects to focus slightly in front of the retina. Short sight is treated by placing a concave lens in front of the eye to correct the extra focusing power of the eye's own lens and focuses distant images on the retina. **Long sight** occurs when the eyeball is too short, or when the focusing power of the lens is too small. This causes images of close objects to focus slightly behind the retina, meaning they are out of focus. Long sight is treated by placing a convex lens in front of the eye to correct the divergence of the rays from the near object. This causes the image to focus on the retina.

Lesson Plan 11: Sound Waves

1. Sound waves are **longitudinal**; they travel by creating areas of compression and rarefaction in a medium. Sound waves cannot travel in a **vacuum**.
The higher the **amplitude** of a sound wave, the higher its volume. The higher the **pitch** of the sound.
2. $v = f \times \lambda = 50 \text{ Hz} \times 7 \text{ m} = 350 \text{ m/s}$
3. $v = f \times \lambda$; $f = v / \lambda = 340 / 0.17 = 2000 \text{ Hz}$
4. The sound will be very quiet and high-pitched.
5. The molecules in water are much closer together than in air, so they can pass on vibrations more easily.
6. **Sonar** is used by ships and submarines to send pulses of sound which reflect off objects and return to the ship. This allows them to determine the positions of these objects around them.
Prenatal scans of unborn babies are done using ultrasound. The echoes of ultrasound waves off internal boundaries are detected and put together to form an image inside the body of the baby.
Kidney stones can be broken up using ultrasound. High-energy waves of ultrasound can be directed at a kidney stone, causing it to vibrate strongly enough to break up into smaller fragments. These fragments are then small enough to exit the kidney by themselves.
Voice recognition is used by police and forensics analysts to identify a person. Each person's voice has a unique frequency spectrum (range of sound frequencies). The police can use computer software to match a voice (e.g. in a telephone call) to a signature.

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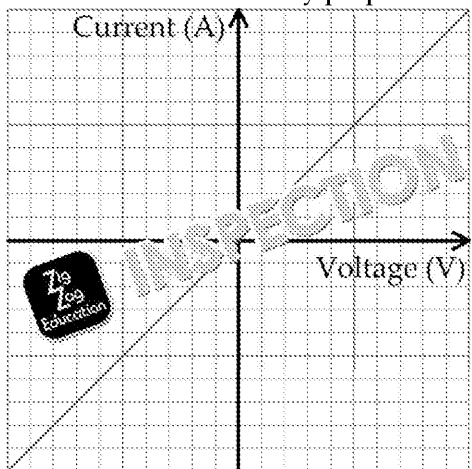
Lesson Plan 12: Electric Circuits

1. Ohm's law states that at constant temperature, voltage and current are directly proportional. Components which obey this rule are called **ohmic** conductors. These include wires and resistors. Components which do not obey the rule are called **non-ohmic** conductors. A component is called non-ohmic as current through it increases, because its temperature rises and its resistance increases.

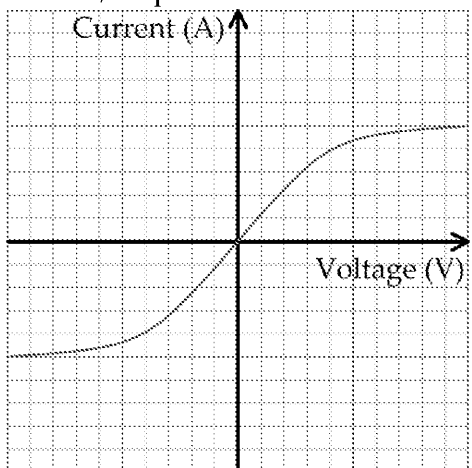
2. a) $V = I \times R = 2.7 \text{ A} \times 3 \Omega = 8.1 \text{ V}$

b) $R = \frac{V}{I} = 22 \text{ V} / 5 \text{ A} = 4.4 \Omega$

3. a) Ohmic – current is directly proportional to voltage.



b) Non-ohmic – line curves as current rises, due to the increase in resistance with current/temperatures.



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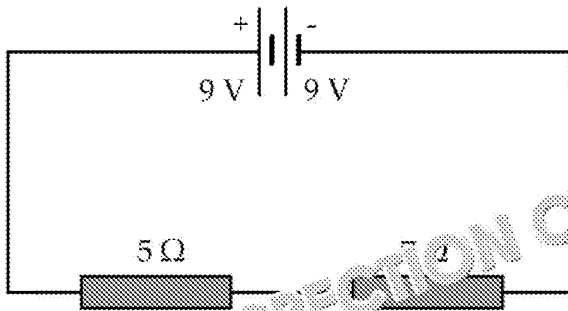


Lesson Plan 13: Series and Parallel Circuits

1. In a series circuit, the current is the same at any point. The voltage provided between the individual components.

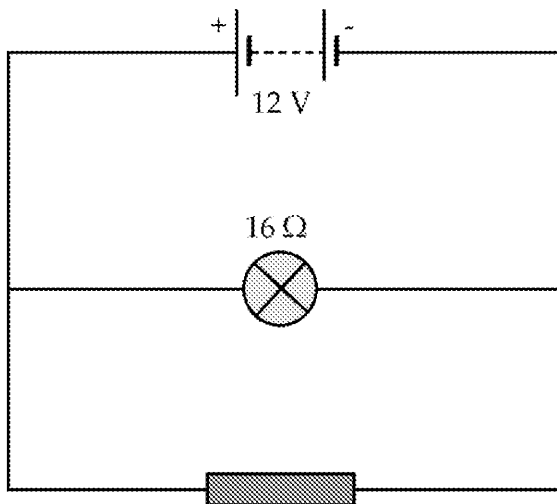
A parallel circuit has the same voltage across each branch of the circuit – equal power supply. The current in the circuit is divided between branches – the direction depends on the resistance of the components.

2.



- a) $9\text{ V} = 1.5\text{ A} \times 12\text{ }\Omega$
 b) $5\text{ }\Omega + 7\text{ }\Omega = 12\text{ }\Omega$
 c) $V = I \times R$
 5 Ω resistor: $V = 1.5\text{ A} \times 5\text{ }\Omega = 7.5\text{ V}$
 7 Ω resistor: $V = 1.5\text{ A} \times 7\text{ }\Omega = 10.5\text{ V}$

3.



- a) $I = \frac{V}{R} = 12\text{ V} / 16\text{ }\Omega = 0.75\text{ A}$
 b) Current through resistor = $3.75\text{ A} - 0.75\text{ A} = 3\text{ A}$
 $R = \frac{V}{I} = 12\text{ V} / 3\text{ A} = 4\text{ }\Omega$

4. a) i) $V = 9\text{ V}$
 ii) $V = 9\text{ V}$
 b) i) $9\text{ V} + 15\text{ }\Omega = 27\text{ }\Omega$
 ii) $I = \frac{V}{R} = 9\text{ V} / 27\text{ }\Omega = 0.33\text{ A}$ (to 2 d.p.)
 iii) $I = 0.33\text{ A} + 0.5\text{ A} = 0.83\text{ A}$
 c) $R = \frac{V}{I} = 9\text{ V} / 0.5\text{ A} = 18\text{ }\Omega$

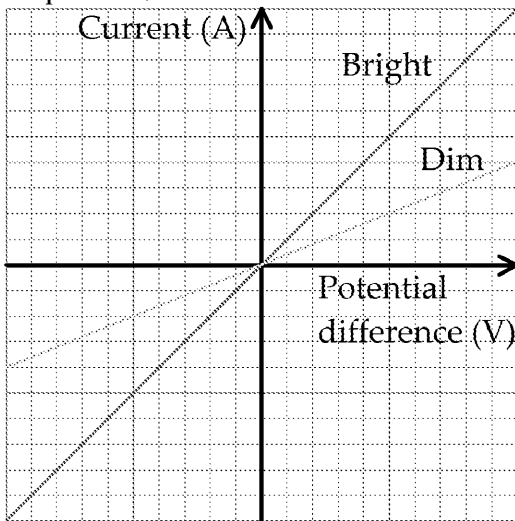
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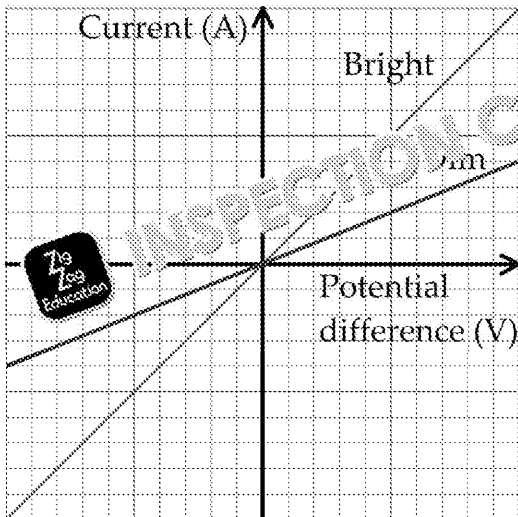


Lesson Plan 14: Thermistors and LDRs

1. The **resistance** of a **thermistor** varies with temperature. If it has a **negative** temperature coefficient, its resistance will fall as its **temperature** rises, allowing more **current** to flow.
An LDR is also a form of **resistor**. Its resistance varies with **light intensity**. The brighter the light, the **lower** its resistance and so the **more** current can flow through it.
2. a) LDR – light-dependent resistor
b) NTC – negative temperature coefficient
3. **Air conditioning systems / thermostats** – the resistance of a thermistor will vary with temperature and this can be sent as an input signal to a control device which controls the air conditioning.
Temperature monitors in cars, e.g. for oil and coolant – again, the resistance of the thermistor tells the control device what the temperature of each fluid is.
Ambient temperature monitors, e.g. in a greenhouse or an incubator – similar to air conditioning systems.
4. **Street lighting** – once the resistance of an LDR reaches a certain amount, a control device switches the lights on.
Burglar alarms – if a moving object casts a shadow in a well-lit area, the LDR resistance will tell the control device to set off the alarm.
Camera light meters – the resistance of the LDR can send an input signal to a control device to tell the user how bright the light is.
Solar lighting, e.g. in gardens and in road studs – similar to street lighting.
5. a) Current and voltage are proportional, so the thermistor is ohmic. More current flows at a higher temperature, so resistance of thermistor must decrease as temperature rises.



- b) Current and voltage are proportional, so the LDR is ohmic. More current flows at a higher light intensity, so resistance of LDR must decrease as intensity rises.



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