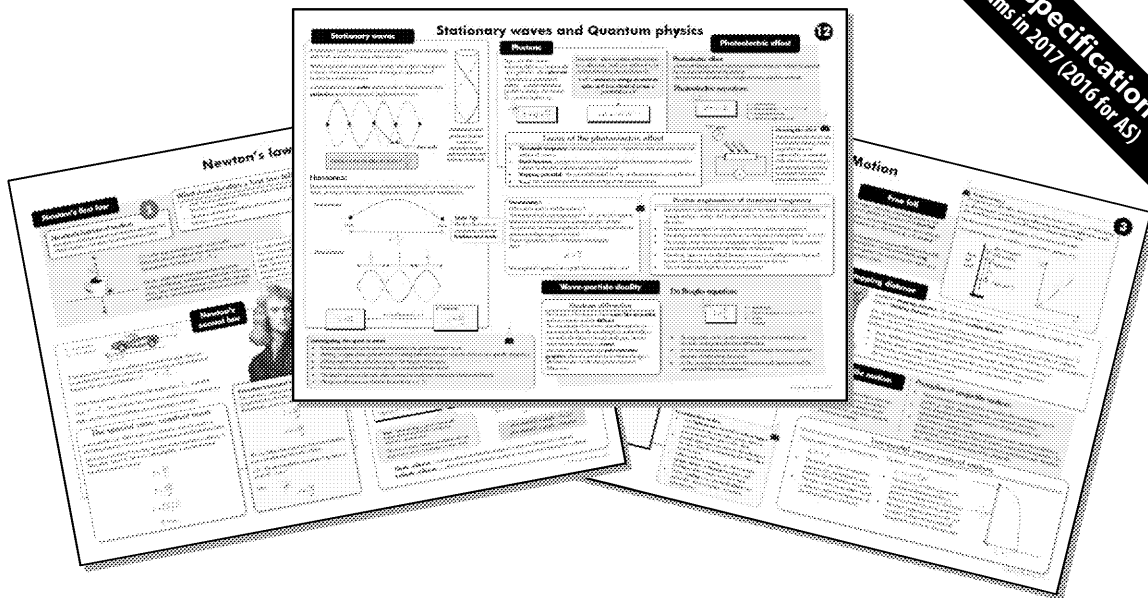


2015 specification  
first exams in 2017 (2016 for AS)



# Topic on a Page

For AS / A Level Year 1 OCR A Physics

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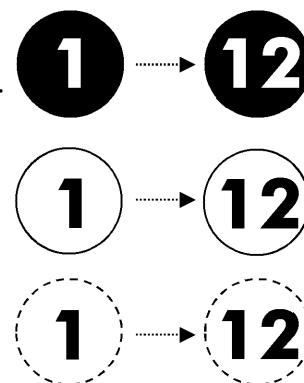
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# Teacher's Introduction

This Topic-on-a-page resource has been designed to help your students revise the key points of each topic and test their knowledge after you have taught each section of the **OCR A AS / A Level Year 1 Physics** specification. Each page is closely tied to the OCR A specification, ensuring all aspects of the course are covered. Activity pages are designed to be complementary to OCR A Topic Tests, so students won't be repeating the same questions.

There are four sections to this resource, each with its own features:

1. **Topic-on-a-page sheets:** these are the main pages which intend to clearly consolidate and recap all the key information from Year 1 of the OCR A Physics course.
2. **Activity pages:** these are identical to the Topic-on-a-page sheets, but contain a variety of tasks, from filling in missing words to performing calculations. The activity pages aim to ensure the student understands all the key knowledge required of them and gives them the opportunity to demonstrate how well they have remembered and understood the content of the course.
3. **Outline-only pages:** these are the Topic-on-a-page sheets, but with most of the content removed. Students can research the topics, e.g. for homework, and fill in as much information as they can.
4. **Mark scheme:** full answers for the activity pages.



The 'topic-on-a page', 'activity' and 'outline-only' sheets are designed to be A3 size, although they are still useable at A4 with no loss of detail. When photocopying activity pages on A3, we suggest photocopying the relevant worksheet on the reverse. If using at A4 size, we suggest photocopying each A3 'worksheet' (for writing answers) as a double-sided A4 page to avoid shrinking the space available for answers.

Each page presents information in a variety of ways, including:

- **Bold key words** – essential terminology in bold, allowing students to skim and revise main points quickly.
- **Bullet point processes** – complex processes and lists have been summarised into quick, easy-to-learn points.
- **Graphs** – sketch graphs illustrate complex points without providing unnecessary information.
- **Comparison tables** – a quick way of comparing key features of different structures, features or organisms.
- **Method and calculation boxes** – concisely state the equations used in required calculations.
- **Exam tips** – aid memorisation, revision and exam technique in areas where students typically struggle.

In addition, key practicals have been marked with a  and equations on the data sheet are marked with a .

We hope you find these pages useful during your teaching and your students' revision.

*T Brown, December 2017*

## Free Updates!

Register your email address to receive any future free updates\* made to this resource or other Physics resources your school has purchased, and details of any promotions for your subject.

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

Go to [zzed.uk/freeupdates](http://zzed.uk/freeupdates)

# Units and measure

## SI base units

**SI (international system) base units:**  
A set of units of measure. They are defined as a fundamental set from which all other SI units can be derived.

### Switching between units

Some units are equivalent. We switch between them by multiplying or dividing by the conversion factor. For example:

$$1 \text{ eV} = 1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

$$1 \text{ u} = 1.661 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$$

$$1 \text{ kWh} = 3.6 \times 10^6 \text{ J}$$

$$1 \text{ ly} = 9.46 \times 10^{15} \text{ m}$$

### Example

- a) Convert 13.2 eV to J.  
b) Convert 49 J to eV.
- a) To convert eV to J, multiply by  $1.6 \times 10^{-19}$   
 $13.2 \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19} = 2.1 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J}$
- b) To convert J to eV, divide by  $1.6 \times 10^{-19}$   
 $\frac{49}{1.6 \times 10^{-19}} = 3.1 \times 10^{20} \text{ eV}$

*A useful hint for remembering when to divide or multiply to convert units is to consider whether the number is getting bigger or smaller – 1 eV is a very small number of J, so the number needs to decrease as it's converted. 1 J is a lot of eV so the conversion should make the number bigger.*

## Derived units

Combining SI units can give the units for other quantities.

For example, velocity is measured in  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ , which uses both metres and seconds.

Some derived units have a special name, such as Newton, N, which is equivalent to  $\text{kg m s}^{-2}$ .

## Checking equations using units

The units of an equation should be the same on both sides – they should be homogenous. This means we can check whether an equation is correct by checking the units.

Gravitational potential energy is given by

$$E = mgh$$

The units of current,  $E$ , are [J] or  $[\text{kg m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}]$ .

The units of the right-hand side of the equation,  $mgh$ , are:

$$[\text{kg}] \times [\text{m s}^{-2}] \times [\text{m}]$$

$$= [\text{kg}] \times [\text{m} \times \text{m}] \times [\text{s}^{-2}]$$

$$= [\text{kg m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}] = [\text{J}]$$

The two sides of the equation have the same units, so the equation is homogenous!

## Quantities and their SI base units

Physical quantity	Base unit	Symbol
Amount of substance	mol	mol
Temperature	Kelvin	K
Length	metre	m
Time	second	s
Mass	kilogram	kg
Current	ampere	A

## Estimation

### Estimation:

A method of determining the value of a quantity without any given variables using educated guessing of the variables, usually to the power of 10.

You will be expected to estimate quantities like those in the table. You will use them within equations to make educated estimates of the values of other physical quantities.

## Table of estimates

Physical quantity	Estimate
Mass of average man	60 kg
Speed of sound	300 $\text{m s}^{-1}$
Height of average man	1.6 m
Mass of a car	1000 kg
Density of water	1000 $\text{kg m}^{-3}$
Pressure of atmosphere	100 000 Pa

## Prefixes

### SI prefix:

A symbol that precedes a unit of measure to indicate an order of magnitude.

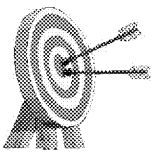
## Prefixes and their orders of magnitude

Prefix	Prefix symbol	Order of magnitude
tera	T	$\times 10^{12}$
giga	G	$\times 10^9$
mega	M	$\times 10^6$
kilo	k	$\times 10^3$
deci	d	$\times 10^{-1}$
centi	c	$\times 10^{-2}$
milli	m	$\times 10^{-3}$
micro	$\mu$	$\times 10^{-6}$
nano	n	$\times 10^{-9}$
pico	p	$\times 10^{-12}$
femto	f	$\times 10^{-15}$

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# Uncertainties, vectors and scalars

**Don't confuse the terms!**

## Errors and uncertainties

**Error:**  
The difference between the measured value and true value of measurement

**Uncertainty:**  
The degree to which we can say a measurement is accurate. A measurement of 15.5 cm on a ruler would have an **absolute uncertainty** of  $\pm 0.1$  cm.

**Accuracy:**  
A measurement is accurate if it is close proximity to the actual true value.  
**Precision:**  
A measurement is precise if its value is in close proximity to other repeated measurements of the same quantity.

### Definitions of errors

**Systematic error:**  
An error that causes the measurements to differ from the true value by the same amount

**Random error:**  
An error caused by unpredictable circumstances and resulting in measurements that differ from the true value by varying amounts

### Sources of error

**Systematic error:**

- Imperfect calibration
- Imperfect methods of observation
- Interference of environment with method process

**Random error:**

- Mistakes made in inaccurate readings made by the experimenter
- Fluctuations in the reading on the instrument

### How to reduce potential errors

**Systematic error:**

- Repeating experiment using a comparable apparatus to identify the source of error
- Accurate calibration of equipment
- Confirming experimental method against literature and sources

**Random error:**

- Taking averages over multiple measurements, not including anomalous results
- Repeating the experiment and averaging across all the measurements

### Percentage uncertainties:

$$\frac{\Delta a}{a} \times 100\%$$

### Combining uncertainties

To combine errors:

$\epsilon$  = absolute uncertainty  
 $\sigma$  = percentage uncertainty  
 $x, a, b, n$  = variables

**Adding or subtracting variables**

$$x = a + b$$

$$x = a - b$$

**Add the absolute uncertainties**

$$\epsilon_x = \epsilon_a + \epsilon_b$$

**Multiplying or dividing variables**

$$x = ab$$

$$x = \frac{a}{b}$$

**Add the percentage uncertainties**

$$\sigma_x = \sigma_a + \sigma_b$$

$$\left(\sigma_x = \frac{\epsilon_x}{x} \times 100\%\right)$$

**Powers of variables**

**Add the percentage uncertainties**  
 $\sigma_x = n\sigma_a$

## Scalars

**Scalar:** a physical quantity that can be described simply using magnitude

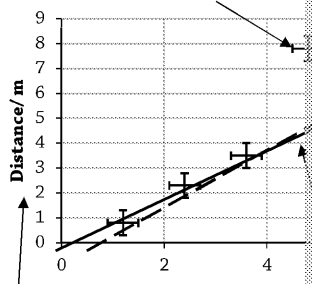
**Vector:** a physical quantity that is described by both its magnitude and direction

### Exam Tip!

You will be expected to draw vectors from measurements

## Uncertainties on graphs

Uncertainty of individual points shown by error bars



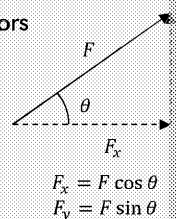
Dependent variable on y-axis

Independent variable on x-axis

**Percentage uncertainty of gradient:**  
 $\frac{\text{best gradient} - \text{worst gradient}}{\text{best gradient}}$

**Percentage uncertainty of y-intercept:**  
 $\frac{\text{best intercept} - \text{worst intercept}}{\text{best intercept}}$

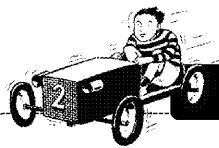
## Resolving vectors



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## Motion along a straight line

$$s = vt$$

**Displacement,  $s$**   
↳ distance in a given direction

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

**Velocity,  $v$**   
↳ change of displacement per unit time

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

**Acceleration,  $a$**   
↳ change of velocity per unit time

### Instantaneous vs average

#### Instantaneous speed:

The speed at a particular point in time. The total distance travelled divided by the total time elapsed during the journey

**Instantaneous velocity:**  
The velocity at a particular point in time

**Instantaneous acceleration:**  
The acceleration at a particular point in time

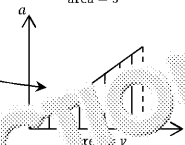
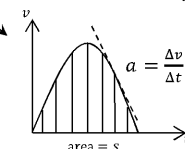
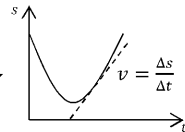
#### Average velocity:

The total displacement travelled divided by the total time elapsed during the journey

#### Average acceleration:

The average velocity divided by the total time elapsed during the journey

- Velocity can be determined from the gradient of a displacement–time curve.
- Displacement can be determined from the area under a velocity–time curve.
- Acceleration can be determined from the gradient of the velocity–time curve.
- Velocity can be determined by the area under the acceleration–time curve.



### Equations of motion

The following equations only hold if the object is travelling with uniform acceleration:

$$v = u + at$$

$$s = \frac{1}{2}at^2$$

$$s = ut$$

$$v^2 = u^2 + 2as$$

#### Exam Tip!

If an object is falling,  $a = g$

### Investigating motion

- Two **light gates** connected to a **data-logger** can measure the time taken for an object to pass from one light gate to the other.
- A single light gate can measure the velocity of an object directly by measuring the time taken for it to pass.
- Other methods of timing an object include **ticker timers** or **filming** the object and looking at time stamps, to reduce error.
- Using a **trolley** or an **air-track glider** can reduce the effect of friction on motion, reducing error.

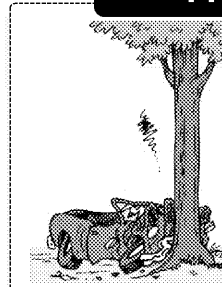
# Motion

## Free fall

An object's motion is entirely due to the effect of gravity, it is said to be in free fall. An object in free fall accelerates downwards with an acceleration of  $g$ . On Earth,  $g = 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2$

Objects dropped in a vacuum fall in free fall. In an atmosphere, or any other medium, **drag forces** act against the motion of the object as it falls, slowing it down.

## Stopping distance



A vehicle's **stopping distance** is the distance from the driver's **thinking distance** to the point where the vehicle has stopped. It is the sum of the **thinking distance** and the **braking distance**.

The thinking distance is the distance a driver's reaction time takes to react to a hazard. Braking distance is the distance a vehicle travels from the moment the driver applies the brakes until it has stopped.

- Both thinking and braking distances increase with the speed of the car.
- At high speeds, the thinking distance is a significant proportion of the total stopping distance.
- With a good reaction time, the thinking distance is about 0.7 times the speed of the car.

## Projectile motion

### Projectile:

A projectile is any object that is launched into the air and has no means of propulsion, i.e. **it is only acted upon by the force of gravity**.

### Horizontal motion component

$$s_h = v_h t$$

- The faster an object is propelled horizontally, the further it will travel in the horizontal direction.
- The time taken for an object to fall a distance  $s$  will be independent of the initial horizontal velocity.

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# Dynamics

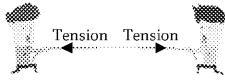
Exerting a **net force** on an object causes the object to accelerate.  
 Force is measured in newtons, N, which is equivalent to  $\text{kg m s}^{-2}$ .  
 An object's **weight** is the force applied by an object due to gravity.

$$F = ma$$

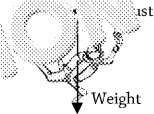
$$W = mg$$

## Forces

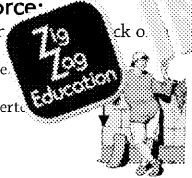
**Tension:**  
 The force experienced by pulling against an object.



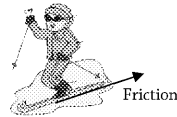
**Upthrust:**  
 A force that pushes up on an object in a fluid (the fluid that the object is in).  
 Example: A boat floating in water.



**Normal contact force:**  
 The reaction force on an object that is in contact with a surface.  
 Force exerted by the surface on the object.  
 Force exerted by the object on the surface.



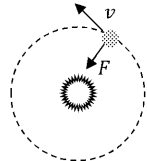
**Friction:**  
 A force that opposes motion along a surface.



**Free-body diagrams**  
 The forces acting on an object can be represented by free-body diagrams. In a free-body diagram, each force is represented by an arrow from the **centre of the object** in the **direction of the force**.

The **size of the arrow** is proportional to the **size of the force**.

**Motion in one and two dimensions**  
 An object will accelerate in the direction of an applied force. With no force exerted, the object will remain at the same velocity and travel in a straight line, or remain at rest.

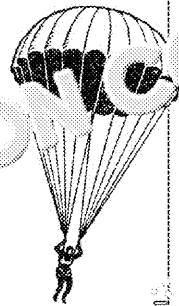


If Earth wasn't pulled towards the Sun it would move in a straight line. Instead, the gravitational attraction pulls Earth in a circle.

## Non-uniform acceleration

### Air resistance and terminal velocity

- An object travelling through a fluid, such as air, experiences a **drag force** acting against the direction of motion.
- As the object falls, it accelerates.
- As the velocity of an object increases, the drag force acting on the object increases.
- For a falling object, **terminal velocity** is reached when the **drag force is equal to the weight** and there is no more acceleration.



**Exam Tip!**  
 Objects with a larger surface area will experience a greater drag, as will less streamlined objects.

**Investigating terminal velocity**  
 To investigate terminal velocity, drop a **ball bearing** through a transparent **viscous fluid** such as glycerine or syrup. The ball bearing should reach terminal velocity quickly, and you'll be able to measure the time taken for the ball bearing to pass between **two marked points** using a **stopwatch**. Repeat the experiment for different sizes and masses of ball bearing. This can also be done with a **cone** dropped through air.

# Forces in action

**Moment of a force:**

$$\text{Moment} = Fx$$

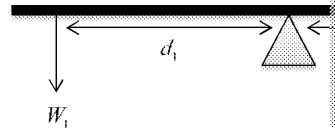
$F$  = force  
 $x$  = distance from pivot  
 $d$  = distance between forces

**Torque of a couple:**

$$\text{Torque} = Fd$$

## Principle of moments

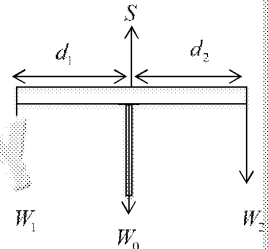
For equilibrium:



The sum of the clockwise moments = the sum of the anticlockwise moments.  
 $W_1 d_1 = W_2 d_2$

- $W_1$  provides the anticlockwise moment.
- $W_2$  provides the clockwise moment.

## Support



$$S = W_0 + W_1 + W_2$$

$$W_1 d_1 = W_2 d_2$$

## Density and pressure

**Density,  $\rho$ :**

Density is a measure of how much mass is in a given volume.

**Pressure,  $p$ :**

Pressure is a measure of a force spread over an area.

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# Work, energy, power and

## Work, energy and power

**Energy:** the capacity to do work

**Power:** the rate of doing work / the rate of energy transfer

Work done = energy transferred

Work done / energy transfer:

$W$  = work done, in joules  
 $F$  = force  
 $x$  = distance  
 $\theta$  = angle between force and motion  
 $P$  = power in watts  
 $t$  = time in seconds  
 $v$  = velocity in metres per second

Rate of energy transfer:



In the case that the direction of action of the force is in line with the direction of displacement, i.e.  $\cos\theta = 1$ ,  $W = Fx$  (1)

$$W = Fx \cos \theta$$

$$W = Fx$$

$$P = Fv$$

### Derivations

Equations for kinetic and gravitational potential energy and power can all be derived from the definition of work done.

**Kinetic energy**      **Gravitational potential energy**

$$W = Fx = E_k$$

$$[F = mg, x = h]$$

$$E_p = mgh$$

**Power**

$$P = \frac{W}{t}$$

$$P = \frac{Fx}{t}$$

$$\frac{x}{t} = v$$

$$P = Fv$$

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

$$v^2 = u^2 + 2ax$$

$$[u = 0]$$

$$a = \frac{v^2}{2x}$$

$$E_k = m \frac{v^2}{2x} x$$

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

**Efficiency:**

$$\text{efficiency percentage} = \frac{\text{useful output power}}{\text{input power}} \times 100\%$$

## Conservation of energy

**Principle of conservation of energy:**

For an isolated system, energy is conserved. Energy cannot be created or destroyed, only transferred into different forms.

Examples of different forms of energy:

- heat
- sound
- kinetic
- gravitational

**Kinetic energy:**

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

**Potential energy:**

$$E_p = mgh$$

$v$  = velocity  
 $m$  = mass  
 $g$  = gravitational field strength

**Example of energy conservation:**

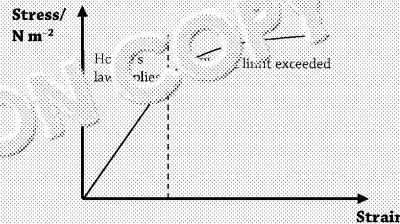
1



- As a ball is thrown upwards, the **kinetic energy** given to it by the throw is converted into **potential energy** and the ball slows down. All of the kinetic energy has been converted to potential energy at the **highest point** the ball reaches.
- As the ball falls, potential energy is converted back into kinetic energy and the ball accelerates back towards the ground.
- When the ball hits the ground, its kinetic energy is transferred to the ground and converted to heat and sound.

## Young modulus

$$\text{Young modulus, } E = \frac{\text{stress}}{\text{strain}} = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} = \frac{Fl}{Ax}$$



The Young modulus can be determined from the gradient of a stress-strain graph by comparing the equation for Young modulus (E):

$$\sigma = E\epsilon$$

(tensile stress = Young modulus  $\times$  tensile strain)

and the equation for the straight line up until the graph begins to curve:

$$y = mx + c$$

**Determining**

By **hanging** a weight from a wire and measuring the extension, a stress-strain graph can be plotted. The **micrometer** is used to measure the diameter of the wire.

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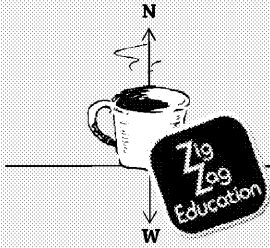
# Newton's laws of motion

## Newton's first law

1

### Newton's first law of motion:

An object will either stay at rest or move with constant velocity unless acted upon by an external net force.



If a coffee mug is sitting on a table, Newton's first law tells us that the forces acting on it are balanced ( $N = W$ ).

On the other hand, if we know that the forces acting on the mug are balanced, and there is no net force, then Newton's first law tells us that the mug is either at rest or moving with constant velocity.

### Exam Tip!

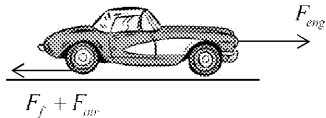
You will be expected to identify that if an object is at rest or moving with constant velocity, then the forces on that object are balanced – there is no resultant force.

## Newton's second law



2

$F_f$  = friction force  
 $F_{air}$  = air resistance



If we know that the car is accelerating towards the right, then we know that there must be a resultant force acting on the car directed towards the right and, therefore,  $F_{eng} > F_f + F_{air}$ .

On the other hand, if we know that the engine force  $F_{eng}$  is greater than  $F_f + F_{air}$ , then we know that there is a resultant force towards the right and the car must, therefore, be accelerating to the right.

### The special case: constant mass

If we take the case where mass  $m$  is constant, then the equation detailing Newton's second law can be written in an alternative form.

Say a constant force,  $F$ , is acting on mass  $m$  that has an initial velocity  $u$ . Then, after time  $t$  of the force being applied, it has a final velocity  $v$ , and we can say:



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

$$F = \frac{m(v - u)}{t}$$

$$F = ma$$

### Newton's second law of motion:

The net force acting on an object is directly proportional to its rate of change of momentum and in the same direction.

$$F \propto \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t}$$

$$F = k \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t}$$

We can define the constant of proportionality  $k$  as 1 by defining the unit of force:

$1 \text{ N} =$  the force needed to accelerate  $1 \text{ kg}$  mass at a rate of  $1 \text{ m s}^{-2}$

then,

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

## Newton's

For

## Newton's

If object A will exert

M

M

C

F

dir

th

Relat

$F =$

$F =$

Imp

Imp

Imp

Note

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# Current and pote

## Charge

**Electric current:** the rate of flow of charge through a conductor

$I$  = current  
 $Q$  = total charge  
 $t$  = time

$$\Delta Q = I \Delta t$$

Charge is measured in **coulombs, C**

Charge is **quantised**. This means that charge can only be found in multiples of  $e$ .

**Net charge:** the sum of charges in a body

$e$  = elementary charge =  $1.60 \times 10^{-19}$  C  
 $n$  = integer = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...

$$Q = \pm ne$$

For a proton,  $Q = +1$   
 For an electron,  $Q = -1$

## Moving charges

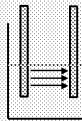
**Electric current in metal:** the flow of electrons

**Conventional current:** current from positive terminal to negative terminal

**Electron flow:** flow of electrons from negative terminal to positive terminal

**Current in electrolyte:** the flow of ions

Electrons carry charge through a metal.

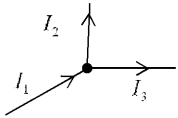


In an electrolyte, ions in the solution carry charge from one electrode to the other.

## Kirchhoff's first law

**Conservation of charge:** Electric charge cannot be created or destroyed – total current is constant.

**Kirchhoff's first law:** The sum of the current into any point in an electrical circuit is equal to the sum of currents out of the point.



$$I_1 = I_2 + I_3$$

$$\sum I_{in} = \sum I_{out}$$

### Example

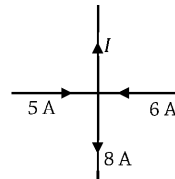
Calculate  $I$  in the diagram to the right.

The current into a point equals the current out of a point:

$$I_{in} = I_{out}$$

$$5 + 6 = 8 + I$$

$$I = 11 - 8 = 3 \text{ A}$$



(A negative value for  $I$  would indicate the current was flowing into the point.)

## Mean drift velocity

**Mean drift velocity:** The average speed of charge carriers (e.g. electrons or ions) through a conductor. The greater the mean drift velocity, the greater the current.

$$I = Anev$$

$A$  = cross-sectional area  
 $n$  = number density of charge carriers  
 $v$  = mean drift velocity

## Conductors and insulators

### Conductors:

For a conductor such as a metal, the charge carriers are electrons that are shared between atoms.

There are typically one or two free electrons per metal atom.

For a metal,  $n = 10^{28} \text{ m}^{-3}$  to  $10^{29} \text{ m}^{-3}$ .

### Insulators:

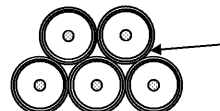
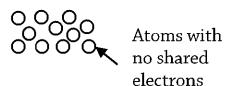
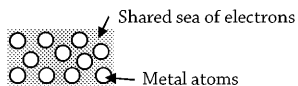
In an insulator, such as plastic, there are no charge carriers – all of the electrons are bound to atoms.

For an insulator,  $n = 0 \text{ m}^{-3}$ .

### Semiconductors:

In a semiconductor, such as silicon or compounds of gallium, electrons in high energy levels can easily absorb enough energy to become unbound from an atom, and can then move through the material.

For a semiconductor,  $n = 10^{16} \text{ m}^{-3}$  to  $10^{25} \text{ m}^{-3}$ .



Electrons can easily move between shells and between atoms

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# Resistance and po

## Resistance

**Ohm's law:** special case where  $V \propto I$  if temperature (and therefore resistance) are kept constant

**Ohmic conductor:** a conductor that follows Ohm's law, so  $V \propto I$

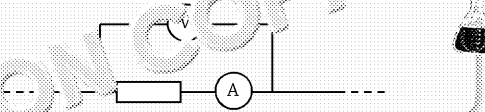
**Non-ohmic conductor:** a conductor that has a non-linear relationship between  $V$  and  $I$  and doesn't follow Ohm's law

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

Current and potential difference are measured using ammeters and voltmeters, respectively.

Ammeters are placed in series with a component, while voltmeters are placed in parallel.

Ideal ammeters have zero resistance, while voltmeters have infinite resistance.



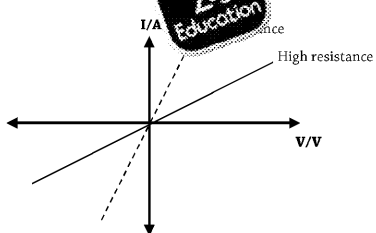
## Current-voltage characteristics



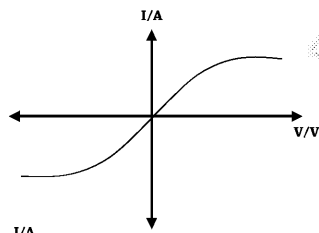
I-V graph for a **filament lamp**

### Explanation!

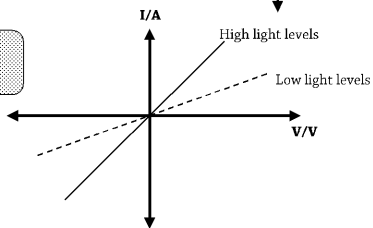
As the filament in the bulb carries higher amounts of current and heats up, the metal atoms vibrate and electrons cannot pass through the filament as easily. This increases the resistance of the filament.



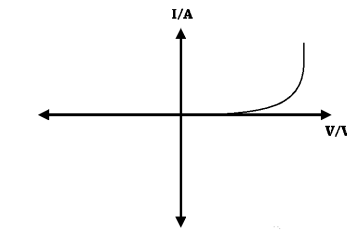
I-V graph for an **Ohmic conductor, such as a resistor**



I-V graph for a **diode**



I-V graph for a **light-dependent resistor (LDR)**



**Diodes** only conduct electricity after a certain threshold voltage. Below this voltage, the current cannot flow. The potential difference must be applied across the diode.

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## Power

The power transferred by a component is given by:

$$P = VI$$

where  $P$  = power  
 $W$  = energy transferred  
 $I$  = current  
 $R$  = resistance

which can also be written as:

$$P = I^2 R \quad \text{or} \quad P = \frac{V^2}{R}$$

The energy transferred by a component in a given time is equal to:

$$W = VIt$$

## Kilowatt-hour

The kilowatt-hour (kWh) is a unit of energy that is used to describe energy usage.

1 kWh is the amount of energy used by an appliance using a power of 1 kW for one hour.

$$1 \text{ kWh} = 1 \times 1000 \times 60 \times 60 = 3.6 \times 10^6 \text{ J}$$

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# Circuits, electromotive force and

## Circuits

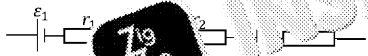
**Kirchhoff's second law:** In any electrical circuit, the sum of the electromotive force is equal to the sum of the potential differences in a closed loop:

$$\Sigma \mathcal{E} = \Sigma V \text{ around closed loop}$$

In DC circuits, charge and energy are also conserved.

### Circuits with more than one power source

#### Series



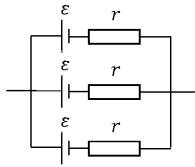
For power sources in series, the total e.m.f. supplied to the circuit is:

$$\mathcal{E}_{total} = \mathcal{E}_1 + \mathcal{E}_2 + \mathcal{E}_3 \dots$$

The combined internal resistance of the power sources is:

$$r_{total} = r_1 + r_2 + r_3 \dots$$

#### Parallel



For identical sources in parallel, the total e.m.f. supplied to the circuit is the same as the e.m.f. of one of the power sources.

The combined internal resistance of  $n$  power sources is:

$$\frac{1}{r_{total}} = \frac{n}{r}$$

### Series and parallel circuits

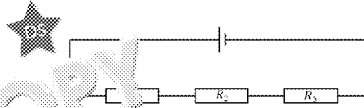
#### Series circuits:

$$R = R_1 + R_2 + \dots$$

$$I = I_1 = I_2 = \dots$$

$$V = V_1 + V_2 + \dots$$

Cells can be connected in series if a **higher voltage** needs to be supplied to the circuit.



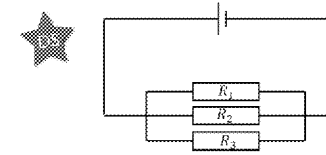
#### Parallel circuits:

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \dots$$

$$I = I_1 + I_2 + \dots$$

$$V = V_1 = V_2 = \dots$$

- Cells can be connected in parallel to **increase the current** through the circuit.



### Potential divider

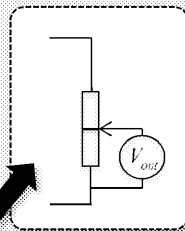
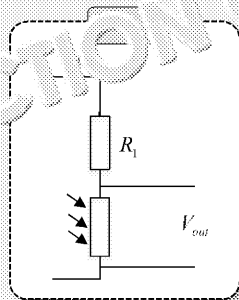
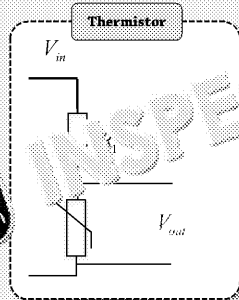
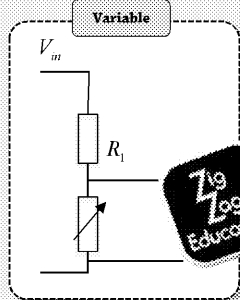
A potential divider is the name of a circuit that can be used to alter the potential difference across an output when connected to a fixed input.

A variable component can be introduced to the circuit, which varies in resistance and, therefore, varies the voltage output of the circuit. In this case, the potential divider circuit can be used as a sensing circuit (e.g. to sense light levels or temperature).

$$V_{out} = \left( \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) \times V_{in}$$

or

$$\frac{V_1}{V_2} = \frac{R_1}{R_2}$$



#### Investigating LDRs and thermistors

The change in resistance of **thermistors** and **LDRs** can be investigated by measuring  $V_{out}$  from a potential divider circuit as temperature or light levels are varied.

A **variable potential divider** or **potentiometer** is a potential divider with a sliding contact. In this case, the voltage output between two of the terminals can be varied by altering the sliding contact.

#### Exam Tip!

Remember, potential divider circuits are simply series circuits, so all the same rules for current, voltage and resistance relationships in series apply.

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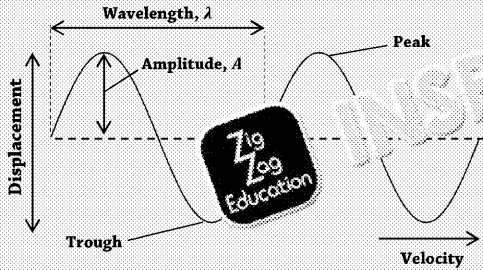


# Wave motion

## Progressive waves

### Progressive wave:

A wave that transfers energy from one point to another without transferring any matter. The particles in the matter oscillate but do not move along the wave.



### Properties of a wave

- **Amplitude:** the maximum displacement from the equilibrium position
- **Frequency,  $f$ :** the number of complete waves passing a point per second
- **Wavelength,  $\lambda$ :** the minimum distance between two in-phase points on peaks/troughs
- **Phase difference:** the difference between the displacements of particles at the same point or on different waves
- **Period,  $T$ :** the time it takes for a single point of the wave to undergo one whole oscillation

Phase difference can be measured in radians, degrees or fractions of a cycle - one full wave =  $2\pi$  radians or  $360^\circ$

### Wave equations:

$$\text{velocity, } v = f\lambda$$

$$\text{frequency, } f = \frac{1}{T}$$

$v$  = velocity  
 $f$  = frequency  
 $\lambda$  = wavelength  
 $T$  = period

When a wave passes through a barrier it diffracts. The direction of a reflected wave is at the same angle as the incident wave.

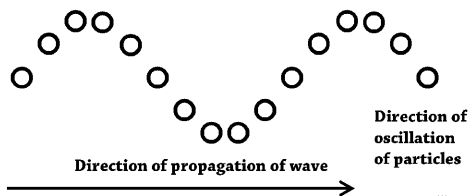
### Diffraction

Waves will pass around an aperture. The wavelength of the wave will determine how much it diffracts.

## Transverse waves and longitudinal waves

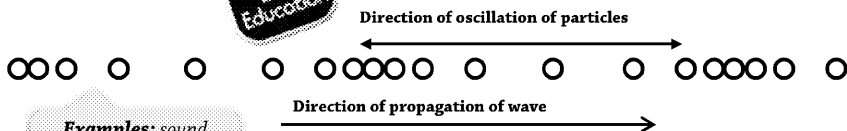
### Transverse wave:

a wave in which the medium's particles are displaced perpendicular to the direction of energy transfer



### Longitudinal wave:

a wave in which the medium's particles are displaced in the same direction as the direction of energy transfer

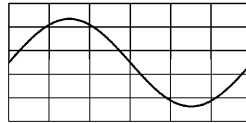


**Examples:** sound waves, p waves from earthquakes

### Oscilloscopes

An oscilloscope can be used to show a wave. One wavelength is shown here.

**Displacement** is shown vertically and **time** is shown horizontally.



The **period** of the wave can be read off the oscilloscope as the time taken for a single oscillation. The time taken to return to the same displacement. Frequency then is  $f = \frac{2\pi}{T}$ .

The **amplitude** is the distance between the highest reading and the lowest reading in the wave.

### Intensity

The **intensity** of a wave is the power which it transfers that power.

Intensity is defined in terms of the

Intensity

A **ripple tank** is used to generate surface ripples. Wave effects can be studied in a ripple tank by placing solid walls to observe reflection and refraction.

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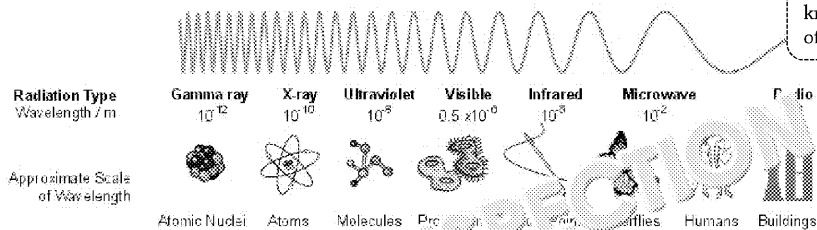


# Electromagnetic spectrum

# Refraction, diffraction and

Light is composed of electromagnetic waves. The different wavelengths of electromagnetic waves determine their properties.

All electromagnetic waves travel at  $c = 3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  in a vacuum and are transverse.

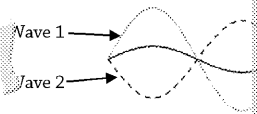


### Exam Tip!

You are expected to know these orders of magnitude

### Superposition:

When two waves meet they undergo superposition. If the displacements of the waves are in phase, the waves add.



### Investigating superposition

- To investigate superposition, two wave sources can be used.
- Two sound sources can be placed in a room where waves cancel out or add.
- Two microwave sources will heat up a substance.
- Shining light through two slits produces interference patterns.

Light consists of a number of transverse waves oscillating in several directions, so it can be polarised. There are a number of applications for polarisers.

- Polarising filters are used in sunglasses to reduce the amount of glare from unpolarised sunlight.
- Polarisation can be used in communication when radio waves are polarised and the aerial is aligned in the same direction as the plane of polarisation to receive the best signal.

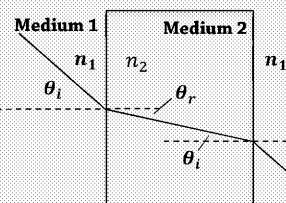
## Refraction of light

When light enters a different medium, it changes speed. The refractive index of a medium is the amount by which light slows in the medium compared to the speed of light in a vacuum.

Light bends due to the change in speed.

$$n = \frac{c}{v}$$

$$n \sin \theta = \text{constant}$$



### Exam Tip!

Note that you will be expected to recall that the refractive index of air is approximately 1.

Here,  $n_2 > n_1$  because the light bends towards the normal

## Interference

**Interference:** The process of two coherent waves overlapping to form a resultant wave either through cancellation or reinforcement. The process of interference can occur with sound waves and other electromagnetic waves.

**Coherent:** Sources of waves are coherent if they have the same frequency with constant phase difference.

**Path difference:** The difference in the distance travelled by two coherent wave sources to an interference point.

**Phase difference:**

The amount that two waves are offset by.

For constructive interference:

$$\text{path difference} = n\lambda$$

This corresponds to a phase difference of  $2\pi n$ .

For destructive interference:

$$\text{path difference} = (n + \frac{1}{2})\lambda$$

This corresponds to a phase difference of  $(2n + 1)\pi$ .

## Total internal reflection

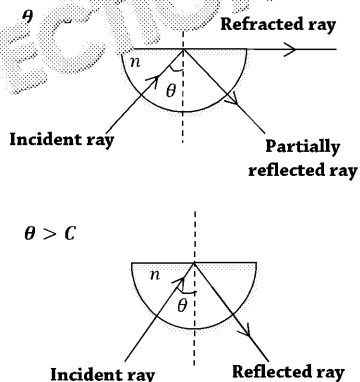
Total internal reflection refers to the situation where an incident light ray enters at an angle of incidence greater than the critical angle, and the light is reflected back into the material.

### Conditions for total internal reflection:

1. The substance the light is travelling through has a **greater refractive index** than the other substance, i.e.  $n_2 > n_1$
2. The angle of incidence is **greater** than the critical angle of the substance, i.e.  $\theta > C$

$$\sin C = \frac{1}{n}$$

$\theta$  = incident angle  
 $C$  = critical angle



### Investigating total internal reflection

Place a semicircular prism on a piece of paper. Shine a light onto the curved edge and mark the point where the light hits the straight edge. Change the angle the light makes with that point until no light passes through the straight edge. Mark the point light enters the block.

The angle between the incoming light and the normal is the critical angle.

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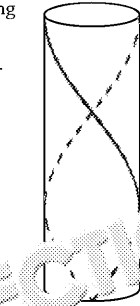
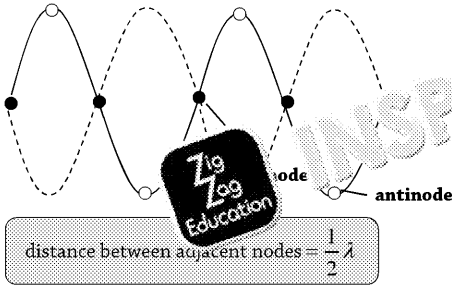


## Stationary waves

A stationary wave is a wave that is generated by a wave interfering with itself as it reflects along a fixed distance.

While progressive waves transfer energy across space and appear to move, there is no net transfer of energy or appearance of motion in a stationary wave.

A stationary wave has **nodes**, which show no displacement, and **antinodes**, where the greatest displacement occurs.

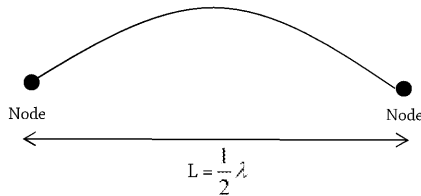


A stationary wave produced in an air column has antinodes at open ends of the tube, and nodes at closed ends.

## Harmonics:

Many different stationary waves of different wavelengths can form in the same space, as long as the space can hold exactly a multiple of half-wavelengths.

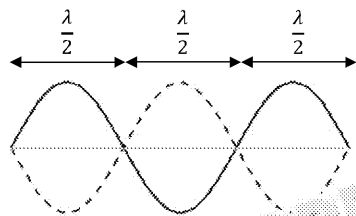
First harmonic



### Exam Tip!

The first harmonic is sometimes called the **fundamental mode**.

Third harmonic



$$\lambda_1 = 2L$$



$n^{\text{th}}$  harmonic:

$$\lambda_n = \frac{2L}{n}$$

## Investigating the speed of sound

- Stationary waves can be used to determine the speed of sound in air.
- Hitting an open glass cylinder with a tuning fork will create a wave of a specific frequency in the tube.
- Adding water to the cylinder changes the length of the space.
- When a stationary wave is produced, a sound will be produced.
- The height of air in the tube when a sound is produced is exactly a half-wavelength.
- The speed of sound can then be found from  $v = f\lambda$ .



## Photons

Light acts like a wave; however, light is actually made up of particles called **photons**. A photon is a small packet of energy. The energy of a photon is given by:

$$E = hf = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$$

Remember: when working on a subatomic level, you can be more comfortable using the eV.

**1 eV = amount of energy gained as it is accelerated through a potential difference of 1 volt.**

$$1 \text{ eV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

## Terms of the photoelectric effect

- Threshold frequency:** the minimum frequency required for electrons to be emitted from the surface of a metal
- Work function:** a property of materials that indicates the minimum energy required to remove an electron from the surface of a metal
- Stopping potential:** the potential needed to stop the most energetic photoelectrons
- $E_{k \text{ max}}$ :** the maximum possible kinetic energy of the photoelectrons

## Determining $h$

LEDs can be used to find the value of  $h$ .

The energy of a photon is given by  $E = hf$ , so an LED must have a minimum potential difference to give off light.

The potential difference supplied to the LED is varied until the minimum voltage required is found.

This is repeated for LEDs of different wavelengths.

Since

$$eV = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$$

we can plot  $eV$  against  $\frac{1}{\lambda}$  on a graph that has a gradient of  $hc$ .

## Wave-particle duality

### Electron diffraction

Electrons can be shown to have wave-like properties and can even be made to **diffract**.

The wavelength of electrons and other particles is much smaller than the wavelength of visible light. They can only diffract through small gaps, such as the spaces between atoms in a **crystal**.

Electron diffraction through **polycrystals** allowed scientists to determine the spacing between atoms, as this changes the degree of diffraction.

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## SI base units

1. Define the term 'SI base units'.

2. Fill in the empty boxes in the following table:

Physical quantity	Base unit
Amount of substance	
Temperature	metre
	second
Mass	
	ampere

3. Derive the following SI units from the SI base units:

- a) Velocity
- b) Power
- c) Acceleration
- d) Force

## Units and measurement

### Estimation

6. Complete the following table of estimates:

Physical quantity	Estimated value
Mass of average man	300 m/s
Height of average man	
Mass of a car	1000 kg
	1000 kg m <sup>-3</sup>
	100 000 Pa

7. A man lifts a 2 kg box from the floor to above his head.  
Estimate the work done lifting the box.

### Checking equations using units

4. Explain what is meant by a 'homogenous equation'.

For each of the following equations are homogenous.

a)  $\rho = \frac{m}{V}$

b)  $v^2 = u^2 + 2as$

c)  $P = VI$

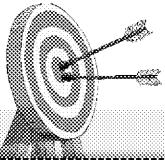
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# Uncertainties, vectors and



## Errors and uncertainties

1. Comment on some of the differences between systematic errors and random errors.

2. Explain the differences between an accurate measurement and a precise measurement.

4. Comment on potential methods to reduce:

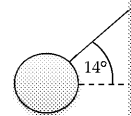
a) systematic error

b) random error

8. Explain the difference between

10. Two forces are acting at right angles. Force 1 initially acts in the upwards direction with a magnitude of 30.0 N. Force 2 then acts (eastwards). Calculate the resultant force and the angle to the vertical.

11. A ball is projected into the air at an angle of  $14^\circ$  to the horizontal.



Calculate the velocity's horizontal component.

3. State whether each of the following is an example of a systematic error or a random error:

a) unpredictable temperature fluctuations

b) uncalibrated oscilloscope

c) inaccurate experimental method

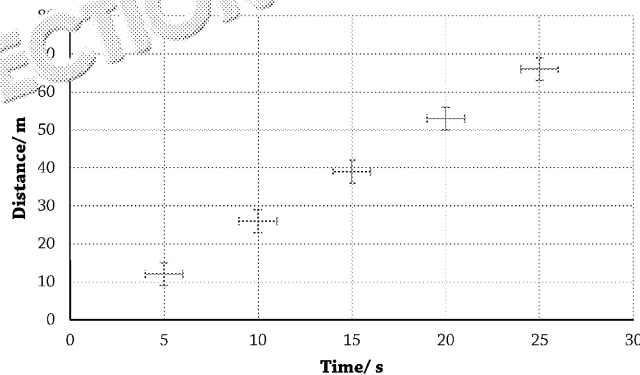
6. A physicist is carrying out an experiment on the electrical output of a circuit. The physicist measures  $1.2 \pm 0.2$  A flowing through a  $12 \pm 1$  V cell.

a) Calculate the percentage uncertainty in the measurement for current.

b) Calculate the percentage uncertainty in the power output of the cell.

7. The graph below shows the data from an experiment.

Calculate the gradient of the graph, including a percentage uncertainty.



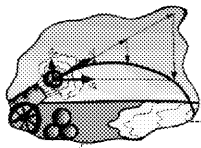
5. A student measures the net force acting on a wire to be  $10 \pm 1$  N in the upwards direction. The mass hanging on the wire is  $1.2 \pm 0.1$  kg. The mass of the wire is negligible.

Calculate the acceleration of the mass upwards, including its uncertainty.

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# Motion

## Motion along a straight line

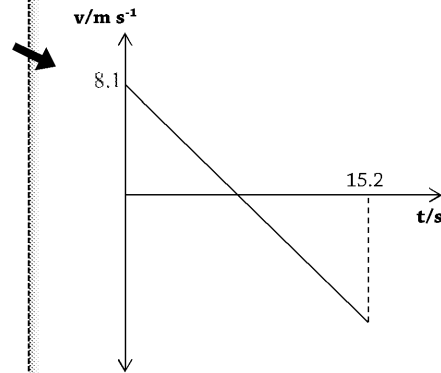
1. Define the following terms:

- a) 'displacement'
- b) 'average velocity'
- c) 'distance'
- d) 'average speed'
- e) 'instantaneous velocity'
- f) 'instantaneous speed'
- g) 'acceleration'

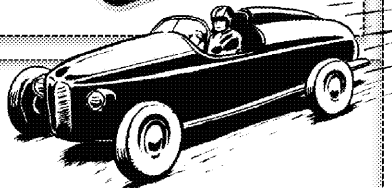


2. The velocity–time graph of a projectile thrown vertically upwards is shown on the right.

- a) State the velocity of the projectile when the projectile is at maximum height.
- b) Calculate the displacement of the projectile in 15.2 seconds.
- c) Sketch the acceleration–time graph for the projectile over 15.2 seconds.



d) Explain how you could determine the acceleration from the velocity–time graph.



3. A car is travelling initially with a velocity of  $2.20 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ . The car accelerates uniformly, and eventually reaches a velocity of  $12.2 \text{ ms}^{-1}$  in  $1.5 \text{ s}$ .

a) Determine the acceleration of the car.

A second car is initially travelling with a velocity of  $1.8 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ . The car travels 13.2 metres with a constant acceleration of  $1.3 \text{ ms}^{-2}$ .

b) Calculate the final velocity of the car.

## Free fall

4. A ball is thrown up from a height of  $1.2 \text{ m}$  with an initial velocity of  $2.40 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ . The time taken for the ball to hit the ground is  $1.2 \text{ s}$ .

## Projectile

6. Explain how the vertical velocity of a projectile changes as it moves through the air.

8. A ball is projected horizontally from a height of  $2.0 \text{ m}$ . A second ball is dropped from the same height. Assume air resistance is negligible.

- a) Explain which ball reaches the ground first.
- b) Determine the height of the second ball when the first ball reaches the ground.
- c) Calculate how far from the base of the building the first ball lands.
- d) Explain what effect air resistance would have on the results.

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## Dynamics

# Forces in action

1. A 45.0 kg box is pushed along the ground with a force of 630 N. 110 N of friction acts on the box as it is pushed.

- Calculate the weight of the box.
- Calculate the acceleration of the box.
- Draw a free-body diagram showing the forces acting on the box.



3. Define the following terms:
- 'moment of a force'
  - 'couple'
  - 'moment of a couple'

5. An acceleration of  $2.5 \text{ m/s}^2$  is applied to the ball.

Calculate the mass of the ball.

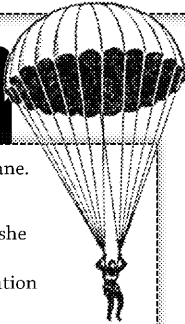
6. A lorry has a combined mass of 1200 kg.

Calculate the acceleration of the lorry.

## Non-uniform acceleration

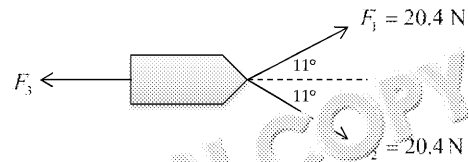
2. A skydiver jumps out of a plane.

Explain the motion of the skydiver before and after she opens her parachute with reference to drag, acceleration and terminal velocity.



## Coplanar forces

7. A tugboat is docked in the harbour. The tugboat sits in equilibrium.



- Calculate the horizontal and vertical components of  $F_1$ .
- Determine the value of  $F_3$ .

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## Work, energy and power

## Work, energy, power and

1. Define the following terms:

- a) 'work'
- b) 'power'

2. A 10 kg box is pushed 7.60 m up an incline with a force of 142 N at an angle of  $15.6^\circ$  to the horizontal. Calculate the work done in pushing the box up the inclined plane.

3. A heat engine uses 1.00 MJ of fuel and produces 0.20 MJ of useful work. Calculate the percentage efficiency of the engine.



4. Derive from principles of work, equations for:

- a) the power transferred to an object travelling at velocity  $v$  by a force  $F$
- b) the energy transferred to an object of mass  $m$  when accelerating it to a velocity  $v$

7. a

b

9. A

C

10. T

## Conservation of energy

5. Define the principle of conservation of energy.

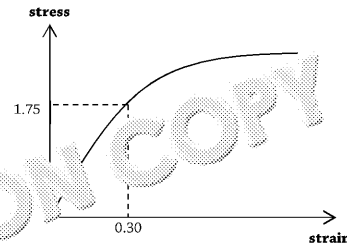
6. A 750 kg rollercoaster sits at the top of a big dip. The dip is 50.5 m high. Assume air resistance is negligible.

- a) State the energy transfer that occurs when the rollercoaster travels down into the bottom of the dip.
- b) Calculate the maximum possible velocity of the rollercoaster at the bottom of the dip.



## Young's modulus

12. The following graph illustrates the relationship between stress and strain of a material:



Using the graph, determine the Young's modulus of the material.

C

11. T

D

A

E

C

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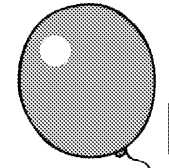
# Newton's laws of motion

## Newton's first law

1. State Newton's first law.
2. State which of the following examples is a demonstration of Newton's first law:
  - a) a skydiver immediately after the diver jumps
  - b) a box sitting at rest on the conveyor belt
  - c) a car braking rapidly



3. A cyclist is travelling at a steady velocity of  $8.9 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ .  
The driving force of the cyclist is  $53 \text{ N}$ .  
State the magnitude of the drag force due to air resistance and frictional force acting on the cyclist.



9.

## Newton's second law

4. a) State Newton's second law.  
b) State the equation for Newton's second law.

5. State which of the following situations is an example of Newton's second law in practice:
  - a) a car uniformly accelerating from 0 to 60 seconds
  - b) a box pushed with a constant push force of  $50 \text{ N}$ , and experiencing an opposing frictional force of  $2.4 \text{ N}$  at the same time
  - c) a car sitting still in a traffic jam

6. Show that  $F = ma$  is a special case of Newton's second law.
7. A hot air balloon with a maximum number of passengers has a combined mass of  $1.2 \times 10^3 \text{ kg}$ . The balloon accelerates upwards at  $1.2 \text{ m s}^{-2}$ . Assume air resistance is negligible.
  - a) Calculate the net force acting on the balloon.
  - b) Sketch the forces acting on the balloon.
  - c) Calculate the force acting upwards.



10.

11.

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## Charge

1. a) Define the term 'electric current'.  
b) 34 C of charge flows through an electrical circuit in 500 seconds. Calculate the current in the circuit.  
c) Determine the number of electrons passing through the circuit in 500 seconds.



## Current and potent

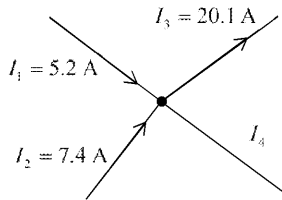
### Moving charges

2. Explain what is meant by the following phrases:
  - a) 'electric current in a metal'
  - b) 'conventional current'
  - c) 'electron flow'
  - d) 'electric current in an electrolyte'

6.

### Kirchhoff's laws

3. Determine the magnitude and direction of  $I_4$ .



7.

## Mean drift velocity

4. What is the difference between conductors, insulators and semiconductors in terms of charge carriers?



5. A metal wire has a current of 10 mA running through it and has a cross-sectional area of  $1 \text{ mm}^2$ . Estimate the mean drift velocity of electrons in the wire.

8.

9.

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# Resistance and power

## Resistance

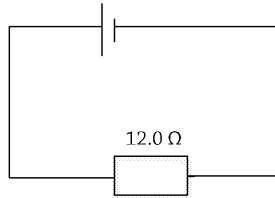
1. A  $15\ \Omega$  resistor is connected to a cell with terminal potential difference of  $11.5\ \text{V}$ .
  - a) Calculate the current in the circuit.
  - b) Determine the work done by electrons to overcome the terminal potential difference when  $3.5\ \text{C}$  of charge is flowing.

## Resistance characteristics

2. Sketch the I-V graphs for the following electrical components:

- a) Thermistor
- b) Semiconductor diode
- c) Ohmic conductor
- d) Filament lamp

3.  $1.20\ \text{A}$  is present in the following electrical circuit:



- a) Calculate the potential difference across the resistor.
- b) Determine the work done by the charge carrier overcoming this resistance in  $500$  seconds.
- c) Calculate the work done by the charge carrier overcoming this resistance in  $500$  seconds.

## Power

6. A kettle runs on  $1.0\ \text{A}$  and a potential difference of  $230\ \text{V}$ . It takes the kettle  $10.6\ \text{p}$  to boil. Calculate the cost of boiling the kettle.



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## Circuits

1. State Kirchhoff's second law.

5. Four 9.0 V batteries are placed in a circuit with a 19  $\Omega$  resistor.

Calculate the current through the resistor when

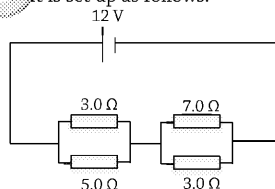
- a) the batteries are placed in series with the resistor
- b) the batteries are placed in parallel with each other



## Circuits

### Series and parallel circuits

2. Determine the total resistance of three 10  $\Omega$  resistors in series.
3. State the equation for the total resistance of resistors in parallel.
4. A circuit is set up as follows:



- a) Calculate the total resistance of the circuit.
- b) Calculate the total current following through the circuit.
- c) State whether the same magnitude of current will be present through the 7  $\Omega$  and 5  $\Omega$  resistors. Give reasons for your answer.

7.

8.

9.

## Potential divider

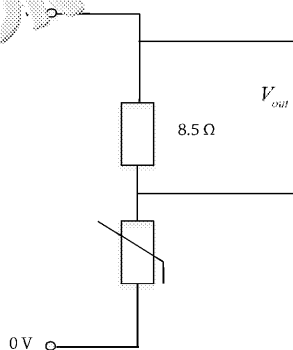
6. A potential divider circuit is set up with a thermistor to act as a sensing circuit in a fridge to detect when the fridge door has been left open too long and the temperature of the fridge is getting too high.

The voltage output is connected to an alarm, which rings when the voltage reaches a sufficiently high value.

- a) Explain how the alarm rings as the temperature rises.

At a certain temperature the resistance of the thermistor is measured to be 6.4  $\Omega$ .

- b) Calculate the voltage output when the thermistor has resistance 6.4  $\Omega$ .



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## Progressive waves

1. Define the term 'progressive wave'.

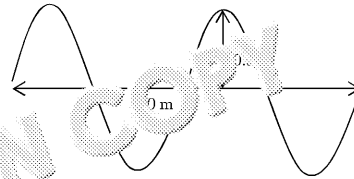
2. Sketch a transverse and progressive wave, and indicate the following wave properties:

- amplitude
- displacement
- wavelength



## Wave motion

3. The following wave is travelling at  $1.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ .



a) Determine the wavelength and amplitude of the wave.

b) Calculate the frequency of the wave.

c) How many waves are travelling past a fixed point in one second?

d) What is the period of the wave?

## Transverse waves and longitudinal waves

4. a) Explain the difference between a longitudinal wave and a transverse wave.

b) Give an example of a longitudinal wave and of a transverse wave.



## Intensity

5. a) A wave has an intensity of  $83 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ , which is incident over an area of  $6.2 \text{ m}^2$ . Calculate the power transferred by the wave.

b) The amplitude of the wave halves.

Calculate the new intensity of the wave.

## Polarisation

### Polarisation

a) Sketch a diagram of unpolarised light.

b) Sketch (a) after it has been polarised.

c) Explain why polarisation of light is evidence that light is a transverse wave.

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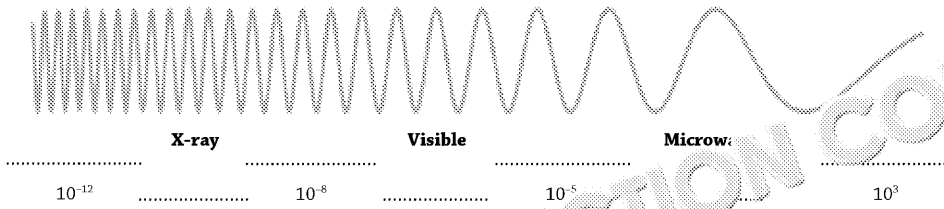
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## Electromagnetic spectrum

# Refraction, diffraction and i

1. Complete the diagram to show the wavelengths (in metres) of the electromagnetic spectrum.



2.

3. Define the following terms:

- 'interference'
- 'coherent'
- 'path difference'

## Refraction

2. Define the term 'refraction'.

3. Given that  $c_{\text{air}} = 2.997 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , show that the refractive index of air is approximately 1.

4. A light ray is travelling from air through the glass window of a high street shop. The light ray hits the shop window at an angle of  $23.0^\circ$ . The refractive index of the glass is 1.50.

a) Calculate the angle of refraction of the light ray in the glass.

b) Explain whether the light ray can undergo total internal reflection.

5. The shine of a diamond is a direct result of its high refractive index:  $n_{\text{diamond}} = 2.42$ . Determine the minimum angle required for total internal reflection within a diamond.

9. Draw the resultant superposition of the waves shown in (a) and (b).



b)



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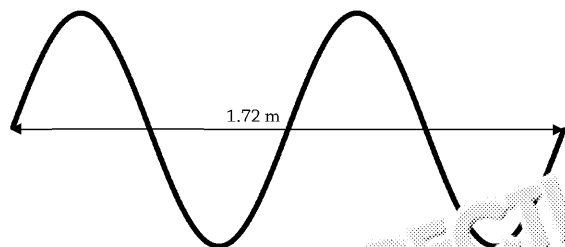
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## Stationary waves

# Stationary waves and photons

1. A stationary wave is displayed below.



Calculate the distance between any two nodes for a stationary wave.



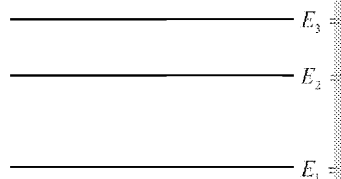
2. A stationary wave with wavelength 8 cm is produced on a string that is 20 cm long. Draw the standing wave seen on the string. Mark the nodes and antinodes.

## Photons

3. Calculate the frequency of a photon of energy  $E = 4.14 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J}$

4. Calculate the energy of a photon of frequency  $f = 5.0 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz}$

5. The energy levels of a hydrogen atom are displayed below.



- Determine the energy of the photon caused by transition from energy level 2 to energy level 1.
- Determine whether the photon has been emitted or absorbed.

## Photoelectric effect

6. Explain what is meant by the 'photoelectric effect'.
7. Light of  $1.8 \times 10^{15} \text{ Hz}$  is incident on the surface of zinc. The maximum kinetic energy of the emitted electrons is  $5.05 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$ . Determine the work function of zinc in electron volts.



Use the following terms:

- 'threshold frequency'
- 'work function'
- 'stopping potential'
- $E_{k, \text{max}}$

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# Units and measure

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## SI base units

Quantities and their SI base units

Physical quantity	Base unit	Symbol
Amount of substance		
Temperature		
Length		
Time		
Current		

Switching between units

---



Example

## Estimation

Table of estimates

Physical quantity	Estimate
Mass of average man	
Speed of sound	
Height of average man	
Mass of a car	
Density of water	
Pressure of atmosphere	

## Prefixes

Prefixes and their orders of magnitude

Prefix	Prefix symbol	Order of magnitude
		1
		10
		100
		1000
		10000
		100000
		1000000
		10000000
		100000000
		1000000000
		10000000000
		100000000000
		1000000000000
		10000000000000
		100000000000000
		1000000000000000
		10000000000000000
		100000000000000000
		1000000000000000000

## Derived units

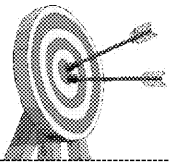
Checking equations using units



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# Uncertainties, vectors and



## Errors and uncertainties

Error:

Uncertainty:

Accuracy vs precision

Definitions of errors



Definitions of uncertainties:



Combining uncertainties

Sources of error



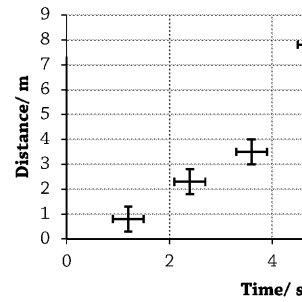
Identifying potential errors

## Scalars

Exam Tip!

You will be expected to resolve vectors from measurements.

Uncertainties on graphs

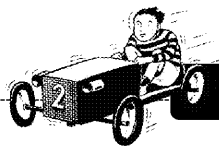


Resolving vectors

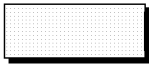
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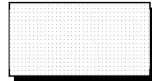




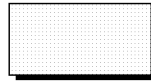
## Motion along a straight line



Displacement,  $s$

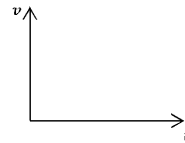
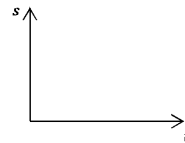


Velocity,  $v$



Acceleration,  $a$

Instantaneous vs average



DB

Equations of motion



Investigating motion



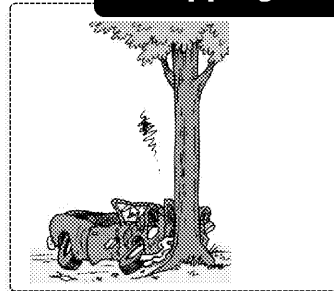
**Exam Tip!**

If an object is falling,  $a = g$

## Motion

Free fall

Stopping distance



Projectile motion

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## Dynamics

## Forces in action

Forces

Tension:

Upthrust:

Normal contact force:

Friction:



Moment of a force:

Torque about a couple:

Principle of moments

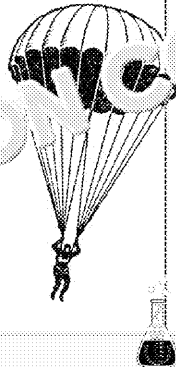
Free-body diagrams

Motion in one and two dimensions

Support reactions

## Non-uniform acceleration

Air resistance and terminal velocity



### Exam Tip!

Objects with a larger surface area will experience a greater drag, as will less streamlined objects.

Investigating terminal velocity

## Density and pressure

Density,  $\rho$ :

Pressure,  $p$ :

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# Work, energy, power and

## Work, energy and power

Work done /  
energy transfer:

Rate of  
energy



Efficiency:

### Derivations

Kinetic energy

Gravitational potential energy

Power

Hook

Elastic

Energy  
spring

## Conservation of energy



## Young modulus

Determining

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# Newton's laws of motion

## Newton's first law

1

What does Newton's first law tell us?

Newton's first law



### Exam Tip!

You will be expected to identify that if an object is at rest or moving with constant velocity, then the forces on that object are balanced – there is no resultant force.

## Newton's second law



2

The special case: constant mass



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# Current and poten



## Charge

Electric current:

Net charge:

Moving charges



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Kirchhoff's first law

Example

## Mean drift velocity

Conductors:  Semiconductors:

Conductors:  Semiconductors:



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## Resistance

# Resistance and pow

Measuring current and potential difference



## Current-voltage characteristics




Tem

## Power



Kilowatt-hour

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# Circuits, electromotive force and i

## Circuits

Series and parallel circuits

Circuits with more than one power source

## Potential divider

Variable

Thermistor

Investigating LDRs and thermistors

**Exam Tip!**  
Remember, potential divider circuits are simply series circuits, so all the same rules for current, voltage and resistance relationships in series apply.

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# Wave motion

## Progressive waves

Properties of a wave



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Wave equations:

A rectangular box intended for writing wave equations.

## Transverse waves and longitudinal waves

Oscilloscopes



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Intensity

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# Refraction, diffraction and interference

## Electromagnetic spectrum

Superposition:

**Exam Tip!**  
You are expected to know the orders of magnitude for the electromagnetic spectrum.

Investigating superposition



Physics

## Refraction of light

**Exam Tip!**  
Note that you will be expected to recall that the refractive index of air is approximately 1.

Interference

Total internal reflection



Investigating total internal reflection

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# Stationary waves and quantum physics

## Stationary waves



Harmonics:

### Exam Tip!

The first harmonic is sometimes called the **fundamental mode**.



Investigating the speed of sound



## Photons

Terms of the photoelectric effect

Determining  $h$

## Wave-particle duality

Electron diffraction

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# Mark Scheme

## 1. Units and measurements

1. The SI base units are a set of fundamental units from which all other SI units can be derived.

2.

Physical quantity	Base unit
Amount of substance	mole
Temperature	kelvin
Length	metre
Time	second
Mass	kilogram
Current	ampere

3. a)

$$v = \frac{d}{t}$$

$$v = \frac{m}{s}$$

$$v = m s^{-1}$$

b)

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

$$P = \frac{J}{s}$$

$$P = \frac{kg m^2 s^{-2}}{s}$$

$$P = kg m^2 s^{-3}$$

c)

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

$$a = \frac{d}{t^2}$$

$$a = \frac{m}{s^2}$$

$$a = m s^{-2}$$

d)

$$F = ma$$

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

$$F = m \frac{d}{t^2}$$

$$F = kg \frac{m}{s^2}$$

4. An equation with the same units on both sides.

5. a)  $\rho = \frac{m}{V}$

Units  $\rho =$

Units  $\frac{m}{V} =$

Units  $\frac{m}{V} =$

Units  $\frac{m}{V} =$

b)  $v^2 = u^2 +$

Units  $v^2 =$

Units  $v^2 =$

Units  $u^2 +$

Units  $u^2 +$

Units  $u^2 +$

c)  $P = VI$

Units  $P =$

Units  $P =$

Units  $VI =$

Units  $VI =$

Units  $VI =$

Units  $VI =$

(In SI units)

6.

Physical quantity
Mass of average
Speed of sea
Height of average
Mass of a
Density of w
Air pressure

7.  $W = F \times d$

$W = mg \times h$

$h = \text{height of average}$

$m = \text{mass of box}$

$W = (2 \times 10) \times 2$

$W = 40 \text{ J}$

8. Independent variable

column, dependent

the second column

All data should be

significant figures

Units should be

9. Each axis requires

Independent variable

dependent variable

y-axis. Data points

Axis marks should

Line of best fit should

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## 2. Uncertainties, vectors and scalars

1. Systematic errors are errors which cause the measurements to deviate from the true value by a set amount in one direction, whereas random errors cause the measurement values to randomly deviate from the true value. Additionally, systematic errors are errors which can be predicted, whereas random errors are due to unpredictable fluctuations causing the readings to alter during investigation.

2. A measurement is accurate if its value is in close proximity to the true (accepted) value, whereas a precise measurement is a measurement that is in close proximity to other repeated measurements.

3. a) random  
b) systematic  
c) systematic

4. a)
  - Regular calibration of equipment
  - Regular inspection of instruments / repeat the measurement with the same type of apparatus to ensure obtaining comparable results
  - Ensuring accurate experimental method is used
  - Good record keeping of measurement readings / care taken when reading measurements
- b)
  - Take repeated measurements and find the mean
  - Use specifically chosen equipment / experimental method to reduce random fluctuations in surroundings (e.g. equipment that is less affected by temperature changes in surroundings)

5. 
$$a = \frac{F}{m}$$
$$a = \frac{10}{1.2}$$
$$a = 8.3 \text{ m s}^{-2}$$

$$\frac{\Delta F}{F} = \frac{1}{10}$$

$$\frac{\Delta F}{F} = 0.1$$

$$\frac{\Delta m}{m} = \frac{0.1}{1.2}$$

$$\frac{\Delta m}{m} = 0.1$$

$$\frac{\Delta a}{a} = \frac{\Delta F}{F} + \frac{\Delta m}{m}$$

$$\frac{\Delta a}{a} = 0.1 + 0.1$$

$$\frac{\Delta a}{a} = 0.2$$

$$\Delta a = 0.2 \times 8.3$$

$$\Delta a = \pm 1.7$$

$$a = 8.3 \pm 1.7 \text{ m s}^{-2}$$

6. a) % uncertainty

% uncertainty

% uncertainty

b) % uncertainty

% uncertainty

% uncertainty

% uncertainty

7. Worst gradient

$$\text{Uncertainty} = \frac{1}{2} \times \text{gradient}$$

$$\text{Uncertainty} = \frac{1}{2} \times 5.4$$

$$\text{Gradient} = 2.7$$

8. A scalar is a physical quantity defined by its magnitude, whereas a vector is defined by its magnitude and direction.

9.

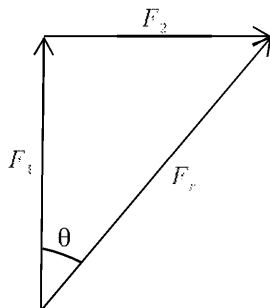
Scalar
Mass
Energy
Temperature
Distance
Speed

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10.



$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$

$$F_1^2 + F_2^2 = F_r^2$$

$$(30.0)^2 + (10.4)^2 = 1008.16 \text{ N}$$

$$F_r^2 = 1008.16 \text{ N}$$

$$F_r = 31.8 \text{ N}$$

$$\tan \theta =$$

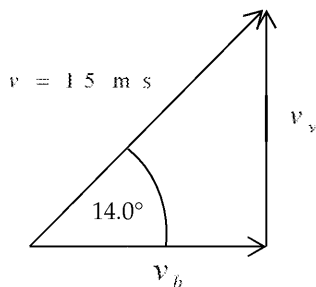
$$\tan \theta = \frac{10.4}{30}$$

$$\tan \theta = 0.35$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(0.35)$$

$$\theta = 19.1^\circ$$

11.



$$v_h = v \cos \theta$$

$$v_h = 15.0 \times \cos 14^\circ$$

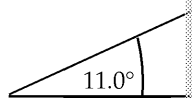
$$v_h = 14.6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

$$v_v = v \sin \theta$$

$$v_v = 15.0 \times \sin 14.0^\circ$$

$$v_v = 3.62 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

12.



$$W_{per} = W \cos \theta$$

$$W_{per} = 78.0 \times \cos \theta$$

$$W_{per} = 76.6 \text{ N}$$

$$W_{par} = W \sin \theta$$

$$W_{par} = 78.0 \times \sin \theta$$

$$W_{par} = 14.9 \text{ N}$$

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### 3. Motion

1. a) The distance in a given direction
- b) The total displacement travelled in the total time elapsed for the journey
- c) The separation between two points in space
- d) The total distance travelled in the total time elapsed during the journey
- e) The velocity at an instance of time
- f) The speed at an instance of time
- g) Rate of change of velocity

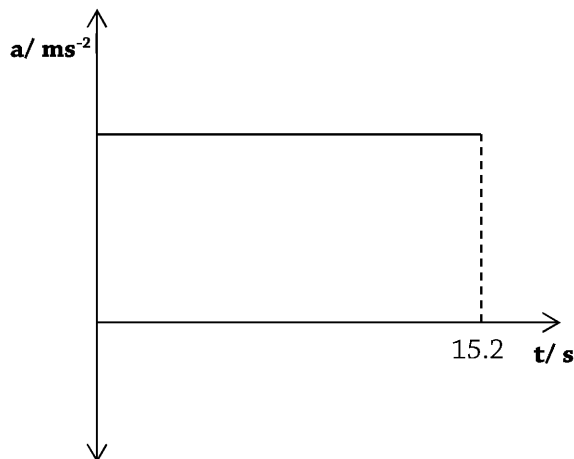
2. a)  $0 \text{ m s}^{-1}$

b) displacement = area under velocity time graph

$$\text{displacement} = 2 \times \left( \frac{1}{2} \times 8.1 \times \left( \frac{15.2}{2} \right) \right)$$

$$\text{displacement} = 61.6 \text{ m}$$

c)



d) From the gradient of the velocity-time graph

3. a)  $a = \frac{v-u}{t}$   
 $a = \frac{12.2-2.2}{10.5}$   
 $a = 0.952 \text{ m s}^{-2}$

b)  $v^2 = u^2 + 2as$   
 $v = \sqrt{u^2 + 2as}$   
 $v = \sqrt{13.2^2 + 2 \times 0.952 \times 10.5}$   
 $v = 13.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$

4. Height reached

$$v^2 = u^2 + 2as$$

$$\frac{v^2 - u^2}{2a} = s$$

$$s_{up} = \frac{0 - 2.4^2}{2 \times -9.81} = 0.29$$

$$s_{total} = 8.5 + 0.29 = 8.79 \text{ m}$$

Time falling

$$s = ut + \frac{1}{2}at^2$$

$$ut = 0$$

$$t = \sqrt{\frac{2s}{g}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 8.79}{9.81}} = 1.34 \text{ s}$$

Time to top of path

$$v = u + at$$

$$u = 0$$

$$t = \frac{u}{g} = \frac{2.4}{9.81} = 0.24 \text{ s}$$

$$t_{total} = 1.34 + 0.24 = 1.58 \text{ s}$$

5. a) Car 3, 7 m

b) Weight of car, friction, brakes, pool

6. The horizontal component of velocity remains constant as it is not affected by gravity. The vertical component is affected throughout the motion due to acceleration upon by acceleration.

7. The horizontal and vertical components of projectile are independent.

8. a) They both have the same horizontal velocity.

b)  $s = \frac{1}{2}gt^2$

$$s = \frac{1}{2} \times 9.81 \times 6^2$$

$$s = 177 \text{ m}$$

c)  $d = vt$

$$d = 5.5 \times 6$$

$$d = 33 \text{ m}$$

d) It would have the same range. The range of the projectile is determined by the horizontal velocity and time of flight.

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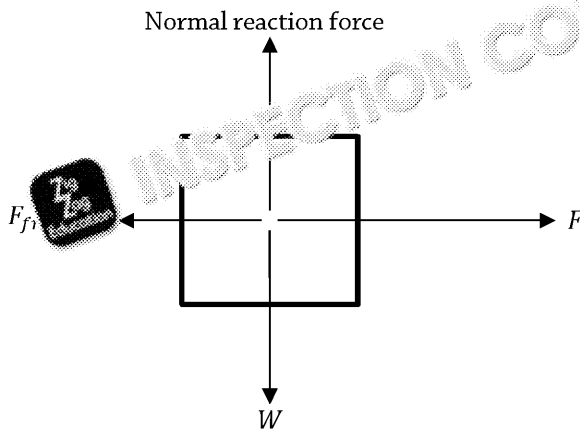


## 4. Forces in motion

1. a)  $W = mg$   
 $W = 45.0 \times 9.81$   
 $W = 441 \text{ N}$

b)  $F = ma$   
 $a = \frac{F}{m}$   
 $a = \frac{630 - 110}{45.0}$   
 $a = 11.6 \text{ m s}^{-2}$

c)



2. • The skydiver will accelerate towards the ground and as the velocity of the skydiver increases the drag force acting on the skydiver will also increase. The skydiver will continue accelerating towards the ground until the skydiver opens her parachute.
- Once the skydiver opens the parachute, the drag force acting will dramatically increase, and eventually the drag force (acting upwards) will equal the weight of the skydiver (acting downwards). When this occurs, the skydiver will have reached terminal velocity.
- The skydiver will then travel towards the ground at a constant velocity.

3. **Moment of a force:** The moment of a force about a point is defined as the product of the force and the perpendicular distance from the line of action of the force to the point.

**Couple:** A pair of equal and opposite parallel forces acting on an object along different lines.

**Moment of a couple:** The moment of a couple is defined as the product of the force and the perpendicular distance between the lines of action of the forces.

4.  $moment = F \times d$   
 $moment = 30 \times 0.2$   
 $moment = 6 \text{ N m}$

5.  $W_1 d_1 = W_2 d_2$   
 $d_2 = \frac{W_1 d_1}{W_2}$   
 $d_2 = \frac{660 \times 1.60}{750}$   
 $d_2 = 1.41 \text{ m}$

6.  $S_1 D = W d_2$   
 $S_1 = \frac{W d_2}{D}$   
 $S_1 = \frac{7.9 \times 10^7 \times 6 \times 10^3}{6 \times 10^3}$   
 $S_1 = 4.2 \times 10^9 \text{ N}$

7. a) *Horizontal:*  
 $F_{1h} = F_1 \cos \theta$   
 $F_{1h} = 20.4 \times \cos 30^\circ$   
 $F_{1h} = 20.0 \text{ N}$

*Vertical:*  
 $F_{1v} = F_1 \sin \theta$   
 $F_{1v} = 20.4 \times \sin 30^\circ$   
 $F_{1v} = 3.89 \text{ N}$

b)  $F_3 = F_{1h} + F_{2h}$   
 $F_3 = 20.4 \times \cos 30^\circ + 20.0$   
 $F_3 = 40.1 \text{ N}$

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## 5. Work, energy, power and materials

1. a) Moving an object with a force in the direction of the force  
 b) The rate of doing work / the rate of energy transfer

$$W = F \cos \theta d$$

$$W = 142 \times \cos 15.6 \times 7.6$$

$$W = 1040 \text{ J}$$

$$\text{efficiency} = \frac{\text{output}}{\text{input}} \times 100 \%$$

$$\text{efficiency} = \frac{1.02 \times 10^6}{5.6 \times 10^6} \times 100 \%$$

$$\text{efficiency} = 18.2 \%$$

4. a)  $P = \frac{W}{t}$   
 $\frac{x}{t} = v$   
 $P = Fv$

b)  $W = Fx = E_k$   
 $[F = ma]$   
 $E_k = max$   
 $v^2 = u^2 + 2ax$   
 $[u = 0]$   
 $a = \frac{v^2}{2x}$   
 $E_k = m \frac{v^2}{2} x$   
 $E_k = \frac{1}{2} m v^2$

5. For an isolated system, energy is conserved. Energy cannot be created or destroyed, only transferred into different forms.

6. a) Gravitational potential energy to kinetic energy

b)  $mgh = \frac{1}{2} mv^2$   
 $gh = \frac{1}{2} v^2$   
 $v = \sqrt{2gh}$   
 $v = \sqrt{2 \times 9.81 \times 50.5}$   
 $v = 31.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$

7. a) The force applied is directly proportional to the extension of the material unless the elastic limit has been reached.

b)  $F = k \Delta L$   
 $F = 2.9 \times (5 \times 10^{-2})$   
 $F = 0.1 \text{ N}$

8. a) The point will return to its original position after the force is removed

- b) The force is proportional to the extension

- c) The extension is directly proportional to the force

9.  $\rho = \frac{m}{V}$   
 $\rho = \frac{0.10}{(5.2 \times 10^{-6})}$   
 $\rho = 1890 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$

10.  $E = \frac{1}{2} F \Delta L$   
 $E = \frac{1}{2} \times 45 \times 0.05$   
 $E = 1.1 \text{ J}$

11. A = limit of proportionality  
 B = Ultimate tensile strength  
 C = Breaking point

12.  $E = \text{gradient of stress-strain}$   
 $E = \frac{1.75}{0.3}$   
 $E = 5.83 \text{ N m}^{-2}$

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## 6. Newton's laws of motion

1. An object will either stay at rest or move with constant velocity unless acted upon by an external resultant force.

2. a) No  
b) Yes  
c) No

3. Since the cyclist is traveling at a constant velocity, the forces acting on the cyclist must be balanced. Therefore, the combination of frictional force and drag force must be equal to the driving force.

4. a) The net force acting on an object is directly proportional to the change of momentum and is in the same direction.

$$F = \frac{\Delta(mv)}{\Delta t} = \left( \frac{\Delta mv}{\Delta t} \right)$$

5. a) Yes  
b) Yes  
c) No

6. Newton's second law states:

$$F = \frac{\Delta(mv)}{t}$$

Therefore, when the mass is constant it can be rewritten as

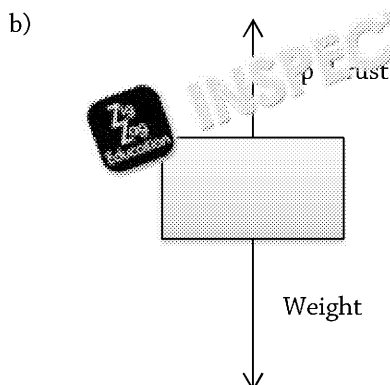
$$F = \frac{m\Delta v}{\Delta t}$$

$$F = \frac{m(v-u)}{t}$$

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

$$F = ma$$

7. a)  $F = ma$   
 $F = 3.5 \times 10^3 \times 1.2$   
 $F = 4.2 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$



c)  $F_{net} = Upthrust - W$   
 $Upthrust = W + F_{net}$   
 $Upthrust = 3000 + 3000$   
 $Upthrust = 6000 \text{ N}$

8. If object A exerts a force on object B, object B exerts an equal and opposite force on object A.

9. When the air is pushed down, the third law states that the air will exert a force on the balloon, and the balloon will exert a force back on the air. This is a resultant force that will push the balloon up. The force back on the air will push the air down. The balloon will rise due to the escaping air.

10.  $p = mv$   
 $p = 930 \times 7.2$   
 $p = 6696$   
 $p = 6700 \text{ kg m s}^{-1}$

11. a)  $m_1 u_1 + m_2 u_2 = m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2$   
 $890 \times 10.6 + 830 \times 9.8 = 890 v_2 + 830 v_2$   
 $9434 = 2580 v_2$   
 $830 v_2 = 9434 - 9434$   
 $830 v_2 = 6800$   
 $v_2 = 8.26 \text{ m s}^{-1}$

b)  $E_{k\text{before}} = \frac{1}{2} m v^2$   
 $E_{k\text{before}} = \frac{1}{2} \times 890 \times 10.6^2$   
 $E_{k\text{before}} = 50000 \text{ J}$   
 $E_{k\text{after}} = \frac{1}{2} m v^2$   
 $E_{k\text{after}} = \frac{1}{2} \times 890 \times 8.26^2$   
 $E_{k\text{after}} = 30000 \text{ J}$   
 $E_{k\text{before}} \neq E_{k\text{after}}$

Therefore the

12. a)  $\text{Impulse} = m \Delta v$   
 $\text{Impulse} = 2000 \times 2.6$   
 $\text{Impulse} = 5200 \text{ N s}$

b)  $\text{Impulse} = m \Delta v$   
 $\text{Impulse} = 2000 \times 2.6$   
 $v = \frac{\text{Impulse}}{m}$   
 $v = \frac{5200}{90}$   
 $v = 58 \text{ m s}^{-1}$

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## 7. Current and potential

1. a) The rate of flow of electric charge

$$b) I = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t}$$

$$I = \frac{34}{500}$$

$$I = 0.068 \text{ A}$$

$$c) n = \frac{Q}{q}$$

$$n = \frac{34}{1.6 \times 10^{-19}}$$

$$n = 2.1 \times 10^{20}$$

2. a) **Electric current:** the flow of electrons

b) **Conventional current:** current from positive terminal to negative terminal

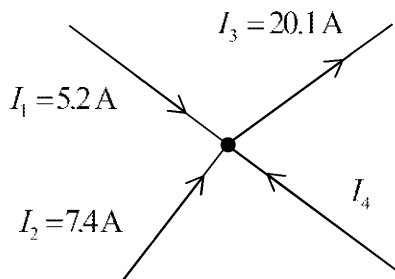
c) **Electron flow:** flow of electrons from negative to positive terminal

d) **Electric current in electrolyte:** the flow of ions

$$3. I_4 = I_3 - (I_1 + I_2)$$

$$I_4 = 20.1 - (7.4 + 5.2)$$

$$I_4 = 7.5 \text{ A}$$



4. Conductors have free electrons that are shared between atoms. Typically,  $n = 10^{28} \text{ m}^{-3}$  to  $10^{29} \text{ m}^{-3}$ . Electrons in insulators are tightly bound to atoms and cannot move between atoms.  $n = 0$ . Semiconductors have electrons that are typically bound to atoms but can be freed from atoms by absorbing energy.  $n = 10^{15} \text{ m}^{-3}$  to  $10^{18} \text{ m}^{-3}$ .

$$5. I = Anev$$

$$v = \frac{I}{Ane}$$

$$I \sim 10^{-2} \quad A \sim 10^{-6} \quad n \sim 10^{28} \quad e \sim 10^{-19}$$

$$v \sim \frac{10^{-2}}{10^{-6} \times 10^{28} \times 10^{-19}}$$

$$v \sim 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

6.

Component
Cell
Lamp
Voltmeter
Ammeter
Resistor
Diode
Thermistor
LDR (light-dependent resistor)
Variable resistor

7. **Potential difference:** the work done per unit charge by the electric field in moving carriers across the circuit.  
**Electromotive force:** the work done per unit charge by the source in moving carriers in the circuit.

$$8. W = VQ$$

$$V = \frac{W}{Q}$$

$$V = \frac{96.5}{37}$$

$$V = 2.6 \text{ V}$$

9. Answer

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

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2eV}{m}}$$

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 1.60 \times 10^{-19} \times 2.6}{9.11 \times 10^{-31}}}$$

$$v = 1.25 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

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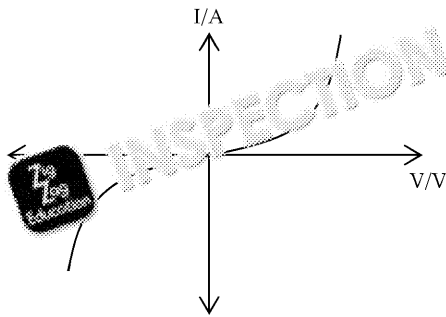


## 8. Resistance and power

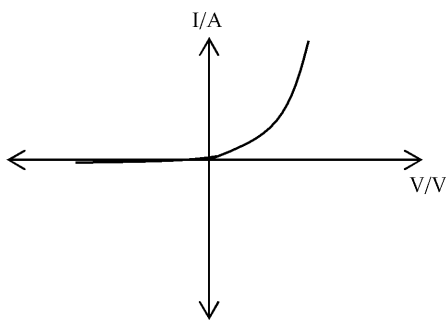
1. a)  $I = \frac{V}{R}$   
 $I = \frac{11.5}{15}$   
 $I = 0.77 \text{ A}$

b)  $W = VQ$   
 $W = 11.5 \times 3.5$   
 $40 \text{ J}$

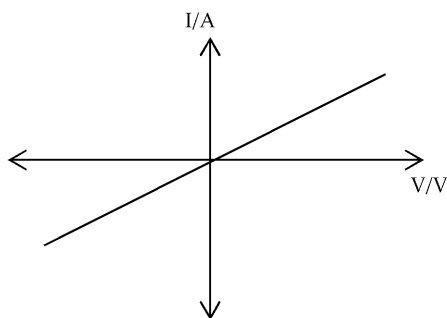
2. a)



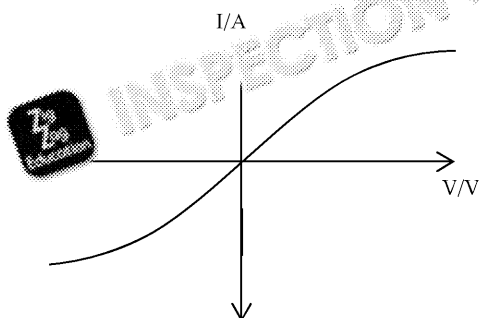
b)



c)



d)



3. a)  $V = IR$   
 $V = 1.2 \times 12$   
 $V = 14.4 \text{ V}$

b)  $P = IV$   
 $P = 1.2 \times 14.4$   
 $P = 17.28 \text{ W}$   
 $P = 17.3 \text{ W}$

c)  $E = Pt$   
 $E = 17.28 \times 500$   
 $E = 8640 \text{ J}$

4. a)  $\rho = \frac{RA}{L}$   
 $\rho = \frac{6.7 \times 2}{79}$   
 $\rho = 1.8 \times 10^{-7} \text{ } \Omega \text{ m}$

b) If the length of the wire is doubled, the resistance is also doubled.

5. a) i) As the temperature of the filament bulb increases, the resistance of the filament increases. The current through the filament decreases.  
 ii) A thermistor is a resistor whose resistance decreases as the temperature increases.

6.  $E = IVt$   
 $E = 12.0 \times 230 \times 60$   
 $E = 317\,400 \text{ J}$   
 $E = \frac{317\,400}{1000 \times 60 \times 60}$   
 $\text{cost} = 0.08817 \text{ p}$   
 $\text{cost} = 0.935 \text{ p}$

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## 9. Circuits

1. In any electrical circuit, the sum of the electromotive force is equal to the sum of the potential differences in a closed loop. ( $\Sigma \mathcal{E} = \Sigma V$  around closed loop)

$$R_T = R_1 + R_2 + R_3$$

$$R_T = 10 + 10 + 10$$

$$R_T = 30 \Omega$$

$$3. \quad \frac{1}{R_T} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \dots$$

4. a)  $\frac{1}{R_T} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5}$

$$\frac{1}{R_T} = \frac{8}{15}$$

$$R_T = 1.9 \Omega$$

$$\frac{1}{R_T} = \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\frac{1}{R_T} = \frac{10}{21}$$

$$R_T = 2.1 \Omega$$

$$R_T = 1.9 + 2.1$$

$$R_T = 4.0 \Omega$$

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

$$I = \frac{12}{4}$$

$$I = 3.0 \text{ A}$$

c) No, as the current splits across parallel branches ( $I_T = I_1 + I_2 + \dots$ ) and the branches have different resistance, more current goes through the  $5\Omega$ .

5. a)  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_1 + \mathcal{E}_2 + \mathcal{E}_3 + \mathcal{E}_4$

$$\mathcal{E} = 4 \times 9.0 = 36 \text{ V}$$

$$V = IR$$

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

$$I = \frac{36}{20}$$

$$I = 1.8 \text{ A}$$

b)  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_1 = \mathcal{E}_2 = \mathcal{E}_3 = \mathcal{E}_4$

$$\mathcal{E} = 9.0$$

$$V = IR$$

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

$$I = \frac{9.0}{21}$$

$$I = 0.47 \text{ A}$$

6. a) As the temperature increases, the thermistor's resistance decreases. The potential difference across the thermistor increases until high temperature.

b)  $V_{out} = \frac{8.5}{8.5 + 10} \times 12$

$$V_{out} = 6.8 \text{ V}$$

7. a) **Terminal potential difference**

b) **Electromotive force** is the energy given to a unit charge – there is no internal resistance.

c) **Internal resistance** is the resistance of the source that the current passes through between terminals.

8. a)  $\mathcal{E} = IR + Ir$

$$r = \frac{\mathcal{E} - IR}{I}$$

$$r = \frac{24 - (1.2 \times 20)}{1.2}$$

$$r = 1.2 \Omega$$

b)  $V = IR$

$$V = 1.9 \times 12$$

$$V = 22.8 \text{ V}$$

c) When there is a short circuit, the work done by the battery is done by the internal resistance. As some energy is lost to the internal resistance, therefore, the terminal e.m.f. is smaller than the e.m.f. of the battery.

Therefore, the terminal e.m.f. of the battery is smaller than the e.m.f. of the battery.

9. Comparing  $V = IR + Ir$

$$c = 15$$

$$c = e.m.f.$$

$$e.m.f. = 15 \text{ V}$$

$$m = -r$$

$$m = \frac{5 - 15}{3.2 - 0}$$

$$m = -3.1$$

$$r = 3.1 \Omega$$

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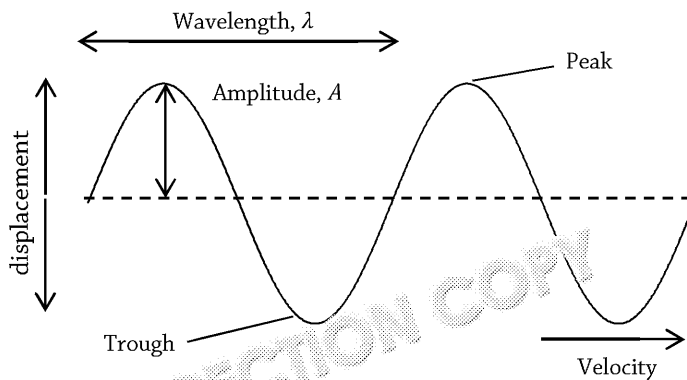
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## 10. Wave motion

1. A wave that transfers energy from one point to another without transferring any mass. Particles oscillate but do not move along the wave.

2.



3. a)  $A = 0.5 \text{ m}$

$$\lambda = 2.5 \text{ m}$$

$$\lambda = 2.5 \text{ m}$$

b)  $f = \frac{c}{\lambda}$

$$f = \frac{1.4}{2.5}$$

$$f = 0.56 \text{ Hz}$$

- c) 0.56 waves

d)  $T = \frac{1}{f}$

$$T = \frac{1}{0.56}$$

$$T = 1.8 \text{ s}$$

4. a) A transverse wave's particles oscillate perpendicular to the direction of energy transfer. Longitudinal wave oscillate in the same direction as energy transfer.

- b) Longitudinal: sound, P-waves from earthquakes  
Transverse: electromagnetic, waves on a string

5. a)  $I = \frac{P}{A}$

$$P = IA$$

$$P = 83 \times 6.2$$

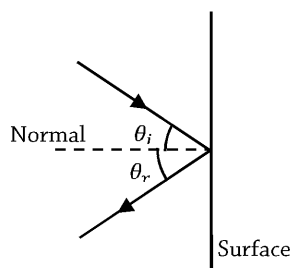
$$P = 515 \text{ W}$$

- b) Intensity  $\propto$  (amplitude)<sup>2</sup>  
Amplitude decreases by factor  $\frac{1}{2}$

Intensity decreases by factor  $\frac{1}{2}^2 = \frac{1}{4}$

$$\frac{83}{4} = 20.8 \text{ W m}^{-2}$$

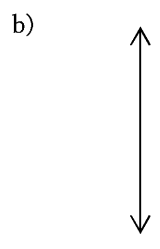
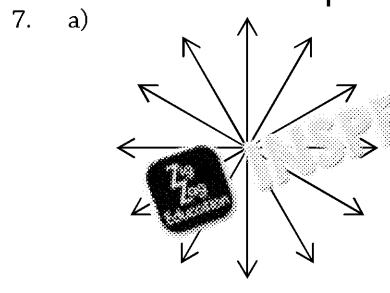
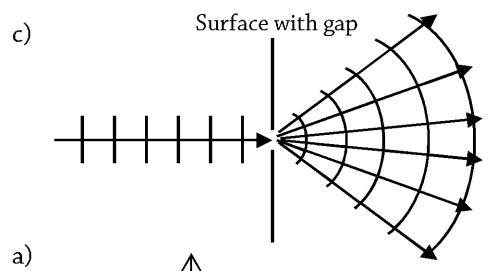
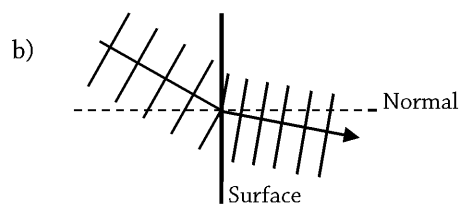
6. a)



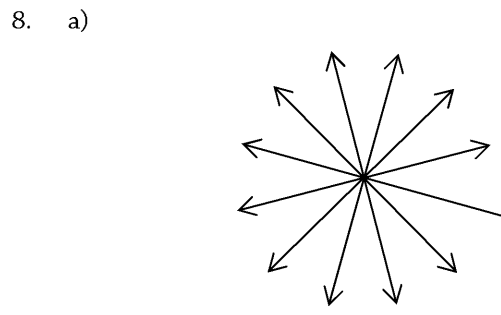
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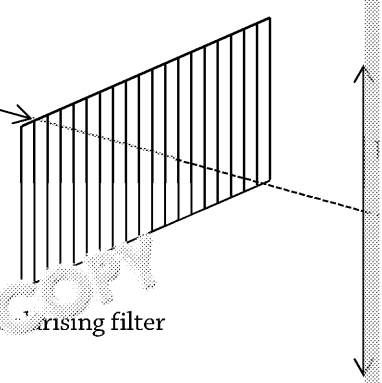




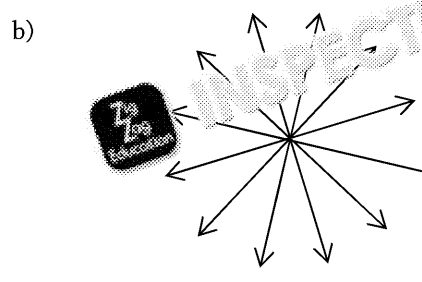
c) A longitudinal wave cannot be plane polarised as it already only oscillates in one plane. If a wave is plane polarised, it must be a transverse wave (a wave that oscillates in multiple planes).



Unpolarised light



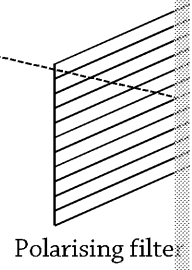
Polarising filter



Unpolarised light

Plane polarised light

Polarising filter

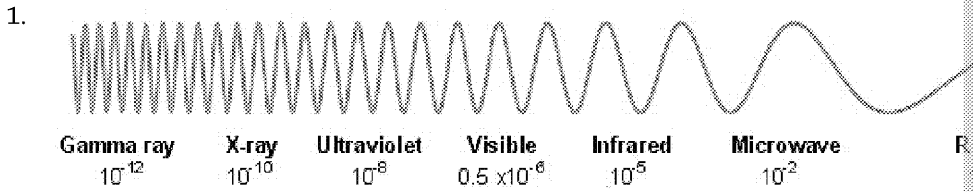


Polarising filter

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# 11. Refraction, diffraction and interference



2. Refraction refers to the process of light rays changing speed and direction as they pass between the interface of the boundary of two mediums.

3. 
$$n = \frac{c_2}{c_1}$$
  
 Given that  $c \approx c_{air}$

$$n = \frac{c}{c_{air}}$$

4. a) 
$$n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2$$
  

$$1 \times \sin 23 = 1.5 \times \sin \theta_2$$
  

$$\sin \theta_2 = \frac{\sin 23}{1.5}$$
  

$$\sin \theta_2 = 0.26$$
  

$$\theta_2 = \sin^{-1}(0.26)$$
  

$$\theta_2 = 15^\circ$$

b) No, because the light ray is moving from a lower refractive index to a higher refractive index, which contradicts the condition that for total internal reflection to occur, the light has to be travelling from higher refractive index to lower.

5. 
$$\sin \theta_c = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$$
  

$$\sin \theta_c = \frac{n_{air}}{n_{diamond}}$$
  

$$\theta_c = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{n_{air}}{n_{diamond}}\right)$$
  

$$\theta_c = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2.42}\right)$$
  

$$\theta_c = 24.4^\circ$$

6. **Interference:** The process of two coherent waves creating a resultant wave either through cancellation or reinforcement.  
**Coherence:** Sources of waves are coherent if they emit waves of the same frequency with constant phase difference.  
**Path difference:** The difference in the distances between two coherent wave sources.

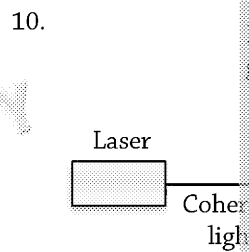
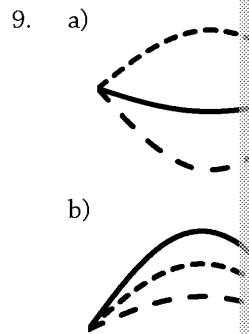
7. A single light source of light hits the double slits, causing diffraction and interfere constructively, if the path difference is a multiple of the wavelength, destructive interference occurs in regions of light.

8. 
$$w = \frac{\lambda D}{s}$$
  

$$s = \frac{\lambda D}{w}$$
  

$$s = \frac{(330 \times 10^{-9}) (1.5 \times 10^{-2})}{2.9 \times 10^{-4}}$$
  

$$s = 2.9 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}$$



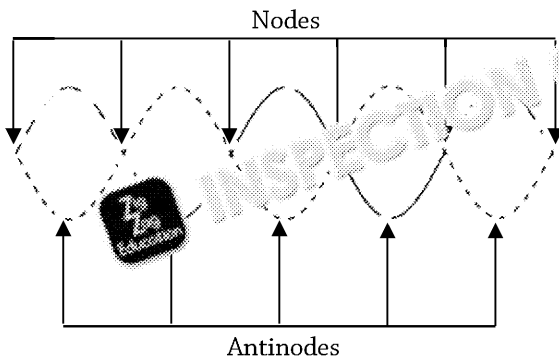
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## 12. Stationary wave and quantum mechanics

1.  $d = \frac{1}{2} \lambda$   
 $d = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \times 1.72 \right)$   
 $d = 0.43 \text{ m}$
2.  $\frac{20}{8} = 2.5 \text{ wavelengths}$   
 i.e. 5<sup>th</sup> harmonic



3.  $E = hf$   
 $f = \frac{E}{h}$   
 $f = \frac{2.8 \times 10^{-18}}{6.63 \times 10^{-34}}$   
 $f = 4.22 \times 10^{15} \text{ Hz}$
4. Calculate the wavelength of a photon with an energy of 38 eV.  
 $E = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$   
 $\lambda = \frac{hc}{E}$   
 $E = 38 \text{ eV} = 38 \times 1.60 \times 10^{-19} = 6.08 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J}$   
 $\lambda = \frac{6.63 \times 10^{-34} \times 3.00 \times 10^8}{6.08 \times 10^{-18}}$   
 $\lambda = 3.27 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m} (= 32.7 \text{ nm})$
5. a)  $E_3 - E_2 = -1.5 - (-3.4) \text{ eV}$   
 $E_3 - E_2 = 1.9 \text{ eV}$   
 b) Since the electron has moved from lower energy level to higher energy level, the electron has gained energy and, therefore, must have absorbed a photon (and its energy).
6. The photoelectric effect is a term for the process of electron emission from the surface of a metal due to light with a frequency above the threshold frequency incident on its surface.

7.  $E_{k \text{ max}} = hf - \phi$   
 $\phi = hf - E_{k \text{ max}}$   
 $\phi = 6.63 \times 10^{-34}$   
 $\phi = 6.88 \times 10^{-19}$   
 $\phi = \frac{6.88 \times 10^{-19}}{1.6 \times 10^{-19}}$   
 $\phi = 4.3 \text{ eV}$

- **Threshold frequency**: the minimum frequency of light that can cause electrons to be emitted from the surface of the metal.
- **Work function**: the minimum energy that must be supplied to remove an electron from the surface of the metal.
- **Stopping potential**: the potential difference that must be applied to stop the most energetic photoelectrons from reaching the collector.
- **$E_{k \text{ max}}$** : the maximum kinetic energy of the photoelectrons.

9. While light is high frequency, electrons are particles. The photoelectric effect is a process in which light acts as waves.

10. • The process of diffraction of particles is similar to the diffraction of waves.  
 • The photoelectric effect is a process in which light acts as waves.

11. a)  $\lambda = \frac{h}{mv}$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv}$$

$$\lambda = 2.9 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}$$

- b) The wavelength of the light is  $2.9 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}$ .  
 c) The amount of energy absorbed by the electron is  $1.9 \text{ eV}$ .

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