

AQA GCSE PHYSICS

NOTEBOOK

ALL THE KEY
CONTENT IN 32
PAGES!



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ENERGY

ENERGY STORES & SYSTEMS

A system is an object or group of objects.

- Energy within a system can change when the system changes.

Systems can be:

- Open → Energy and matter can enter or leave.
- Closed → Only energy can enter or leave.
- Isolated → Neither energy nor matter can enter or leave.

ENERGY STORES

- Energy is stored in different ways depending on the object's state:
 1. Kinetic → Moving objects
 2. Gravitational Potential → Raised objects in a gravitational field
 3. Elastic Potential → Stretched or compressed objects
 4. Thermal → Hot objects
 5. Chemical → Stored in fuels, food, batteries
 6. Magnetic → Interacting magnets or magnetic materials
 7. Electrostatic → Interacting electric charges
 8. Nuclear → Energy within atomic nuclei

ENERGY TRANSFER PATHWAYS

Energy is transferred between stores through:

- Mechanically → By a force doing work (e.g. pushing, pulling)
- Electrically → By a moving charge (e.g. in circuits)
- Heating (by particles) → From hot cooler objects (conduction)
- Heating (by radiation) → By electromagnetic waves (e.g. light, infrared)

ENERGY TRANSFER EXAMPLES

OBJECT PROJECTED UPWARDS

Chemical store (muscles) → Kinetic store (moving ball) → Gravitational store (height increases)

MOVING OBJECT HITTING OBSTACLE

Chemical store (fuel) → Kinetic store (moving car) → Thermal store (wheels, surroundings, dissipated)

• Also: Friction → thermal (air, ground, sound) → air vibrations

VEHICLE ACCELERATING

Chemical store (fuel) → Kinetic store (speeding car)

VEHICLE STOPPING

Kinetic store → Thermal store (brakes, ground) → Sound → vibrations

BOILING WATER IN A KETTLE

Electrical store (mains) → Thermal store (heating element) → Thermal store (water)

KINETIC ENERGY (E_k)

- Energy an object has due to its mass and speed.

Energy Transfer:

- Speeds up → energy transferred to kinetic store
- Slows down → energy transferred away from kinetic store

EQUATION:

- $E_k = 1/2 \times m \times v^2$
- E_k = Kinetic energy (Joules, J)
- m = Mass (kilograms, kg)
- v = Speed (metres per second, m/s)

EXAMPLE CALCULATION:

Car travelling (2500 kg) at 20 m/s:

$$E_k = 1/2 \times 2500 \times 20^2 = 500,000 \text{ J}$$

Apple falling

$$E_k = 1/2 \times m \times v^2$$

TIP:

- Squared speed → Conversion mistakes
- Rearrange for mass or speed if a key skill in physics
- Regularly.

ELASTIC POTENTIAL ENERGY (E_e)

- Energy stored in an object when work is done to stretch or compress it.

Transfer:

From kinetic store → Elastic potential store

From elastic potential store → Kinetic store

EQUATION:

- $E_e = 1/2 \times k \times e^2$
- E_e = Elastic potential energy (Joules, J)
- k = Spring constant (Newtons per metre, N/m)
- e = Extension (metres, m)

EXAMPLE CALCULATIONS:

Spring (3 N/m) stretched by 0.5 m:

$$E_e = 1/2 \times 3 \times 0.5^2 = 0.375 \text{ J}$$

Spring (5 N/m) compressed by 0.2 m:

$$E_e = 1/2 \times 5 \times 0.2^2 = 0.1 \text{ J}$$

Spring (250 N/m) extended by 0.014 m:

$$E_e = 1/2 \times 250 \times 0.014^2 = 0.025 \text{ J (2 s.f.)}$$

TIP:

- Convert to metres if given in cm.
- Make sure the spring has not exceeded its limit of proportionality for this equation to be valid.

GRAVITATIONAL POTENTIAL ENERGY (E_p)

Energy stored in an object due to its height in a gravitational field.

Energy Transfer:
Lifted up → energy transferred to gravitational potential store
Dropped → energy transferred away from gravitational potential store

EQUATION:

- $E_p = m \times g \times h$
- E_p = Gravitational potential energy (Joules, J)
- m = Mass (kilograms, kg)
- g = Gravitational field strength (Newtons per kilogram, N/kg)
- h = Height (metres, m)

GRAVITATIONAL FIELD STRENGTH:

- Moon (less than Earth → easier to lift)
- Gas Giants (e.g. Jupiter): ~25 N/kg (more than Earth → harder to lift)

EXAMPLE CALCULATIONS:

Man (70 kg) climbing 3 m stairs ($g = 9.8 \text{ N/kg}$):

$$E_p = 70 \times 9.8 \times 3 = 2058 \text{ J}$$

Cannonball (5 kg) lifted 56 m ($g = 10 \text{ N/kg}$):

$$E_p = 5 \times 10 \times 56 = 2800 \text{ J}$$

Book (0.5 kg) lifted 1.5 m ($g = 10 \text{ N/kg}$):

$$E_p = 0.5 \times 10 \times 1.5 = 7.5 \text{ J}$$

TIP:

- Use $g = 9.8 \text{ N/kg}$ unless stated otherwise.
- Remember to convert mass to kg if given in grams.

THERMAL ENERGY (ΔE)

Energy in the thermal store of an object, related to its temperature.

SPECIFIC HEAT CAPACITY (c)

The amount of energy needed to raise the temperature of 1 kg of a substance by 1°C.

- Low Specific Heat Capacity: Heats up and cools down quickly (e.g. copper, 390 J/kg°C).
- High Specific Heat Capacity: Heats up and cools down slowly (e.g. water, 4200 J/kg°C).

EQUATION:

- $\Delta E = m \times c \times \Delta\theta$
- ΔE = Change in thermal energy (Joules, J)
- m = Mass (kilograms, kg)
- c = Specific heat capacity (J/kg°C)
- $\Delta\theta$ = Temperature change (degrees Celsius, °C)

EXAMPLE CALCULATION:

Heat 2.00 kg of water from 10°C to 100°C ($c = 4200 \text{ J/kg°C}$):

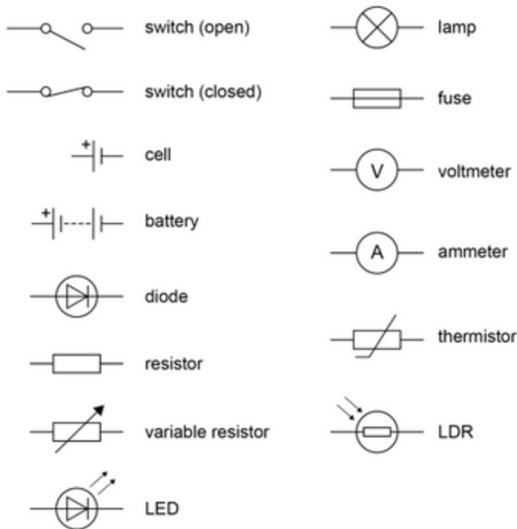
$$\Delta\theta = 100 - 10 = 90^\circ\text{C}$$

$$\Delta E = 2.00 \times 4200 \times 90 = 756,000 \text{ J}$$

TIP: Units Matter: Always check that mass is in kg and temp. change is in °C.

- You do not need to memorise specific heat capacity values, they will be given in exams.

CIRCUIT DIAGRAMS



- Cell/Battery: Provides potential difference (battery = 2 or more cells)
- Switch: Turns circuit on (closed) or off (open)
- Fixed Resistor: Limits current, fixed resistance
- Variable Resistor: Adjusts resistance (e.g., volume controls, dimmer switches)
- Thermistor: Resistance changes with temperature ($\downarrow$ temp = $\uparrow$ resistance)
- LDR: Resistance changes with light intensity ($\downarrow$ light = $\uparrow$ resistance)
- Diode: Current flows in one direction only (used for AC to DC conversion)
- LED: Emits light when current passes through (e.g., indicators)
- Ammeter: Measures current (connected in series)
- Voltmeter: Measures potential difference (connected in parallel)

REQUIRED PRACTICAL

EQUIPMENT LIST

- Power Supply $\rightarrow$ Source of potential difference
- Wires $\rightarrow$ Connect all components in the circuit
- Crocodile Clips $\rightarrow$ Connect different lengths of resistance wire
- Ammeter $\rightarrow$ Measure current (A)
- Voltmeter $\rightarrow$ Measure potential difference (V)
- Thin Resistance Wire
- Metre Ruler $\rightarrow$ Measure length

EFFECT OF WIRE LENGTH ON RESISTANCE

VARIABLES

- Independent $\rightarrow$ Length of wire
- Dependent $\rightarrow$ Resistance (R)
- Control $\rightarrow$ Potential difference of power supply, wire temperature

METHOD

- Set up circuit with power supply, ammeter, voltmeter and resistance wire.
- Attach crocodile clips to the wire at a certain length (e.g., 10 cm).
- Record the current (A) and potential difference (V).
- Move the second clip further along the wire (e.g., 20 cm, 30 cm) and repeat measurements.
- Calculate resistance using $R = V/I$ for each length.
- Plot a graph of resistance (y-axis) against wire length (x-axis).

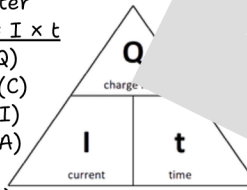
CHARGE & CURRENT

CURRENT AND CHARGE

- Current = Flow of electric charge
- Measured in amperes (A) using an ammeter

Formula: $Q = I \times t$

- Charge (Q) in coulombs (C)
- Current (I) in amperes (A)
- Time (t) in seconds (s)



WORKED EXAMPLE (CHARGE)

- A current of 0.5 A flows through a wire for 20 s. Calculate the charge that flows.

Step 1: Write down the known quantities

- Current (I) = 0.5 A
- Time (t) = 20 s

Step 2: Write down the formula

- $Q = I \times t$

Step 3: Substitute the values

- $Q = 0.5 \times 20 = 10 \text{ C}$

POTENTIAL DIFFERENCE

- The potential difference (V) is the energy transferred per unit charge across a component. Measured in volts (V) using a voltmeter (connected in parallel)

Formula: $V = W/Q$

- Work done (W) in joules (J)
- Charge (Q) in coulombs (C)

CURRENT, RESISTANCE & POTENTIAL DIFFERENCE

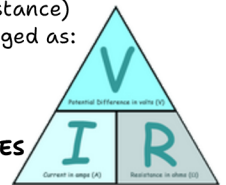
- Resistance - Opposition to current flow
- Measured in Ohms (Ω)
- Formula: $R = V/I$ (1 V / A)
- Current (I) depends on potential difference (V) and resistance (R)
- High resistance $\rightarrow$ low current (e.g., thin, long wires, insulators)
- Low resistance $\rightarrow$ high current (e.g., thick, short wires, good conductors)

OHM'S LAW

Formula: $V = I \times R$ (Potential difference = Current $\times$ Resistance)

Rearranged as:

- $I = V/R$
- $R = V/I$



WORKED EXAMPLES

Example 1:

- Problem: A resistor of 10Ω has a current of 0.3 A flowing through it. What is the potential difference?

Calculation:

- $V = I \times R$
- $V = 0.3 \times 10 = 3 \text{ V}$

Example 2:

- Problem: A voltmeter reads 6.0 V and the resistor is 4.0Ω . What is the current through the circuit?

Calculation:

- $I = V/R$

TIP Voltage and potential difference are the same thing - both are measured in volts (V).

ELECTRICITY

PRACTICAL CONT.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

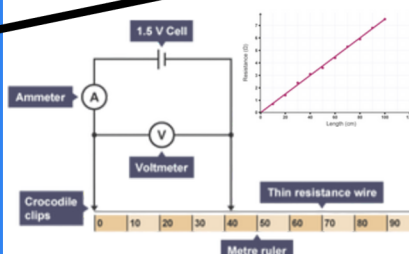
- The graph should be a straight line through the origin $\rightarrow$ resistance is directly proportional to wire length.
- Longer wires have higher resistance as electrons collide more frequently with metal ions.

EVALUATING THE EXPERIMENT

- Systematic Errors $\rightarrow$ Ensure crocodile clip is at 0 cm to avoid zero error | Check meters start at 0
- Random Errors $\rightarrow$ Use low currents to avoid heating the wire | Allow wire to cool between readings | Repeat for reliable results

SAFETY CONSIDERATIONS

- Avoid touching live wires - risk of burns if wire overheats
- Turn off power if burning is detected
- Keep liquids away from the equipment



SCALARS & VECTORS

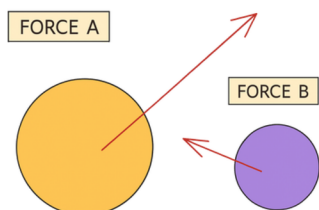
- Scalars → have magnitude only (e.g. speed, distance, mass)
- Vectors → have magnitude & direction (e.g. velocity, displacement, force)

Key comparisons

- Speed ↔ Velocity | Distance ↔ Displacement | Mass ↔ Weight
- Scalars = no direction | Vectors = include direction

VECTOR REPRESENTATION

- Vector shown as an arrow →
- Length = magnitude | Direction = direction of quantity
- E.g. Force A > Force B in magnitude | A points up-right, B points up-left



SCALAR VS VECTOR CONFUSION

- Displacement < Distance (displacement = straight line, distance = total path)
- Velocity ≠ Speed (same speed, different direction = different velocity)

RESULTANT FORCE – SAME DIRECTION

- Forces add if in same direction →
- E.g. 2 N + 3 N → Resultant = 5 N (same direction)



FORCES

RESULTANT FORCES

- Resultant force = single overall force from combining all individual forces on a body
- Also known as → net force

Balanced Forces:

- Equal and opposite forces
- e.g. weight down = normal force up
- resultant force = 0

Unbalanced Forces:

- Forces don't cancel → object accelerates in direction of larger force
- e.g. Person pulls 80 N left, Person pulls 100 N right → resultant = 20 N right

CALCULATING RESULTANT FORCE

- Same direction → add forces
- Opposite directions → subtract forces
- If equal forces → resultant = 0 (balanced)
- Always show magnitude + direction
- 10 N to the right

FREE BODY DIAGRAMS

- Show all forces on an object
- Each force = arrow (→) scale = magnitude → labelled → shows direction

CONTACT & NON-CONTACT FORCES

- A force = a push or pull due to interaction with another object

TYPES OF FORCES

- ◆ Contact = objects must touch → e.g. friction, tension, normal force, resistance, reaction force
- ◆ Non-contact = no contact needed → e.g. gravity, electrostatic, magnetic

EFFECTS OF FORCES

- Forces can → change speed | direction | shape

EXAMPLES OF CHANGES

- Thrust → changes speed
- Gravitational attraction → changes direction
- Compression → changes shape

CONTACT FORCE SUMMATION

- Friction opposes motion (e.g. rub)
- Normal force → perpendicular to surface (normal)
- Reaction force → opposite to action force
- Reaction force → opposite to action force

FORCE SUMMATION

- Static friction → opposes motion
- Dynamic friction → opposes motion
- Magnetic force → attractive/repulsive
- Gravitational force → attractive/repulsive

NEWTON'S

THIRD LAW

- When two objects interact → they exert equal and opposite forces on each other

- Gravitational force (gravitational) | Contact force (contact)

COMMON MISTAKES

- Don't use "wind resistance" or "air pressure" → correct = air resistance (drag)

FORCES AS VECTORS

- Forces are vector quantities → have both magnitude (N) and direction

FORCE PAIRS (INTERACTIONS)

- When two objects interact, they exert equal & opposite forces (Newton's 3rd Law).

Examples:

- Pushing rock → person pushes rock → rock pushes back
- Standing on ground → foot pushes down → ground pushes back up
- All force pairs shown as arrows in diagrams.

GRAVITY, WEIGHT & MASS

MASS – Amount of matter in an object | Scalar (no direction) | Measured in kg | Stays the same everywhere (e.g. Earth vs Moon)

Weight – Force due to gravity acting on an object | Vector (direction downwards) | Measured in N

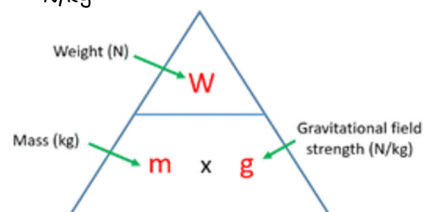
Newtonmeter – Measures weight | (Spring) | Changes with location

GRAVITATIONAL FIELD STRENGTH

- Force per unit mass | Measured in N/kg
- Earth ≈ 9.8 N/kg | Moon ≈ 1.6 N/kg

MASS-GRAVITY RELATIONSHIP

- Weight in N | m = mass in kg | g = gravitational field strength in N/kg



EXAMPLES

- Calculate weight
 - Mass = 70 kg | g = 9.8 N/kg → W = 70 x 9.8 = 686 N
- Calculate mass from weight
 - Weight = 98 N | g = 9.8 → m = 98 ÷ 9.8 = 10 kg

MEASURING MASS VS WEIGHT

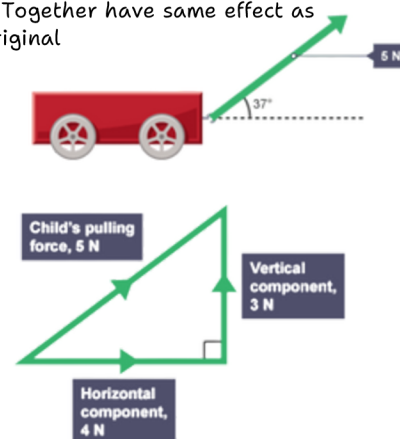
- Mass → measured with balance (compares mass to known mass)
- Weight → measured with spring balance/newtonmeter (measures force)

RESOLVING FORCES

Breaking a single force into components at right angles (horizontal and vertical) → Makes it easier to analyse forces acting at angles

- e.g. 5 N force at 37°
- Horizontal = 4 N
- Vertical = 3 N

→ Together have same effect as original



PRESSURE IN A FLUID

Fluids → liquids or gases that can flow.

- Pressure = concentration of force or force per unit area → formula: $P = F \div A$.
- Units → Pascals (Pa) | $1 \text{ Pa} = 1 \text{ N/m}^2$.
- Pressure acts at 90° (normal) to the surface.

EXAMPLES

- Tractors → large tyres → spread force over large area → ↓ pressure → no sinking.
- Nails/Drawing pins → sharp tip → small area → ↑ pressure → easier to penetrate.
- High heels vs Flat shoes → smaller area = higher pressure | larger area = lower pressure.

EQUATION

- $P = F \div A$
- rearrange: $F = P \times A$,
- $A = F \div P$.

→ Large area = small pressure | Small area = large pressure.

- Always use cross-sectional area where force acts at right angles.

In liquids:

- Immersed objects experience pressure from all directions → fluid exerts forces normal to surfaces.
- Pressure in fluids can be used to lift or move objects (e.g. hydraulic systems).

WORKED EXAMPLE

- Given: area = $2.73 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2$, pressure = $5.28 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}$
- $F = P \times A \Rightarrow (5.28 \times 10^5) \times (2.73 \times 10^{-2}) = 1.44 \times 10^4 \text{ N} = 14.4 \text{ kN}$ (3 s.f.)

ATMOSPHERIC PRESSURE

- The Earth's atmosphere is a thin layer of air around the planet → extends over 100 km into space.

At sea level:

- Air exerts a pressure of 100 kPa .
- Atmospheric pressure = air molecules colliding → force per unit area.

ATMOSPHERIC PRESSURE

Variation with Altitude:

- Altitude ↑ → Pressure ↓
- Higher altitude = fewer air molecules above → less weight of air pressing down
- Air becomes less dense, so fewer collisions with surfaces.

Graph shows:

- Decreases rapidly at first, then levels off with increasing height.

Key idea:

- Pressure is caused by the weight of air above.
- The higher you go, the smaller the air column and lower the pressure.
- Everyday links:
- Weather: high pressure = clear skies | low pressure = cloudy, unsettled.

PRESSURE IN A LIQUID (HT)

- Pressure in a liquid is caused by the weight of the liquid above a point → increases with depth and density.

KEY EQUATION:

- $p = h \times \rho \times g$

$$P = h \rho g$$

Pressure = height of the column x density of liquid x gravitational field strength

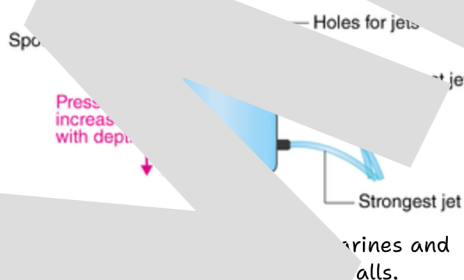
- p = pressure (Pa) | h = height/depth (m) | ρ = density (kg/m^3) | g = gravitational field strength (N/kg).
- On Earth, $g \approx 9.8 \text{ N/kg}$

FACTORS AFFECTING PRESSURE

- Depth (h): ↑ depth → ↑ pressure.
- Density (ρ): denser liquid → greater pressure per volume → ↑ pressure.
- Gravitational strength: stronger gravity → ↑ pressure.
- Direction of force: acts in all directions at right angles to surfaces.

EXAMPLES

- Pressure increases with depth.
- Jet from bottom nozzle is stronger than jet from top = weakest.

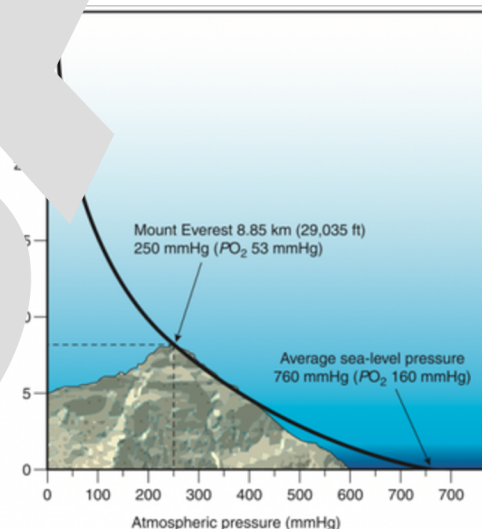


WORKED EXAMPLE:

- Find the pressure at 15 m depth in water ($\rho = 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$, $g = 9.8 \text{ N/kg}$).
- $p = h \rho g = 15 \times 1000 \times 9.8 = 147,000 \text{ Pa} = 147 \text{ kPa}$.

$$h = p \div (\rho g)$$

$$h = 147,000 \div (1000 \times 9.8) = 15 \text{ m}$$



UPTHRUST (HT)

Upthrust = upward force on an object submerged in a fluid (liquid or gas) → acts opposite to weight.

- Caused by difference in pressure between top and bottom of object → bottom experiences higher pressure (pressure ↑ with depth).

Upthrust = Weight of displaced fluid

- Denser fluid → greater upthrust.
- Volume of fluid displaced (larger volume → greater upthrust)

Effects:

- Object feels less when immersed (partially balanced by upthrust).
- Submarine: use tanks: fill with water to sink | fill with air → rise (weight vs upthrust).

FLOATING & SINKING

Balance condition:

- Float → Upthrust = Weight
- Sink → Weight > Upthrust
- Hover/submerged → Upthrust = Weight (neutral buoyancy)

Density link:

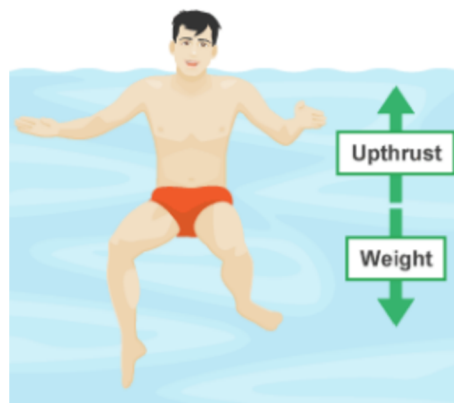
- Object less dense than fluid → floats.
- Object more dense than fluid → sinks.

Why:

- If object's density < fluid's, it displaces enough fluid before being fully submerged to make upthrust = its weight.
- If denser, it can't displace enough fluid → upthrust < weight → sinks.

Examples:

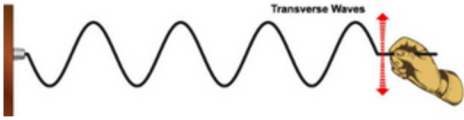
- Polystyrene ($\rho = 0.05 \text{ g/cm}^3$) → floats (much less dense than water, 1.0 g/cm^3).
- Wood ($\rho = 0.9 \text{ g/cm}^3$) → partly submerged but floats (slightly less dense).
- Iron ($\rho = 7.9 \text{ g/cm}^3$) → sinks (denser than water).



TRANSVERSE & LONGITUDINAL WAVES

Waves transfer energy, not matter → 2 types:

- Transverse → vibrations perpendicular to energy transfer
- Longitudinal → vibrations parallel to direction of energy transfer

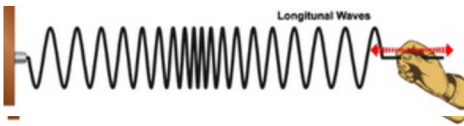


TRANSVERSE WAVES

Definition: Vibrate at right angles (90°) to direction of energy transfer → e.g. EM waves, ripples, S-waves, guitar strings

- Crest = highest point | Trough = lowest
- Can move through solids, liquid surfaces, and vacuum (EM only)

Seen on a rope → move hand up/down → wave travels across



LONGITUDINAL WAVES

Definition: Vibrate parallel to energy transfer → e.g. sound, P-waves, pressure waves

- Compression = close particles | Rarefaction = spread out
- Travel through solids, liquids, gases → not vacuum

Seen in a slinky → push/pull coil → wave travels forward

REPRESENTING WAVES

- Transverse: drawn as continuous curve
- Longitudinal: drawn as lines → compressions close, rarefactions spread

WAVEFRONTS

- Wavefront = top view of wave
- Transverse: 1 line = crest or trough | Longitudinal: 1 line = compression or rarefaction
- Close lines = short wavelength → Far apart = long wavelength

TIP Know the difference between wavefront diagram (line of wave) and wave shape diagram (side view)

TRANSMISSION OF SOUND WAVES

Speed depends on how close particles are. Fastest in solids (particles tightly packed).

- When sound moves from one medium to another, the speed changes
- This change can be used to find the speed of sound
- If speed is high, the wavelength is long
- If speed is low, the wavelength is short

REFRACTION OF SOUND FROM DENSER → LESS DENSE

- Velocity decreases
- Wavelength decreases
- Frequency stays the same

WAVE MOTION

- Waves transfer energy, not matter, through a medium → particles oscillate but remain in the same place.

AMPLITUDE (A)

- Maximum displacement from rest position to peak/trough.
- Measured in metres (m) → bigger amplitude = more energy.

WAVELENGTH (λ)

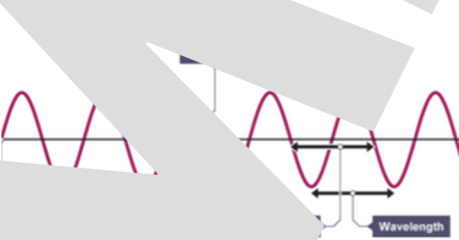
- Distance between same points on two adjacent waves (e.g. peak to peak or trough to trough).
- Measured in metres
- Transverse: crest to crest or trough to trough
- Longitudinal: centre of rarefaction to next compression

FREQUENCY (f)

- Number of waves passing a point each second.
- Unit = Hertz (Hz) → 1 Hz = 1 wave per second
- Higher frequency → more energy

TIME PERIOD (T)

- Time for one full cycle to pass a point or one full cycle to be completed
- Measured in seconds (s)
- Relationship: $T = 1/f$ or $f = 1/T$



MEASURING WAVE SPEED

METHOD 1: USING TWO POINTS

- Two people stand 20 m apart → distance measured with trundle wheel
- One person bangs a drum → other watches to time delay
- Repeat 10 times → average time
- Speed of sound = distance ÷ time

METHOD 2: USING AN OSCILLOSCOPE

- Place 2 microphones ~5 m apart (measured with tape measure) → connect to oscilloscope → loud sound
- Measure time delay between microphones
- Speed of sound = distance between microphones ÷ time between peaks

ALT OSCILLOSCOPE METHOD – USING SIGNAL GENERATOR

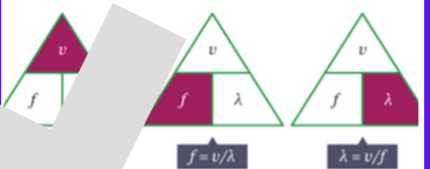
- Attach signal generator to speaker → connect to 2 microphones + oscilloscope → move one mic until waves align (1 wavelength apart)
- Measure distance (λ), use known frequency (f)
- Speed = $f \times \lambda$

WAVE EQUATION

- Wave Speed = Frequency × Wavelength
- $v = f \times \lambda$
- v = wave speed (m/s) → how fast energy is transferred
- Frequency (Hz) = number of waves passing point per second
- Wavelength = distance between corresponding points on adjacent waves

Types (transverse, longitudinal)

REARRANGING THE EQUATION



WORKED EXAMPLE

A wave has speed 0.12 m/s, and a time period of 4 s

- a) Find frequency
- b) Find wavelength

Part (a):

- $T = 4 \text{ s} \Rightarrow f = 1 \div T = 1 \div 4 = 0.25 \text{ Hz}$

Part (b):

- $v = 0.12 \text{ m/s}$ $f = 0.25 \text{ Hz}$
- $\lambda = v \div f = 0.12 \div 0.25 = 0.48 \text{ m}$

TIPS

- Use correct symbols: v, f, λ (not L or W)
- Watch for kHz → 1 kHz = 1000 Hz
- If units are in cm, convert speed to cm/s

MEASURING CONT.

MEASURING SPEED OF WATER WAVES

- In calm water → measure distance between 2 people with tape
- measure → one creates ripple → second times ripple travel using stopwatch
- Repeat 10x for average
- Wave speed = distance ÷ time

TIP – ACCURACY

- Most accurate → oscilloscope (automatic timing)
- Least accurate → direct timing (short interval + human reaction error)

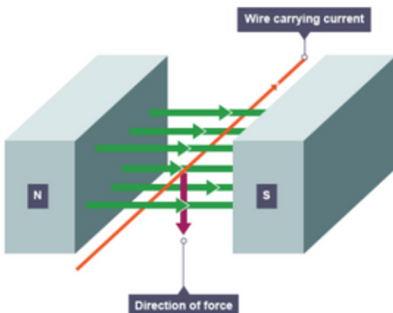
WAVES



MAGNETISM & ELECTROMAGNETISM

THE MOTOR EFFECT (HT)

- When a current-carrying conductor is placed in a magnetic field, it experiences a force.
- The conductor's magnetic field interacts with the external magnetic field.
- The direction of the force is perpendicular to both the magnetic field and the current.
- No force if current is parallel to magnetic field lines.



FORCE SIZE FACTORS

- Magnetic flux density (B) — stronger field $\Rightarrow$ larger force.
- Current (I) — higher current $\Rightarrow$ larger force.
- Length of conductor in field (l) — longer conductor $\Rightarrow$ larger force.

FORCE EQUATION

- $F = B \times I \times l$
- F = force (N)
- B = magnetic flux density (tesla, T)
- I = current (A)
- l = length of conductor in field (m)

REVERSING FORCE DIRECTION

- Reversing the current reverses the force direction.
- Reversing the magnetic field direction also reverses the force direction.

WORKED EXAMPLE

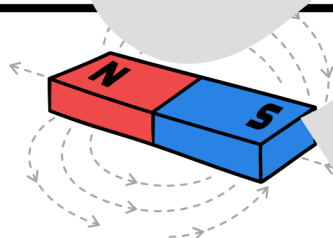
A wire of length 0.40 m carries a current of 2.5 A at right angles to a magnetic field of flux density 0.60 T. Calculate the force on the wire.

- Working:
- Formula: $F = B \times I \times l$

Substitute:

- $F = 0.60 \times 2.5 \times 0.40$
- $F = 0.60$

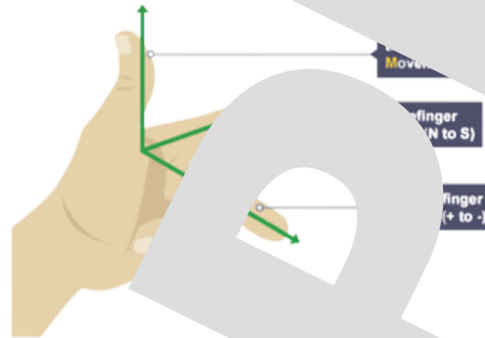
Answer: Force on the wire is 0.60 N.



FLEMING'S LEFT-HAND RULE (HT)

Used to find direction of force on a current-carrying conductor in a magnetic field.

- Three directions are all at right angles to each other:
- Thumb $\rightarrow$ Force / Thrust / Motion
- First finger $\rightarrow$ Magnetic Field ($N \rightarrow S$)
- Second finger $\rightarrow$ Current (Positive $\rightarrow$ Negative)
- Works only if conductor is perpendicular to magnetic field, and current are perpendicular to magnetic field.



USING THE RULE

- Point first finger in direction of magnetic field (North to South).
- Point second finger in direction of current (positive to negative).
- Thumb points in direction of the force.

TIPS

- Magnetic field is from North to South.
- Current flows from positive to negative.
- Remember, you can physically use your hand to check — just do it subtly!

LOUDSPEAKERS (HT)

Loudspeakers & headphones convert electrical energy into sound via the MOTOR EFFECT.

When current flows in coil changes direction $\Rightarrow$ magnetic field around coil changes $\Rightarrow$ interaction with permanent magnet $\Rightarrow$ force on coil (Fleming's LH rule) $\Rightarrow$ coil vibrates $\Rightarrow$ cone vibrates $\Rightarrow$ air vibrates $\Rightarrow$ sound waves.

CONSTRUCTION OF A LOUDSPEAKER

- Coil is wrapped around one pole of a permanent magnet $\Rightarrow$ attached to a speaker cone.
- Frequency of sound = frequency of AC
- Changing AC frequency changes pitch).

HEADPHONES

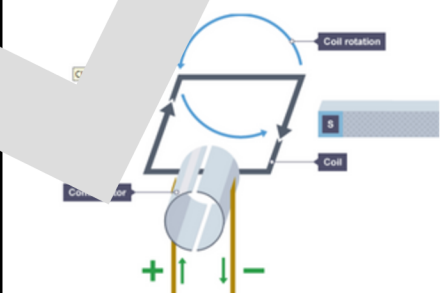
Work identically to loudspeakers but in mini form $\Rightarrow$ small coil + small permanent magnet + small cone/diaphragm.

- Always mention alternating current + changing magnetic field + force on coil.
- Do not confuse with microphones (they detect sound, not produce it).

ELECTRIC MOTORS (HT)

HOW IT WORKS

- Brushes make contact with the motor's commutator, which is a ring of segments carrying current. The brushes experience a force due to the interaction with a uniform magnetic field.
- Commutator reversing current in coil allows current direction in coil to reverse every half-turn, keeping rotation in same direction.



FORCES ON THE COIL

Horizontal position:

- Current flows in opposite directions on each side of the coil $\Rightarrow$ forces act in opposite directions (one up, one down) $\Rightarrow$ coil rotates.
- Use Fleming's Left-Hand Rule to find force directions.

Vertical position:

- Split ring not in contact with brushes $\Rightarrow$ no current $\Rightarrow$ no force.
- Coil keeps moving due to momentum.

After vertical:

- Split ring reconnects; current flows again but coil sides swapped.
- Forces act in same rotational direction $\Rightarrow$ continuous spin.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE MOTOR

Speed $\uparrow$ by:

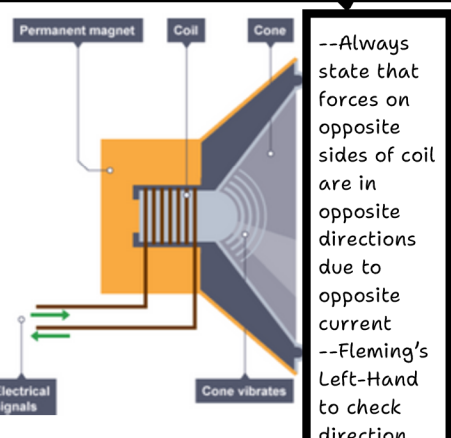
- Increasing current
- Using a stronger magnet

Direction of rotation changed by:

- Reversing current supply
- Reversing magnetic field (swap magnet poles)

Force output $\uparrow$ by:

- Increasing current
- Increasing magnetic field strength
- Adding more turns to coil



THE SOLAR SYSTEM

- Sun at centre → a star → >99% of Solar System's mass.
- 8 planets orbit the Sun.
- Dwarf planets also orbit the Sun → gravity not strong enough to clear neighbourhood.
- Rocky planets → Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars.
- Gas planets → Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune.

MOONS / SATELLITES

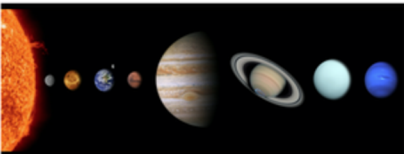
- Moons = natural satellites (orbit planets).
- Artificial satellites = man-made (e.g. ISS).

ASTEROIDS & COMETS

- Asteroid = small rocky object orbiting Sun → asteroid belt between Mars & Jupiter.
- Comet = ice + dust → long elliptical orbit → forms a tail when close to Sun.

MNEMONIC FOR PLANETS

- My Very Excellent Mother Just Served Us Noodles.



OUR PLACE IN SPACE

- Solar System = part of Milky Way galaxy.
- Milky Way = billions of stars → some have planets.
- Universe = billions of galaxies.

DISTANCES IN THE SOLAR SYSTEM

- We see planets because they reflect sunlight.
- Outer Solar System = far from Sun → even light takes time to reach.
- Light from Sun to Earth takes 8 minutes.
- Nearest star light travels 4 years.

SPEED OF LIGHT

- $c = 3 \times 10^8$ m/s

LIFE CYCLE OF LARGE STARS

LIFE CYCLE OF THE SUN

- nebula → protostar → main sequence star → red giant → supernova → neutron star / black hole

STAR FORMATION

NEBULA

- Giant cloud of hydrogen gas + dust

FORMATION PROCESS

- Gravity pulls particles closer together → cloud collapses → heats up
- Core becomes dense + hot → begins to rotate
- Hot, dense ball forms → protostar

PROTOSTAR

- Gravity pulls particles inward → density ↑, temperature ↑
- More collisions between particles
- When hot enough, nuclear fusion starts (H nuclei → He)

MAIN SEQUENCE STAR

- Fusion releases heat + light energy → outward force
- Star becomes stable → remains in main sequence for billions of years

EQUILIBRIUM OF A STAR

- Gravity pulls particles inward
- Fusion pressure pushes particles outward
- Balance of forces → star is stable
- If temperature ↓ → fusion stops → pressure ↓ → star contracts
- If temperature ↑ → fusion speeds up → pressure ↑ → star expands

THE LIFE CYCLE OF A STAR

MAIN SEQUENCE

- For billions of years, hydrogen runs out → helium
- Core begins to contract → carbon → nitrogen/oxygen → elements up to iron
- Outer layers expand + cool → star becomes a red giant.

SUPERNOVA

- Fusion stops in the core → core collapses suddenly.
- Outer layers explode outward → supernova.
- Explosion creates: Neutron star (dense remnant)
- Gas/dust → new nebulae
- New nebulae may form new stars + planetary systems.
- Heaviest elements (heavier than iron) are formed and scattered into space.
- **NEUTRON STAR / BLACK HOLE**
- Neutron star forms from the collapsed dense core.
- If the star is very massive, core collapses further:
- Forms a black hole (extremely dense; gravity so strong not even light escapes).

SPACE PHYSICS

MASS

- All stars start the same: nebula → protostar → main sequence star.
- Final stages depend on star size:
- Stars about the same size as the Sun
- Stars much bigger than the Sun

STAGES OF A STAR'S LIFE

- Main sequence star → Red giant → White dwarf → Black dwarf

RED GIANT

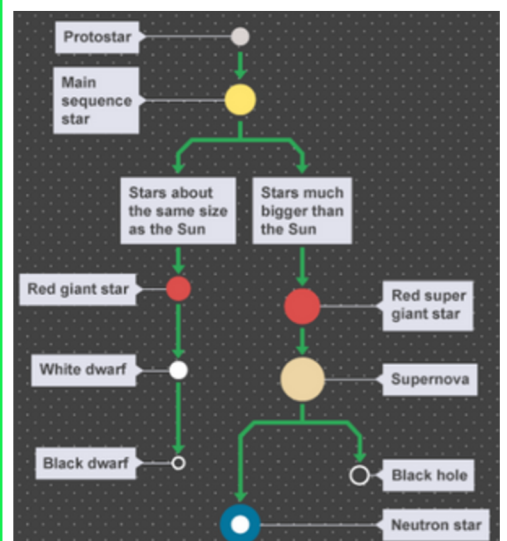
- After billions of years, hydrogen fuel starts to run out.
- Fusion decreases → core shrinks + heats (gravity > pressure).
- Core becomes hot enough for helium to fuse into heavier elements.
- Outer layers expand + cool → star becomes a red giant.

WHITE DWARF

- Helium eventually runs out → fusion stops.
- Star becomes unstable → core collapses under gravity.
- Hot, dense remnant = white dwarf, which gradually cools.
- As it cools, the energy it emits decreases.

BLACK DWARF

- When the white dwarf loses almost all remaining energy → black dwarf.
- It continues cooling until it eventually becomes invisible.



A bright yellow square with a thick black letter 'Z' centered inside it.

Z

MR. ZEE'S RESOURCES