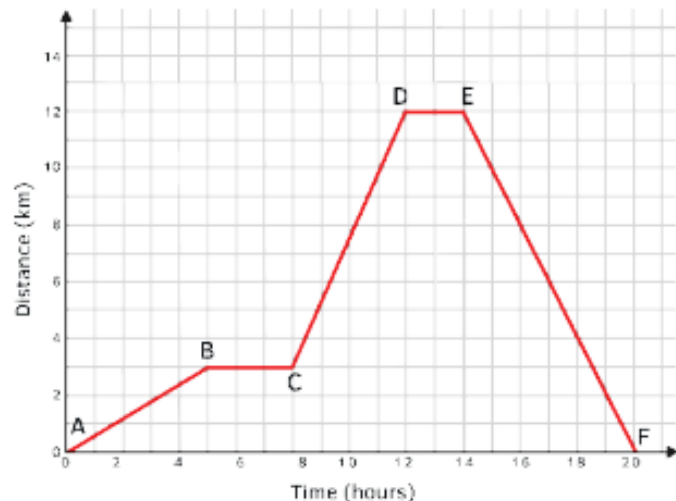


Distance-Time and Velocity-Time Graphs

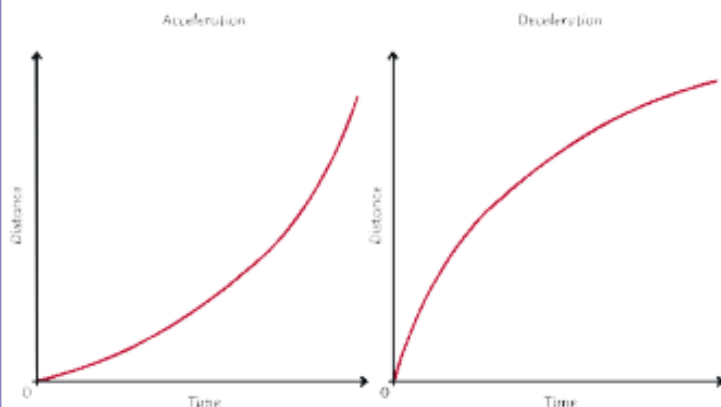
When an object travels in a **straight line**, we can show the distance which has been covered in a **distance-time graph**.



You should be able to understand what the features of the two types of graph can tell you about the motion of an object.

Graph Feature	Distance-Time Graph	Velocity-Time Graph
x-axis	time	time
y-axis	distance	velocity
gradient	speed	acceleration (or deceleration)
plateau	stationary (stopped)	constant speed
uphill straight line	steady speed moving away from start point	acceleration
downhill straight line	steady speed returning to the start point	deceleration
uphill curve	acceleration	increasing acceleration
downhill curve	deceleration	increasing deceleration
area below graph		distance travelled

Changing Speed on a D-T graph



When the graph is a **straight line**, it is representing a **constant speed**. A **curve** represents a **changing speed**, either **acceleration** or **deceleration**. The speed at any given point can be calculated by drawing a **tangent** from the curve and finding the **gradient** of the tangent.

Terminal Velocity

When an object begins moving, the force **accelerating** the object is much greater than the force **resisting** the movement. A resistant force might be **air resistance** or **friction**, for example.

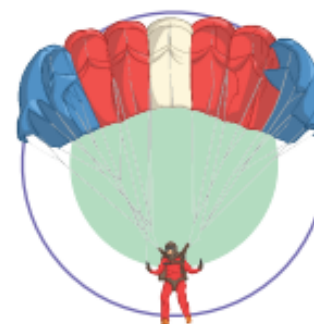
As the **velocity** of the object increases, the force **resisting** the movement also increases. This causes the acceleration of the object to be reduced gradually until the forces become **equal** and are **balanced**. This doesn't cause the object to stop moving. As the object is already in motion, **balanced forces** mean it will continue to move at a **steady speed**. This steady speed is the maximum that the object can achieve and is called the **terminal velocity**.

The terminal velocity of an object depends on its shape and weight. The shape of the object determines the amount of resistant force which can act on it. For example, an object with a large surface area will have a greater amount of resistance acting on it.

Consider a skydiver and his parachute. When the skydiver first jumps from the aeroplane, he has a small area where the air resistance can act. He will fall until he reaches a terminal velocity of approximately 120mph.



After the skydiver releases his parachute, the shape and area has been changed and so the amount of air resistance acting is increased. This causes him to decelerate and his terminal velocity is reduced to about 15mph. This makes it a much safer speed to land on the ground.



Required Practical Investigation Activity 6: Investigate the Relationship Between Force and Extension for a Spring

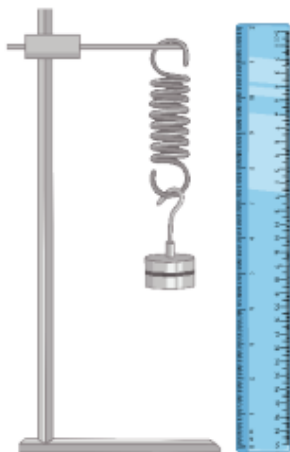
$$F = k \times e$$

force applied (N) = spring constant (N/m) \times extension (m)

You should be familiar with the equation above and the required practical shown to the right.

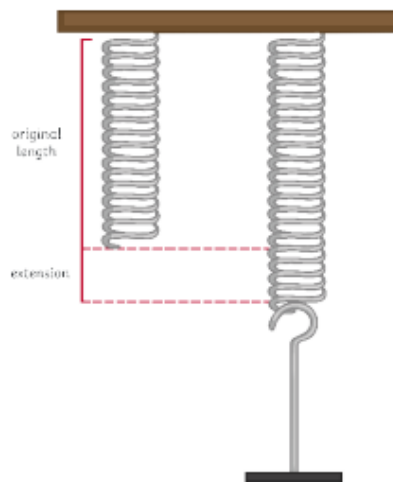
The spring constant is a value which describes the elasticity of a material. It is specific to each material. You can carry out a practical investigation and use your results to find the spring constant of a material.

1. Set up the equipment as shown.
2. Measure the original length of the elastic object, e.g. a spring, and record this.
3. Attach a mass hanger (remember the hanger itself has a weight). Record the new length of the spring.
4. Continue to add masses to the hanger in regular intervals and record the length each time.



Once you have your results, you can find the extension for each mass using this formula: **spring length - original length**

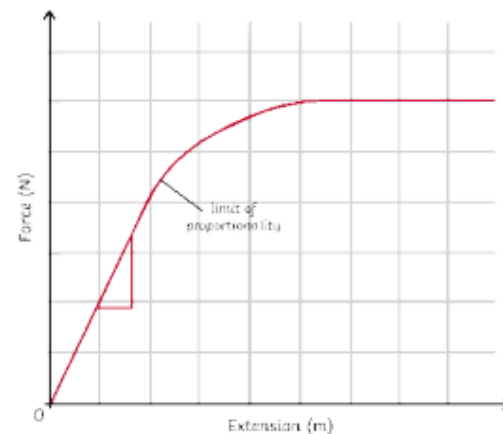
The data collected is continuous so you would plot a **line graph** using the x-axis for extension (m) and the y-axis for force (N). As a result of Hooke's Law, you should have a **linear graph**. The **gradient of the graph is equal to the spring constant**. You can calculate it by rearranging the formula above or by calculating the gradient from your graph.



Spring Constant and Hooke's Law

Hooke's Law describes that the extension of an elastic object is **proportional** to the force applied to the object. However, there is a maximum applied force for which the extension will still increase proportionally. If the **limit of proportionality** is exceeded, then the object becomes **permanently deformed** and can no longer return to its original shape.

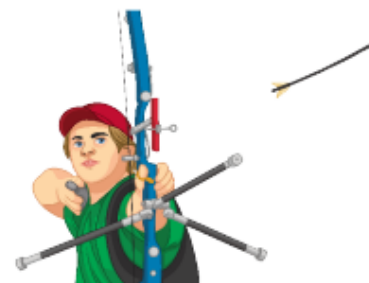
This can be identified on a graph of extension against force when the gradient stops being linear (a straight line) and begins to **plateau**. The limit is shown on the graph above and this is the specific object's **elastic limit**.



Forces and Elasticity

When work is done on an elastic object, such as a spring, the energy is stored as elastic potential energy.

When the force is applied, the object changes shape and stretches. The energy is stored as elastic potential and when the force is no longer applied, the object returns to its original shape. The stored elastic potential energy is transferred as kinetic energy and the object recoils and goes back to its original shape.



Momentum

momentum (N) = mass (kg) \times velocity (m/s)

The **law of conservation of mass** (in a closed system) states that the total momentum **before** an event is equal to the total momentum **after** an event.

Worked example:

Calculate the momentum of a 85kg cyclist travelling at 7m/s.

$$p = m \times v$$

$$p = 85\text{kg} \times 7\text{m/s}$$

$$p = 595\text{kg m/s}$$

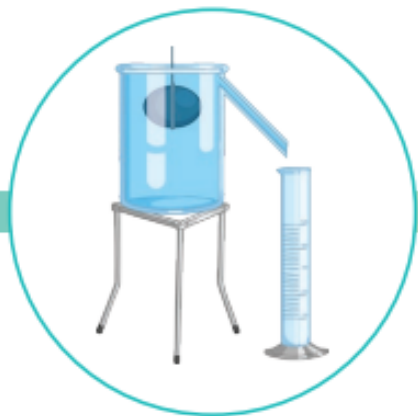
Required Practical

Measuring the density of a regularly shaped object:

- Measure the mass using a balance.
- Measure the length, width and height using a ruler.
- Calculate the volume.
- Use the density ($\rho = m/V$) equation to calculate density.

Measuring the density of an irregularly-shaped object:

- Measure the mass using a balance.
- Fill a eureka can with water.
- Place the object in the water - the water displaced by the object will transfer into a measuring cylinder.
- Measure the volume of the water. This equals the volume of the object.
- Use the density ($\rho = m/V$) equation to calculate density.



Density

Density is a measure of how much mass there is in a given space.

$$\text{Density (kg/m}^3\text{)} = \text{mass (kg)} \div \text{volume (m}^3\text{)}$$

A more dense material will have more particles in the same volume when compared to a less dense material.

Particles

Solids have strong forces of attraction. They are held together very closely in a fixed, regular arrangement. The particles do not have much energy and can only vibrate.



Liquids have weaker forces of attraction. They are close together, but can move past each other. They form irregular arrangements. They have more energy than particles in a solid.



Gases have almost no forces of attraction between the particles. They have the most energy and are free to move in random directions.



Particles

Gas particles can move around freely and will collide with other particles and the walls of the container. This is the pressure of the gas.

If the temperature of the gas increases, then the pressure will also increase. The hotter the temperature, the more kinetic energy the gas particles have. They move faster, colliding with the sides of the container more often.



Density

The density of an object is 8050kg/m^3 and it has a volume of 3.4m^3 - what is its mass in kg?

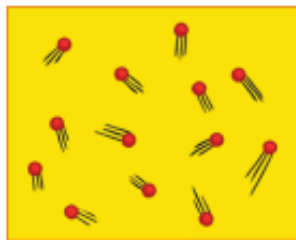
$$8050 = \text{mass} \div 3.4$$

$$8050 \times 3.4 = \text{mass}$$

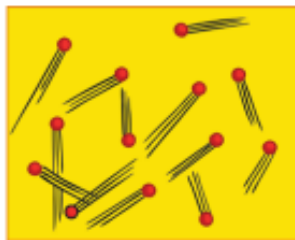
$$27\,370\text{kg}$$

Internal Energy

Particles within a system have kinetic energy when they vibrate or move around. The particles also have a potential energy store. The total internal energy of a system is the kinetic and potential energy stores.



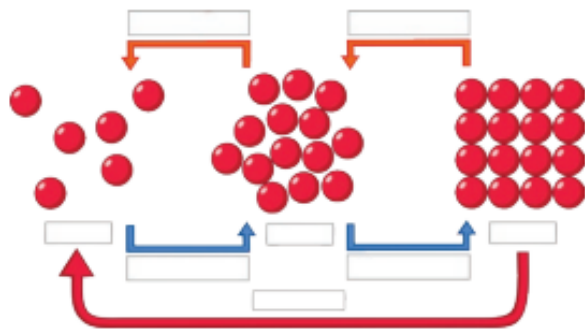
Low Temperature



High Temperature

If the system is heated, the particles will gain more kinetic energy, so increasing the internal energy.

Changing State

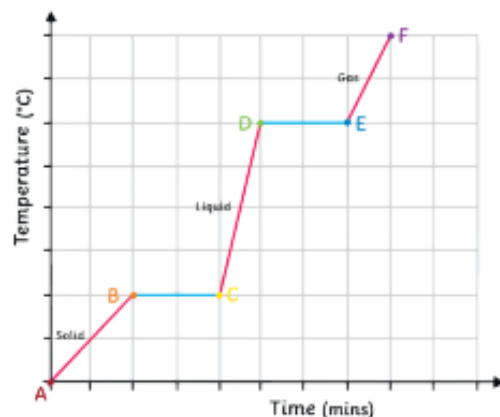


If a system gains more energy, it can lead to a change in temperature or change in state. If the system is heated enough, then there will be enough energy to break bonds.

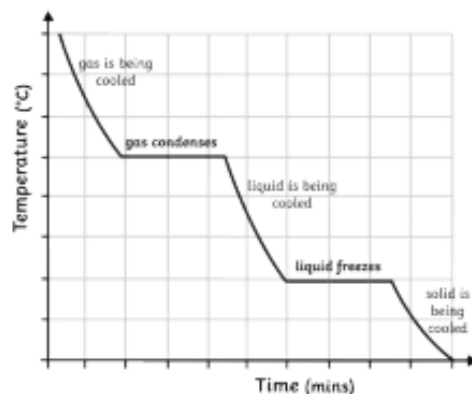
When something changes state, there is no chemical change, only physical. No new substance is formed. The substance will change back to its original form. The number of particles does not change and mass is conserved.

Specific Latent Heat

Energy is being put in during melting and boiling. This increases the amount of internal energy. The energy is being used to break the bonds, so the temperature does not increase. This is shown by the parts of the graph that are flat.



When a substance is condensing or freezing, the energy put in is used to form the bonds. This releases energy. The internal energy decreases, but the temperature does not go down.



The energy needed to change the state of a substance is called the latent heat.

Specific latent heat is the amount of energy needed to change 1kg of a substance from one state to another without changing the temperature. Specific latent heat will be different for different materials.

- solid \rightarrow liquid - specific latent heat of **fusion**
- liquid \rightarrow gas - specific latent heat of **vaporisation**

Specific Latent Heat Equation

The amount of energy needed/released when a substance of mass changes state.

$$\text{energy (E)} = \text{mass (m)} \times \text{specific latent heat (L)}$$

$$E = mL$$

