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| **4.5 Forces** |  |  |  |
| *4.5.1 Forces and their interactions* |  |  |  |
| **4.5.1.1 Scalar and vector quantities** |  |  |  |
| 1. Scalar quantities have magnitude (size) only.
2. Vector quantities have magnitude and an associated direction.
3. A vector quantity may be represented by an arrow. The length of the arrow represents the magnitude, and the direction of the arrow the direction of the vector quantity.
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| **4.5.1.2 Contact and non-contact forces** |  |  |  |
| 1. A force is a push or pull that acts on an object due to the interaction with another object. All forces between objects are either:
* contact forces – the objects are physically touching
* non-contact forces – the objects are physically separated.
1. Examples of contact forces include
	* friction
	* air resistance
	* tension
	* normal contact force
2. Examples of non-contact forces are
	* gravitational force
	* electrostatic force
	* magnetic force
3. Force is a vector quantity.
4. Students should be able to describe the interaction between pairs of objects which produce a force on each object. The forces to be represented as vectors.
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| **4.5.1.3 Gravity** |  |  |  |
| 1. Weight is the force acting on an object due to gravity.
2. The force of gravity close to the Earth is due to the gravitational field around the Earth.
3. The weight of an object depends on the gravitational field strength where the object is.
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| a) The weight of an object can be calculated using the equation:* $weight=mass x gravitational field strength$
* $W=m x g$

weight, *W*, in newtons, Nmass, *m*, in kilograms, kggravitational field strength, *g*, in newtons per kilogram, N/kg (In any calculation the value of the gravitational field strength (*g*) will be given.)b) The weight of an object may be considered to act at a single point referred to as the object’s ‘centre of mass’.c) The weight of an object and the mass of an object are directly proportional.d) Weight is measured using a calibrated newton meter (spring-balance). |  |  |  |
| **4.5.1.4 Resultant forces** |  |  |  |
| 1. A number of forces acting on an object may be replaced by a single force that has the same effect as all the original forces acting together.
2. This single force is called the resultant force.
3. Be able to calculate the resultant of two forces that act in a straight line.
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| *4.5.2 Work done and energy transfer* |  |  |  |
| a) When a force causes an object to move through a distance work is done on the object. So a force does work on an object when the force causes a displacement of the object.b) The work done by a force on an object can be calculated using the equation:* $work done=force x distance moved along the line of action of the force$
* $W=F x s$

work done, *W*, in joules, Jforce, *F*, in newtons, Ndistance, *s*, in metres, me) One joule of work is done when a force of one newton causes a displacement of one metre.1 joule = 1 newton-metref) Students should be able to describe the energy transfer involved when work is done.g) Students should be able to convert between newton-metres and joules.h) Work done against the frictional forces acting on an object causes a rise in the temperature of the object. |  |  |  |
| *4.5.3 Forces and elasticity* |  |  |  |
| a) Students should be able to:* give examples of the forces involved in stretching, bending or compressing an object
* explain why, to change the shape of an object (by stretching, bending or compressing), more than one force has to be applied – this is limited to stationary objects only
* describe the difference between elastic deformation and inelastic deformation caused by stretching forces.

b) The extension of an elastic object, such as a spring, is directly proportional to the force applied, provided that the limit of proportionality is not exceeded.* $force=spring constant x extension$
* $F=k x e$

force, *F*, in newtons, Nspring constant, *k*, in newton per metre, N/mextension, *e*, in metres, mc) This relationship also applies to the compression of an elastic object, where ‘*e*’ would be the compression of the object.d) A force that stretches (or compresses) a spring does work and elastic potential energy is stored in the spring. Provided the spring is not permanently deformed, the work done on the spring and the elastic potential energy stored are equal.Students should be able to:1. describe the difference between a linear and non-linear relationship between force and extension
2. calculate a spring constant in linear cases
3. interpret data from an investigation of the relationship between force and extension
4. calculate work done in stretching (or compressing) a spring (up to the limit of proportionality) using the equation:
* $elastic potential energy=\frac{1}{2} x spring constant x extension^{2}$
* $E\_{e}= \frac{1}{2} x k x e^{2}$

This equation is also given in Changes in energy.i) Students should be able to calculate relevant values of stored energy and energy transfers. |  |  |  |
| **Required practical activity 6**: investigate the relationship between force and extension for a spring. |  |  |  |
| *4.5.6 Forces and motion* |  |  |  |
| **4.5.6.1 Describing motion along a line** |  |  |  |
| ***4.5.6.1.1 Distance and displacement*** |  |  |  |
| 1. Distance is how far an object moves. Distance does not involve direction. Distance is a scalar quantity.
2. Displacement includes both the distance an object moves, measured in a straight line from the start point to the finish point and the direction of that straight line. Displacement is a vector quantity.
3. Students should be able to express a displacement in terms of both the magnitude and direction.
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| ***4.5.6.1.2 Speed*** |  |  |  |
| 1. Speed does not involve direction. Speed is a scalar quantity.
2. The speed of a moving object is rarely constant. When people walk, run or travel in a car their speed is constantly changing.
3. The speed at which a person can walk, run or cycle depends on many factors including: age, terrain, fitness and distance travelled.
4. Students should be able to recall typical values of speed for a person walking, running and cycling as well as the typical values of speed for different types of transportation systems. Typical values may be taken as:
	* + - walking ≈ 1.5 m/s
			- running ≈ 3 m/s
			- cycling ≈ 6 m/s
5. It is not only moving objects that have varying speed. The speed of sound and the speed of the wind also vary.
6. A typical value for the speed of sound in air is 330 m/s.
7. Students should be able to make measurements of distance and time and then calculate speeds of objects.

h) For an object moving at constant speed the distance travelled in a specific time can be calculated using the equation:* $distance travelled=speed x time$
* $s=v x t$

distance, *s*, in metres, mspeed, *v*, in metres per second, m/stime, *t*, in seconds, si) Students should be able to calculate average speed for non-uniform motion. |  |  |  |
| ***4.5.6.1.3 Velocity*** |  |  |  |
| 1. The velocity of an object is its speed in a given direction. Velocity is a vector quantity.
2. Students should be able to explain the vector–scalar distinction as it applies to displacement, distance, velocity and speed.
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| ***4.5.6.1.4 The distance–time relationship*** |  |  |  |
| 1. If an object moves along a straight line, the distance travelled can be represented by a distance–time graph.
2. The speed of an object can be calculated from the gradient of its distance–time graph.

Students should be able to:1. draw distance–time graphs from measurements
2. extract and interpret lines and slopes of distance–time graphs, translating information between graphical and numerical form
3. determine speed from a distance–time graph
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| ***4.5.6.1.5 Acceleration*** |  |  |  |
| a) The average acceleration of an object can be calculated using the equation:* $acceleration= \frac{change in velocity}{time taken}$
* $a= \frac{Δv}{t}$

acceleration, *a*, in metres per second squared, m/s**2**change in velocity, Δ*v*, in metres per second, m/stime, *t*, in seconds, s1. An object that slows down is decelerating.
2. Students should be able to estimate the magnitude of everyday accelerations.
3. The acceleration of an object can be calculated from the gradient of a velocity–time graph.

Students should be able to:1. draw velocity–time graphs from measurements and interpret lines and slopes to determine acceleration
 |  |  |  |
| a) The following equation applies to uniform acceleration (e.g. acceleration due to gravity):* $final velocity^{2}- initial velocity^{2}=2 x acceleration x distance$
* $v^{2}- u^{2}=2 x a x s$

final velocity, *v*, in metres per second, m/sinitial velocity, *u*, in metres per second, m/sacceleration, *a*, in metres per second squared, m/s**2**distance, *s*, in metres, mb) Near the Earth’s surface any object falling freely under gravity has an acceleration of about 9.8 m/s**2**.c) An object falling through a fluid initially accelerates due to the force of gravity. Eventually the resultant force will be zero and the object will move at its terminal velocity. |  |  |  |

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| **4.5.6.2 Forces, accelerations and Newton’s Laws of motion** |  |  |  |
| ***4.5.6.2.1 Newton’s First Law*** |  |  |  |
| 1. Newton’s First Law:

If the resultant force acting on an object is zero:* and the object is stationary, the object remains stationary
* and the object is moving, the object continues to move at the same speed and in the same direction and at the same velocity.
1. When a vehicle travels at a steady speed the resistive forces balance the driving force.
2. The velocity (speed and/or direction) of an object will only change if a resultant force is acting on the object.

Students should be able to apply Newton’s First Law to explain:1. the motion of objects moving with a uniform velocity
2. the motion of objects where the speed and/or direction changes.
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| ***4.5.6.2.2 Newton’s Second Law*** |  |  |  |
| 1. Newton’s Second Law:

The acceleration of an object is proportional to the resultant force acting on the object, and inversely proportional to the mass of the object.1. As an equation:

$$resultant force=mass x acceleration$$$$F=m x a$$force, *F*, in newtons, Nmass, *m*, in kilograms, kgacceleration, *a*, in metres per second squared, m/s**2**1. Students should recognise and be able to use the symbol for proportionality, ∝
2. Students should be able to estimate the speed, accelerations and forces involved in large accelerations for everyday road transport.
3. Students should recognise and be able to use the symbol that indicates an approximate value or approximate answer, ≈, ~.
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| **Required practical activity 7:** investigate the effect of varying the force on the acceleration of an object of constant mass, and the effect of varying the mass of an object on the acceleration produced by a constant force. |  |  |  |
| ***4.5.6.2.3 Newton’s Third Law*** |  |  |  |
| Newton’s Third Law:* Whenever two objects interact, the forces they exert on each other are equal and opposite.
* Students should be able to apply Newton’s Third Law to examples of equilibrium situations.
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| **4.5.6.3 Forces and braking** |  |  |  |
| ***4.5.6.3.1 Stopping distance*** |  |  |  |
| 1. The stopping distance of a vehicle is the sum of the distance the vehicle travels during the driver’s reaction time (thinking distance) and the distance it travels under the braking force (braking distance).
2. For a given braking force the greater the speed of the vehicle, the greater the stopping distance.
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| ***4.5.6.3.2 Reaction time*** |  |  |  |
| 1. Reaction times vary from person to person. Typical values range from 0.2 s to 0.9 s.
2. A driver’s reaction time can be affected by tiredness, drugs and alcohol. Distractions may also affect a driver’s ability to react.

Students should be able to:1. explain methods used to measure human reaction times and recall typical results
2. interpret and evaluate measurements from simple methods to measure the different reaction times of students
3. evaluate the effect of various factors on thinking distance based on given data.
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| ***4.5.6.3.3 Factors affecting braking distance 1*** |  |  |  |
| 1. The braking distance of a vehicle can be affected by adverse road and weather conditions and poor condition of the vehicle.
2. Adverse road conditions include wet or icy conditions. Poor condition of the vehicle is limited to the vehicle’s brakes or tyres.

Students should be able to:1. explain the factors which affect the distance required for road transport vehicles to come to rest in emergencies, and the implications for safety
2. estimate how the distance required for road vehicles to stop in an emergency varies over a range of typical speeds.
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| ***4.5.6.3.4 Factors affecting braking distance 2*** |  |  |  |
| 1. When a force is applied to the brakes of a vehicle, work done by the friction force between the brakes and the wheel reduces the kinetic energy of the vehicle and the temperature of the brakes increases.
2. The greater the speed of a vehicle the greater the braking force needed to stop the vehicle in a certain distance.
3. The greater the braking force the greater the deceleration of the vehicle. Large decelerations may lead to brakes overheating and/or loss of control.

Students should be able to:1. explain the dangers caused by large decelerations
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