

Equations of Motion

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Scalar and Vectors

Scalars only have **size**, **Vectors** have **size and direction**.

- Scalars - mass, temp., time, length, speed, energy.
- Vectors - displacement, force, velocity, acceleration, momentum.

You can **add vectors** using **pythagoras** ($a^2 + b^2 = c^2$) and **trigonometry** (SOHCAHTOA). You can also use pythagoras and trigonometry for adding **resultant forces or velocities**.

When adding vectors make sure they are **tip to tail**, and if the vectors aren't at right angles you should do a scale drawing.

The four **equations of motion** -

- $V = u + at$

V is final velocity, u is initial velocity, a is acceleration, t is time

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

s is displacement

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

- $s = \frac{(u+v)}{2} \times t$

Centre of gravity - assume all the mass is in one place. An object will be nice and **stable** if it has a **low centre of gravity** and a **wide base area**.

Density = mass/ volume (density is measured in **gcm⁻³** or **kgm⁻³**)

Density is mass per unit volume. Density **doesn't** vary with size or shape. Is it calculated by **$\rho = m/v$**

Mass is **scalar** and force (weight) is a **vector**.

Weight = mass x gravity

$W = mg$

Weight, Mass and the Centre of Gravity

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Newton's Laws of Motion

Newton's 1st Law - The velocity of an object will not **change** unless a **resultant force acts on it**. Eg. Apple on a table won't go anywhere because the forces on it are balanced.

Reaction (R) = weight (kg)

Newton's 2nd Law - **Acceleration** is **proportional** to the **force**.

resultant force (N) = mass (kg) x acceleration (ms⁻²) [$F = m \times a$]

Remember - Resultant force is the vector sum of all the forces. The **acceleration** is **independent** of the mass.

All objects fall at **the same rate** (if you ignore air resistance).

Newton's 3rd Law - Each force has an **equal, opposite reaction force**. Eg. If an object A exerts a force on object B, then object B exerts an equal but opposite force on object A. The forces are always the same type but the forces are not both applied to the same object.

Work

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Work is done whenever energy is transferred.

$$\text{Work (J)} = \text{Force (N)} \times \text{Distance (m)} \quad [W=Fs]$$

Work is the energy that's been **changed** from **one form to another** - not always the total energy. The equation **assumes** that the direction of force is the same as the direction of movement.

Definition of a Joule - one joule is the **work done** when a force of **1 newton** moves an object through a distance of **1 metre**.

The direction of force isn't always in the same direction as the movement. If not you use **horizontal** and **vertical components**.

$$W = Fs \cos(\text{the angle})$$

Forces

Free body force diagrams show all the **forces** on a **single body**. If a body is in **equilibrium** the forces acting on it will be **balanced**. Some of the forces to look out for - **mg (weight), drag, push, friction, resistance (to earth)**.

Force calculations - **Resolving a force**. Resolving a force means **splitting it into components - vertical and horizontal**. Replace the Force (F) with vertical force (Fv) and horizontal force (Fh) and this is resolving the Force (F). You use **trigonometry** to find **Fv** and **Fh**.

$$F_h = F \cos(\text{the angle})$$

$$F_v = F \sin(\text{the angle})$$

Use **vector addition** to get the **resultant force**. First add the vectors together and use **pythagoras** to get the length, then divide your A and B from pythagoras section, take that answer and put it **tan-1**. You now have the angle, most answers go along the lines of **Force 999N at an angle 99 degrees from north**.

Mechanics in the Real World

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Power

Power equals **work done per second**.

$$\text{Power (W)} = \text{Work Done (J)} / \text{Time (s)} [P=Wt]$$

The **watt** is defined as a **rate of energy** transfer equal to **1 joule per second**.

$$\text{Power (W)} = \text{Force (N)} \times \text{Velocity (ms}^{-1}\text{)} [P=Fv]$$

This equation can be helpful when you are given **speed** in a question. Sometimes in a power question the **force** and the **motion** are in **different directions**, like with work, we then use **horizontal and vertical components**.

$$P = Fv \cos (\text{the angle})$$

Forces act on **sports people**. People who bungee and rock climb have forces acting on them all the time, these can be shown using **free body diagrams** (see forces). **Gravity** is the **only** force acting on **projectiles**.

Car **safety features** are usually designed to **slow you down** more gradually and increase the **collision time**, some are designed to **reduce the force** on you. Example features - **Seatbelts**, **airbags**, **crumple zones (at the front and back of the car) and safety cages (around the car to prevent crushing)**.

$$\text{Thinking distance} = \text{Speed} \times \text{Reaction time}$$

$$\text{Thinking distance} + \text{Braking distance} = \text{stopping distance}$$

Many **factors** affect how **quickly a car stops**.

Hookes Law

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Conservation of Energy

Principle of Conservation of Energy - Energy cannot be **created or destroyed**. Energy can be **transferred** from one form to another but the **total amount** of energy in a closed system will **not change**.

$E_k = 1/2 mv^2$ - Kinetic Energy

(m = mass, v = velocity)

$E_g = mgh$ - Gravitational Potential Energy

(m = mass, g = gravity, h = height)

$E = 1/2 Ke^2$ - Elastic Potential

(e = extension, K= stiffness)

Hookes law states that **extension** is **proportional to force**.

$$F = Ke \text{ (K = stiffness constant, e = extension)}$$

Hookes law can apply to **springs**. The **extension** or **compression** of a spring is proportional to the force applied. **Tensile** - stretch spring, **Compressive** - squash spring.

Hookes law stops working when the **load** is great enough. On a graph, if there is a **straight line relationship** between load and extension then **Hookes law is obeyed**.

When the graph starts to **curve**, this is where point E, the **Elastic limit** is. Increase the load past the elastic limit and the material will be **permanently stretched**.

A stretch can be **plastic** or **elastic** -

- **Elastic** - Material returns to its **original shape** when the forces are removed. For a metal, elastic deformation happens as long as Hookes law is obeyed.
- **Plastic** - Material is **permanently stretched**. A metal stretched past its elastic limit shows plastic deformation.

$$E = 1/2 k e^2$$

You can calculate the **energy stored** in a stretched wire provided it obeys **Hooke's law**.

by the **area under a stress-strain graph**.

Elastic strain energy is the **energy stored** in a stretched material. Elastic strain energy is given

slightly down.

line and the **ultimate tensile stress (UTS)** would be just before it around where the curve goes called the **ultimate tensile stress**. On a graph the **breaking stress (B)** would be the end of the the material is called the **breaking stress**. The **maximum stress** the material can withstand is A material subjected to a pair of **opposite forms** might **deform**. A **stress** big enough to **break**

$$\text{Strain} = e / l \quad (e = \text{extension, } l = \text{original length})$$

$$\text{Stress} = F/A \quad (F = \text{force, } A = \text{cross-sectional area})$$

A **stress** causes a **strain**.

Stress and Strain

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Young Modulus

The **Young Modulus** is **stress/strain**. Below the limit of proportionality for a material, stress divided by strain is a **constant**, the constant is called the **Young Modulus (E)**. It is used by **engineers** to make sure materials can withstand forces.

$$E = \text{stress/strain} = F/A / e/l$$

To find the Young Modulus you need a **very long wire**. Use a rule, marker and a pulley with some weights. The **longer and thinner** the wire, the more it extends for the same force. Take the correct measurements down and you can find the Young Modulus.

Use a **stress-strain graph** to find **E**.

$$\text{Gradient} = \text{stress} / \text{strain} = E \text{ (Young Modulus)}$$

The **area under** a stress-strain graph gives the **stored energy**. When **Hooke's law** is obeyed the stress-strain graph will have a **straight line** so you can calculate the **energy per unit volume** -

$$\text{energy} = 1/2 \times \text{strain} \times \text{stress}$$

Velocity - Time Graphs

The **gradient** of a **Velocity-Time graph** gives you the **acceleration**. The **distance travelled** = **area under the graph**. Non uniform acceleration (not constant, changing) is a curve on a Velocity-Time graph.

Behaviour of solids

- **Brittle** - materials **break suddenly** without plastically deforming. Eg. chocolate bar, ceramics
- **Ductile** - materials can be **drawn into wires without losing their strength**. Eg. copper for wires.
- **Malleable** - materials **change shape** but may **lose their strength**. Eg. Gold, gold rings can be changed shape very easily but a gold bar wouldn't.
- **Hard** - materials are **very resistant to cutting, indentation and abrasions**. Eg. cutting tool like a chisel, diamond.
- **Stiff** - materials have a high **resistance to bending and stretching**. **Stiffness is measured by the Young Modulus** - the higher the value, the stiffer the material. Eg. Helmets.
- **Tough** - materials are really **difficult to break**. Really tough materials can absorb a lot of energy so are very difficult to break. Eg. Polymers.

Stress-strain graphs for **ductile** materials **curve**. A straight line shows it obeys **Hookes law**, the **limit of proportionality (P)** is the point where the graph starts to curve, the **elastic limit (E)** is where the material wouldn't return to its original length and the **yield point (Y)** is where the material starts to stretch without any extra load.

Streamlines and Flow

Streamlines are **stable** flowlines. A flowline is the **path** that a particular **fluid** element takes. **Streamlines** are **parallel** in **laminar flow**, this usually occurs when a fluid is flowing **slowly**. Flowlines are **unstable** in **turbulent flow**, this usually occurs when a fluid is flowing **quickly**. In turbulent flow, the fluid often moves around in **miniature whirlpools** - called **eddy currents**. Both types of flow are used in **manufacturing**. Laminar flow, smooth flow is used in **pipes**. Turbulent flow, mixed flow is used in **mixing chemicals**. **Viscous drag** is the **force of friction** produced by a flowing fluid. Friction **opposes motion**, so the force acts to **slow the flow**. The size of the force depends on the **viscosity** of the fluid - the higher the viscosity, the larger the force. **Viscous drag** is much larger when the flow is **turbulent**.

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Displacement - Time Graphs

Acceleration means a **curved Displacement-Time Graph**. Different acceleration have different gradients, **bigger** accelerations have **steeper** gradients. **Decreasing** acceleration has the curve going the other way. The **gradient** of a Displacement-Time graph gives you the **velocity** and its the same with **curved lines**, you just have to draw a **tangent**.

velocity = change in displacement / time taken

Viscosity

Rate of flow depends on **viscosity**. The **higher the viscosity** of a fluid, the **slower its rate** of flow. **Viscosity** depends on **temperature**. The viscosity of most fluids decreases as the temperature increases, fluids generally **flow faster** if they're **hotter**.

Rate of flow = Volume moved / time taken

Viscous drag acts on objects **moving through fluids**. You can calculate the force due to viscous drag on a spherical object moving through a fluid using **Stokes law** -

$$F = 6 (\pi) n r v$$

(n = viscosity (Nsm⁻²), r = radius (m), v = velocity (ms⁻¹))
(pi) is the mathematical symbol and is equal to 3.14159.

Fluids exert **upthrust** on **immersed objects**.
Upthrust = weight of fluid displaced.