

Physics Equations Sheet

GCSE Combined Science: Trilogy (8464) and GCSE Combined Science: Synergy (8465)

HT = Higher Tier only equations

kinetic energy = $0.5 \times \text{mass} \times (\text{speed})^2$	$E_k = \frac{1}{2} m v^2$
elastic potential energy = $0.5 \times \text{spring constant} \times (\text{extension})^2$	$E_e = \frac{1}{2} k e^2$
gravitational potential energy = mass \times gravitational field strength \times height	$E_p = m g h$
change in thermal energy = mass \times specific heat capacity \times temperature change	$\Delta E = m c \Delta \theta$
power = $\frac{\text{energy transferred}}{\text{time}}$	$P = \frac{E}{t}$
power = $\frac{\text{work done}}{\text{time}}$	$P = \frac{W}{t}$
efficiency = $\frac{\text{useful output energy transfer}}{\text{total input energy transfer}}$	
efficiency = $\frac{\text{useful power output}}{\text{total power input}}$	
charge flow = current \times time	$Q = I t$
potential difference = current \times resistance	$V = I R$
power = potential difference \times current	$P = V I$
power = (current) ² \times resistance	$P = I^2 R$
energy transferred = power \times time	$E = P t$

	energy transferred = charge flow × potential difference	$E = QV$
HT	potential difference across primary coil × current in primary coil = potential difference across secondary coil × current in secondary coil	$V_p I_p = V_s I_s$
	density = $\frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}}$	$\rho = \frac{m}{V}$
	thermal energy for a change of state = mass × specific latent heat	$E = mL$
	weight = mass × gravitational field strength	$W = mg$
	work done = force × distance (along the line of action of the force)	$W = Fs$
	force = spring constant × extension	$F = ke$
	distance travelled = speed × time	$s = vt$
	acceleration = $\frac{\text{change in velocity}}{\text{time taken}}$	$a = \frac{\Delta v}{t}$
	(final velocity) ² – (initial velocity) ² = 2 × acceleration × distance	$v^2 - u^2 = 2as$
	resultant force = mass × acceleration	$F = ma$
HT	momentum = mass × velocity	$p = mv$
	period = $\frac{1}{\text{frequency}}$	$T = \frac{1}{f}$
	wave speed = frequency × wavelength	$v = f\lambda$
HT	force on a conductor (at right angles to a magnetic field) carrying a current = magnetic flux density × current × length	$F = BIl$

Physics 1: Energy				Section 3: Energy Resources				
Section 1: Energy stores and methods of transfer				Resource	Renewable?	Uses	Advantages	Disadvantages
Chemical store	Energy stored as chemicals waiting to react .			Fossil Fuels	Non-Renewable	Electricity, transport, heating	Reliable – electricity can be generated all of the time. Relatively cheap way of generating electricity.	Produces carbon dioxide , a greenhouse gas that causes global warming . Can produce sulphur dioxide , a gas that causes acid rain .
Kinetic store	Energy stored in objects that move .			Nuclear Fuel	Non-Renewable	Electricity	Produces no carbon dioxide when generating electricity. Reliable – electricity can be generated all of the time.	Produces nuclear waste that stays radioactive for thousands of years. Expensive to build and decommission power stations.
Gravitational Potential store	Energy stored in objects raised up against the force of gravity .			Bio Fuel	Renewable	Heating, electricity	Carbon neutral . Reliable – electricity can be generated all of the time.	Production of fuel may damage ecosystems and create a monoculture .
Elastic Potential store	Energy stored in an object that have been stretched .			Wind	Renewable	Electricity	No CO₂ produced while generating electricity.	Unreliable – may not produce electricity during low wind . Expensive to construct.
Internal store	Energy stored in the movement of particles. A combination of the kinetic energy of the particles and the potential energy of particles that are apart from each other. Can be changed by heating / cooling .			Hydroelectricity	Renewable	Electricity	No CO₂ produced while generating electricity.	Blocks rivers stopping fish migration . Unreliable – may not produce electricity during droughts .
Nuclear store	Energy stored in the nuclei of atoms.			Geothermal	Renewable	Electricity, heating	Does not damage ecosystems . Reliable source of electricity generation.	Fluids drawn from ground may contain greenhouse gases such as CO₂ and methane . These contribute to global warming .
Magnetic store	Energy stored in magnets that are attracting or repelling .			Tidal	Renewable	Electricity	No CO₂ produced while generating electricity.	Unreliable – tides vary . May damage tidal ecosystem e.g. mudflats.
Electrostatic store	Energy stored in electric charges that are attracting or repelling .			Waves	Renewable	Electricity	No CO₂ produced while generating electricity.	Unreliable – may not produce electricity during calm seas.
Mechanical transfer	Energy transferred when a force moves through a distance .			Solar	Renewable	Electricity, heating	No CO₂ produced while generating electricity.	Unreliable – does not produce electricity at night . Expensive to construct.
Electrical transfer	Energy transferred when a charge moves .			Section 4: Key terms				
Wave transfer	Energy transferred by waves e.g. sound & light.			Dissipation				
Heat transfer	Energy transferred when an object is heated .			Energy becoming spread out instead of in a concentrated store. “Wasted” energy.				
Section 2: Important equations – you will be given the equation in the exam BUT you must learn the units and know how to use the equation				Lubrication				
Calculation	Equation (given on equations sheet)	Symbols	Units (must learn)	A method of reducing unwanted energy transfers by application of a lubricant (e.g. oil) to reduce friction . Occurs in machines.				
Kinetic energy store	Kinetic energy = 0.5 x mass x velocity ²	$E_k = 0.5 m v^2$	Energy – Joules (J) Mass – kilograms (kg)	Insulation				
Gravitational potential energy store	Gravitational potential energy = mass x gravitational field strength x height	$E_p = m g h$	Velocity – metres per second (m/s)	A method of reducing energy transfers by the use of insulators (non-conductive material). Occurs in buildings.				
Power	Power = energy transferred ÷ time	$P = \frac{E}{t}$	Gravitational field strength – Newtons per kilogram (N/kg)	Conservation of energy				
Power	Power = work done ÷ time	$P = \frac{W}{t}$	Height – metres (m)	The law that states that energy cannot be created or destroyed .				
Efficiency	Efficiency = $\frac{\text{useful energy output}}{\text{total energy input}}$		Power – Watts (W)	Specific heat capacity				
Efficiency	Efficiency = $\frac{\text{useful power output}}{\text{total power input}}$		Time – seconds (s) Work done – Joules (J)	The energy needed to raise 1kg of a material by 1°C .				
Specific Heat Capacity	Change in thermal energy = mass x specific heat capacity x temperature change	$\Delta E = m c \Delta \theta$	Specific heat capacity – Joules per kilogram degrees Centigrade (J/Kg°C)					

Physics 2: Electricity

Section 1: Circuit Symbols

	switch (open)		lamp
	switch (closed)		fuse
	cell		voltmeter
	battery		ammeter
	diode		thermistor
	resistor		LDR
	variable resistor		LED

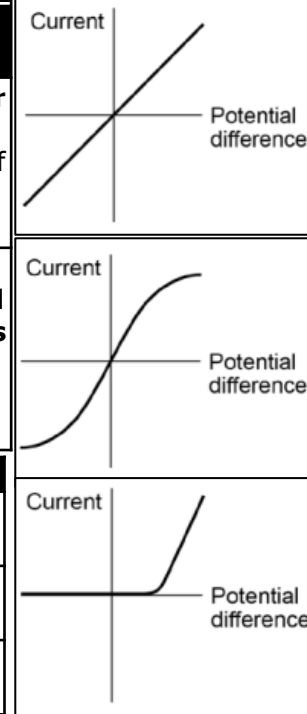
Section 4: V, I and R in Series and Parallel

Type of circuit	Current	Potential Difference	Resistance
Series	The current is the same at every point in the circuit and in every component.	The total potential difference is shared between the components.	The more resistors, the greater the resistance . The total resistance of a circuit is the sum of the resistance of each component. $R_{total} = R_1 + R_2$
Parallel	The total current through the whole circuit is the sum of the currents through the separate components .	The potential difference across each component is the same .	Adding more resistors in parallel decreases resistance . The total resistance of two resistors is less than the resistance of the smallest individual resistor .

Section 6: The Three Core Cable

Live	Brown colour. Current flows to the appliance. Potential difference between this and other wires should be 230V .
Neutral	Blue colour. Current taken away from appliance. Potential difference should be 0V .
Earth	Yellow and green colour. Potential difference of 0V . Carries charge to Earth if live wire touches the metal casing of an appliance.

Section 5: IV Graphs



Fixed Resistor (Ohmic Conductor)
Current and potential difference are **directly proportional**. **Resistance is constant**.

Filament Lamp
Resistance of a filament lamp is **not constant**. As temperature increases, resistance increases. **Ions** within the lamp **vibrate more**, increasing **collisions** with electrons.

Diode/ LED
The **current** through a diode flows in **one direction only**. The diode has a **very high resistance in the reverse direction**.

Section 2: Important Equations – given in exam but must learn units

Equation	Symbols	Units
Charge flow = current x time	$Q = I \times t$	Charge flow - coulomb (C)
Potential difference = current x resistance	$V = I \times R$	
Power = potential difference x current	$P = V \times I$	Current – amperes (A)
Power = current ² x resistance	$P = I^2 \times R$	Time – seconds (s)
Energy transferred = power x time	$E = P \times t$	Potential difference – volts (V)
Energy transferred = charge flow x potential difference	$E = Q \times V$	Resistance – ohms (Ω)
Potential difference across primary coil x current in primary coil = potential difference across secondary coil x current in secondary coil	$V_S I_S = V_P I_P$	Power – watt (W)
		Energy = joules (J)

Section 3: Key Terms

Electric current	The flow of electric charge .
Potential difference	The potential difference between two points in an electric circuit is the work done when a coulomb of charge passes between the points . Potential difference causes charge to flow .
Resistance	Resistance is caused by anything that opposes the flow of electric charge .
Charge	Anything charged that is able to move within a circuit. Electrons or ions .
Series	A circuit with only one route for charge to take.
Parallel	A circuit with more than one route for charge to take.

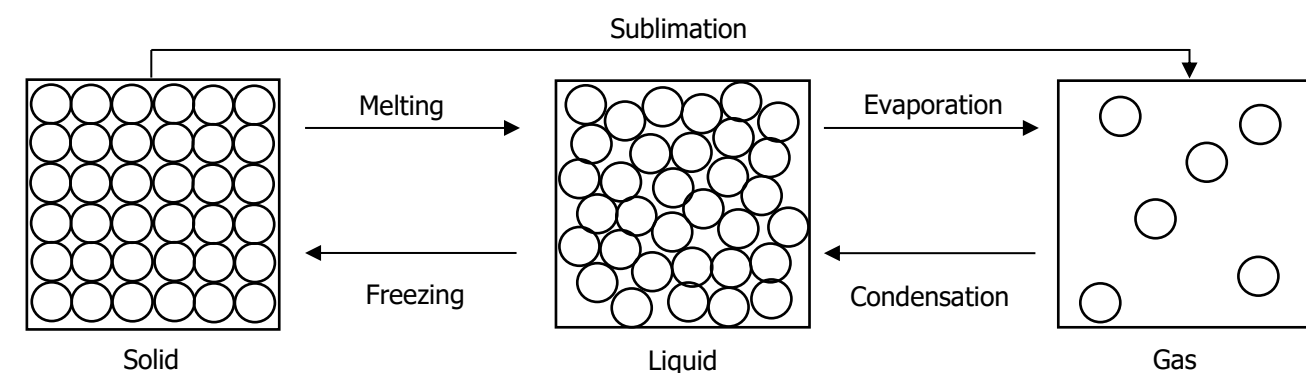
Section 7: Mains Electricity

Alternating Current	The current regularly changes direction e.g. mains electricity
Direct Current	The current flows in one direction only e.g. batteries .
Mains Electricity	UK mains is an alternating current of 230V and at a frequency of 50Hz .
National Grid	A series of cables and transformers linking power stations to consumers.
Step-up Transformer	Increases the potential difference for transmission across power cables. This reduces the current and therefore less heat is lost from the cables. This makes the National Grid efficient .
Step-down Transformer	Reduces the potential difference from the cables to 230V for use by consumers.

Physics 3: Particle Model of Matter

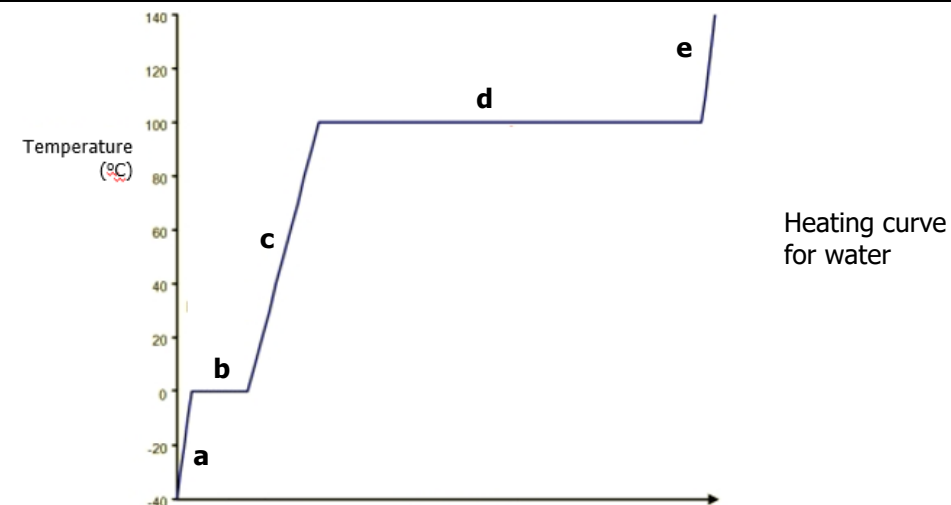
Section 1: Key Terms

Density	How much mass a substance contains compared to its volume . Solids are usually dense because the particles are closely packed.
State of matter	The way in which the particles are arranged – solid, liquid or gas.
Change of state	When a substance changes from one state of matter to another (e.g. melting is the change from a solid to a liquid). Energy changes the state, not the temperature.
Physical change	A change that can be reversed to recover the original material. E.g. a change of state.
Chemical change	A change that creates new products . It cannot easily be reversed . E.g. a chemical reaction.
Internal energy	The energy stored inside a system by the particles (atoms and molecules) that make up the system. Internal energy is the total kinetic energy and potential energy of all the particles .
Kinetic energy	Energy stored within moving objects (e.g. particles).
Potential energy	Energy stored in particles because of their position . The further apart particles are, the greater the potential energy .
Specific heat capacity	The specific heat capacity of a substance is the amount of energy required to raise the temperature of one kilogram of the substance by one degree Celsius .
Temperature	The average kinetic energy of the particles .
Specific latent heat	The amount of energy required to change the state of one kilogram of the substance with no change in temperature .
Latent heat of fusion	Energy required to change state from solid to liquid .
Latent heat of vaporisation	Energy required to change state from liquid to vapour (gas) .
Gas Pressure	The force exerted by gases on a surface as the particles collide with it. As temperature increases, gas pressure increases if the volume stays constant.



Section 2: Important equations – you will be given the equation in the exam BUT you must learn the units and know how to use the equation

Calculation	Equation (given on equations sheet)	Symbols	Units (must learn)
Density	Density = $\frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}}$	$\rho = \frac{m}{v}$	Density = kilograms / metre ³ (kg/m ³) Mass = kilograms (kg) Volume = metres ³ (m ³)
Specific Latent Heat	Energy for change of state = mass x specific latent heat	$E = m L$	Energy – Joules (J) Mass – kilograms (Kg) Latent heat – joules per kilogram (J/kg)



Section 3: Explaining a heating curve

a. Solid	Particles are closely packed, fixed and arranged in regular layers. As more energy is absorbed the kinetic energy and therefore the internal energy of the material increases.
b. Melting	Temperature doesn't change. Energy is used to weaken the forces between particles. As more energy is absorbed the potential energy and therefore the internal energy of the material increases.
c. Liquid	Particles are touching but no longer arranged regularly. They are able to move. As more energy is absorbed the kinetic energy and therefore the internal energy of the material increases.
d. Evaporation	Temperature doesn't change. Energy is used to weaken the forces between particles. As more energy is absorbed the potential energy and therefore the internal energy of the material increases.
e. Gas	Particles move randomly. As more energy is absorbed the particles move more quickly and the temperature increases.

Physics 4: Atomic Structure

Section 1: Key Terms

Atom	The smallest part of an element that can exist. All substances are made of atoms. No overall electrical charge. Very small , radius of 0.1nm.
Isotope	An atom of the same element with different numbers of neutrons .
Radioactive decay	When an unstable nucleus changes to become more stable and gives out radiation. Random.
Radioactive activity	The rate at which decay occurs . Measured in becquerels (Bq) .
Count rate	Number of decays recorded each second by a Geiger-Muller tube.
Half life	The time it takes for the number of nuclei of the isotope in a sample to halve Or, The time it takes for the count rate (or activity) from a sample containing the isotope to fall to half its initial level.
Contamination	The unwanted presence of materials containing radioactive atoms e.g. within liquids, with the body/ on the skin.
Irradiation	When an object is exposed to radiation . The object does not become radioactive itself.
Ionisation	Radiation can ionize by removing electrons from atoms to form ions . If this happens in DNA it could lead to a mutation that causes cancer .
Peer review	The checking of scientific results by other scientific experts .

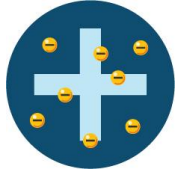
Section 2: Properties of Sub-Atomic Particles

Sub-atomic particle	Mass	Charge	Position in Atom
Proton	1	+1	Nucleus
Neutron	1	0	Nucleus
Electron	Very small	-1	Orbiting in shells

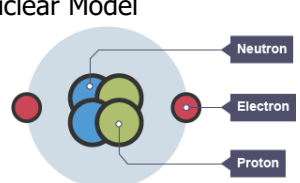
Mass number – the total number of **protons** and **neutrons**



Section 3: Development of Atomic Model

Plum Pudding 

The plum pudding model shows that the atom is a **ball of positive charge** with **negative electrons embedded** in it. Was **incorrect**.

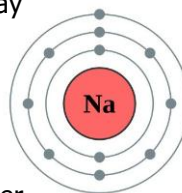
Nuclear Model 

Rutherford's scattering experiment found a central area of positive charge. The nuclear model has a **positive nucleus** and **electrons in shells**. Later, neutrons were discovered and included in the nucleus.

Atomic number – the **number of protons** (the number of electrons is the same in an atom)

Energy levels:

Absorption of radiation may lead to electrons moving further from the nucleus (higher energy level). Emission of radiation may lead to electrons moving closer to the nucleus (lower energy level).



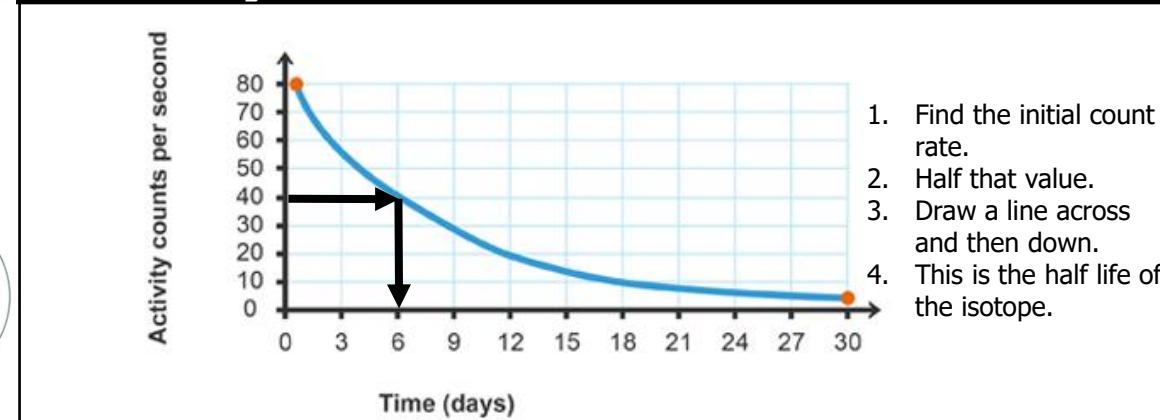
Section 4: Nuclear Radiation

Radiation	Range in air	Absorbed by	Ionizing Power	Product emitted when nuclei decay
Alpha	Short – up to 5cm	Paper and skin	Very High	2 protons and 2 neutrons
Beta	Medium – about 1m	About 5mm of aluminium .	Medium	Electron
Gamma	Many kilometres	Several centimetres of lead.	Low	Electromagnetic wave

Section 5: Nuclear Decay Equations

Alpha decay	${}_{86}^{219}\text{Rn} \rightarrow {}_{84}^{215}\text{Po} + {}_2^4\text{He}$ <p>In alpha decay a helium nucleus (2 protons and 2 neutrons) is emitted. The new element formed has:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A mass number that has decreased by 4. - An atomic number that has decreased by 2.
Beta decay	${}_{6}^{14}\text{C} \rightarrow {}_{7}^{14}\text{N} + {}_{-1}^0\text{e}$ <p>In beta decay a neutron turns into a proton. An electron is emitted. The new element formed has:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A mass number that stays the same. - An atomic number increases by 1.
Gamma decay	There are no changes to the nucleus when gamma rays are emitted.

Section 6: Finding Half Life



Physics 5: Forces

Section 1: Key terms

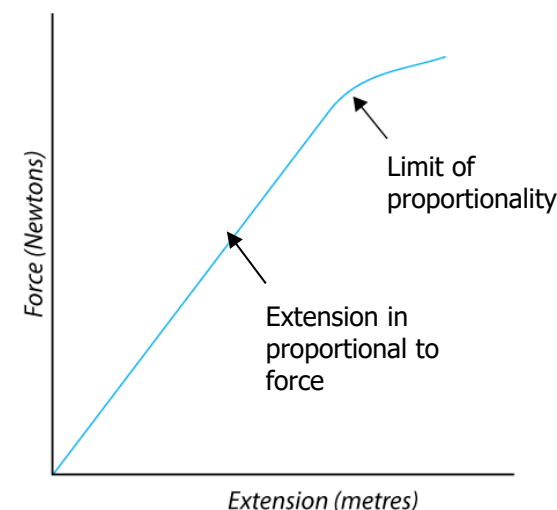
Scalar	A value with magnitude (size) only , e.g. speed, distance .
Vector	A value with magnitude (size) and direction , e.g. all forces, displacement, velocity .
Contact force	Force between objects that are touching e.g. friction, air resistance.
Non-contact force	Force between separate objects e.g. gravitational force, magnetic force.
Weight	The force of gravity acting on an object's mass . Measured using a newtonmeter .
Centre of mass	The single point at which the object's weight appears to act .
Resultant force	A resultant force is a single force that has the same effect as all the forces acting on an object.
Work done	Work is done when an object is moved through a distance . When work is done against friction there is a temperature rise .
Momentum (HT)	Moving objects with mass have momentum. Momentum is " mass in motion ".
Conservation of momentum (HT)	In a closed system, the total momentum before an event is equal to the total momentum after the event .

Section 2: Important equations – you will be given the equation in the exam **BUT** you must **learn** the **units** and know how to use the equation

Equation (given on equations sheet)	Symbols	Units (must learn)
Weight = mass x gravitational field strength	$W = m g$	Weight – newtons (N) Mass – kilograms (kg)
Work done = force x distance	$W = F s$	GFS – newtons per kilogram (N/kg) Work done – joules (J)
Force = spring constant x extension	$F = k e$	Force – newtons (N) Distance – metres (m)
Distance = speed x time	$s = v t$	Spring constant – newtons per metre (N/m) Extension – metres (m)
Acceleration = $\frac{\text{change in velocity}}{\text{time taken}}$	$a = \frac{\Delta v}{t}$	Distance – metres (m) Speed – metres per second (m/s)
Resultant force = mass x acceleration	$F = m a$	Time – seconds (s) Acceleration = metres per second squared (m/s ²)
Elastic Potential Energy = 0.5 x spring constant x Extension ²	$E_e = 0.5 k e^2$	Velocity = metres per second (m/s) Energy – Joules (J)

Section 3: Elasticity

Elastic deformation	Occurs when a spring is stretched and can then return to its original length .
Inelastic deformation	Occurs when a spring is stretched and its length is permanently altered .
Limit of proportionality	The length a spring can be stretched before it no longer is able to return to its original length . Beyond the limit of proportionality, a force-extension graph is curved.



Force-extension graph

Section 4: Forces and Braking

Reaction time	The time it takes for a driver to react , typically 0.2-0.9s . Affected by tiredness, drugs, alcohol and distractions .
Thinking distance	The distance a vehicle travels while a driver is reacting .
Braking distance	The distance a vehicle travels under braking . Affected by weather conditions (e.g. rain or ice) and the conditions of the brakes and tyres of a vehicle.
Stopping distance	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).
Braking force	When the brakes are pressed, 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 . The greater the speed of a vehicle, the greater the force needed to stop the vehicle. Large decelerations may lead to loss of control or overheating of the brakes.

Section 5a: Motion	
Displacement	The distance an object moves and the direction in which it occurs. A vector quantity.
Velocity	The speed of an object in a particular direction .
Acceleration	The change of an object's speed in a certain amount of time. If an object is falling near the surface of the Earth its acceleration will be 9.8m/s^2 .
Terminal velocity	The maximum speed of a moving object. Occurs when the force moving an object (e.g. gravity) is balanced by frictional forces (e.g. air resistance).
Circular motion (HT)	An object moving in a circle has constant speed but changing velocity . This is because the direction in which the object is moving is constantly changing, and velocity is a vector quantity that measures direction and speed.

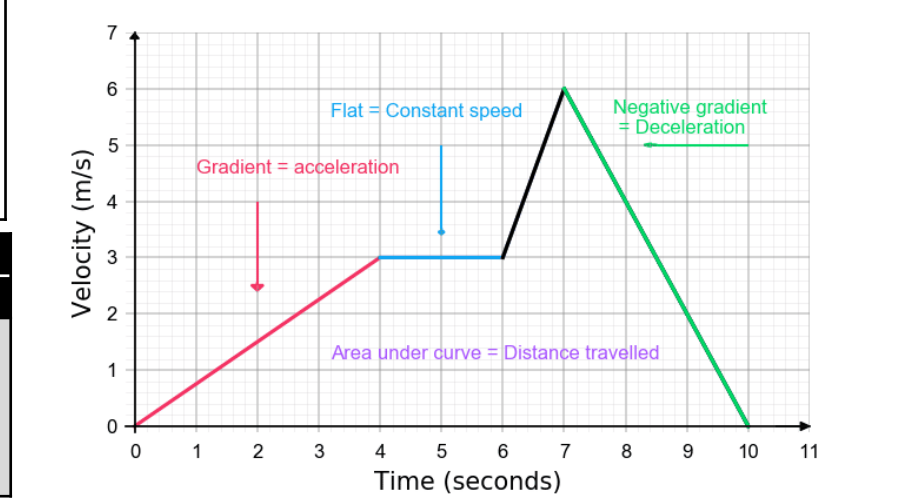
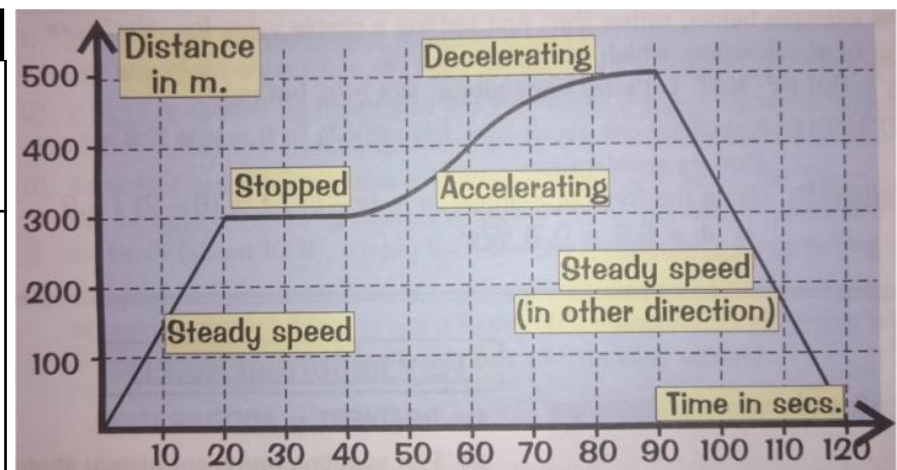
Distance-time graph	Velocity-time graph
Constant speed - straight line	Constant speed - horizontal line
Accelerating - curved line upwards	Accelerating - straight line with velocity increasing
Decelerating - curved line going towards horizontal	Decelerating - straight line with velocity decreasing
Stationary - horizontal line	Stationary - horizontal line on x-axis (velocity = 0)
	Moving backwards - below x-axis
Gradient of line can be calculated to give speed	Gradient of line can be calculated to give acceleration or deceleration

Section 5b: Typical Values of Speed	
Walking	1.5 m/s
Running	3 m/s
Cycling	6 m/s
Sound in air	330 m/s

Section 6: Newton's Laws	
Newton's First Law	The velocity of an object will only change if a resultant force is acting on the object. If there is no resultant force the object will: - Remain stationary if it was not moving. - Continue at a constant speed if it was already moving.
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. i.e. Force = mass x acceleration.
Newton's Third Law	Whenever two objects interact , the forces they exert on each other are equal and opposite .
Inertia (HT)	The tendency of objects to continue in their state of rest or of uniform motion .

Section 7: Vector Diagrams (HT)

Determine the resultant of two vectors using the parallelogram method. When drawn to scale, the angle (direction) of the vectors can be measured with a protractor

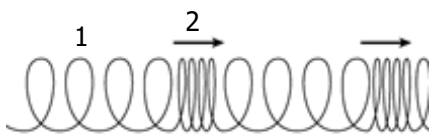


Section 8: HT equations – you will be given the equation in the exam BUT you must learn the units and know how to use the equation			
Calculation	Equation (given on equations sheet)	Symbols	Units (must learn)
Momentum	Momentum = mass x velocity	$p = m v$	Momentum – kilograms metres per second (kg m/s) Mass – kilograms (kg)
Uniform acceleration	Final velocity ² – initial velocity ² = 2 x acceleration x distance	$v^2 - u^2 = 2 a s$	Velocity = metres per second (m/s) Acceleration – metres per second squared (m/s ²)

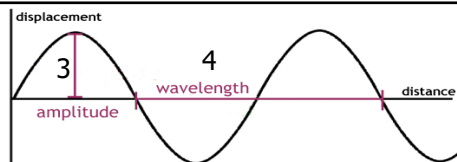
Physics 6: Waves

Section 1: Describing Waves

Amplitude (3)	The maximum displacement of a point on a wave away from its undisturbed position .
Wavelength (4)	The distance from a point on one wave to the equivalent point on the next wave .
Frequency	The number of waves passing a point each second .
Longitudinal	Oscillations are along the same direction as the direction of travel e.g. sound waves.
Transverse	Oscillations are at right angles to the direction of travel e.g. water waves, all electromagnetic waves.
Period	The time needed for one wave to pass a given point .
Compression (2)	Area in a longitudinal wave where particles are closest together.
Rarefaction (1)	Area in a longitudinal wave where particles are furthest apart.
Absorb	When the energy of an EM wave is taken up by an object .
Transmit	When a wave is able to pass through a material.
Reflect	The wave bounces off a surface ; the angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflection .
Refract	The wave changes direction when it enters a medium of different density where it has a different speed .



Longitudinal Wave



Transverse Wave

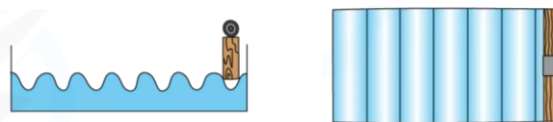
Section 2: Measuring the Speed of Sound

- 1 **Measure** the **distance** to a building.
- 2 **Fire a starting pistol** and **start a timer**.
- 3 **Stop the timer** when the **echo** is heard.
- 4 **Half** your value for **time** and Work out the **speed** using **distance divided by time**.

Section 3: Important Equations – given in exam but must learn units

Calculation	Equation	Symbols	Units
Wave speed	Wave speed = frequency x wavelength	$v = f \lambda$	Wave speed - metres per second (m/s) Frequency - hertz (Hz)
Frequency	Period = 1 / frequency	$T = 1/f$	Wavelength - metres (m) Time – seconds (s)

Section 4a: Using a Ripple Tank to Study Waves

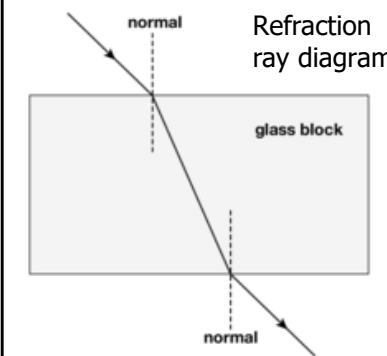


- 1) Count the number of waves passing a point in 10 seconds
- 2) Divide this number by 10 to get the **frequency**
- 3) Take a photo of the waves
- 4) Measure the length of 10 waves
- 5) Divide this number by 10 to get the **wavelength**
- 6) Calculate the **wave speed** using your answers to parts 2 & 5. Wave speed = frequency x wavelength

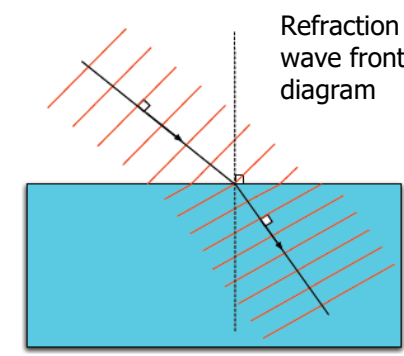
Section 5: Properties of EM Waves and Sound Waves

Property	EM Wave	Sound Wave
Speed	300,000,000 m/s	around 330 m/s
Medium it can travel through	Anything, even a vacuum (space).	Solids, liquids, gases
Type of wave	Transverse	Longitudinal
Wavelength	Very short	Longer

Section 4b: Refraction Diagrams (HT)



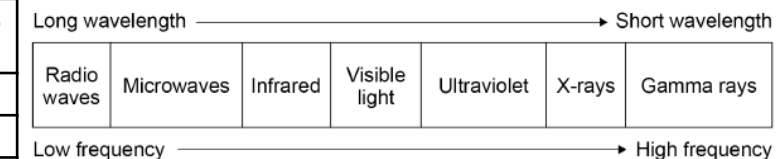
Refraction ray diagram



Refraction wave front diagram

Section 5a: The Electromagnetic Spectrum

The collective name for **all types of EM radiation**. They are all **transverse waves** that travel at **300,000,000 m/s**.



Section 5b: Uses and Risks of EM Radiation

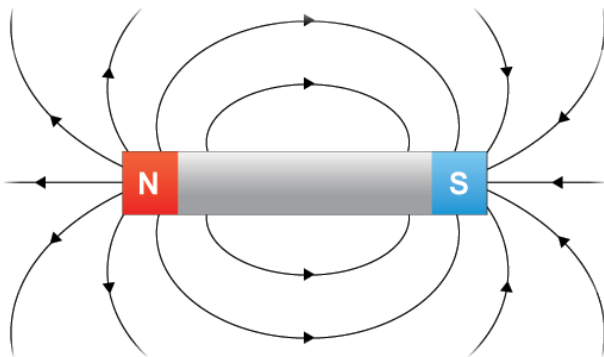
EM Wave	Use	Why it's suitable (HT)	Risks
Radio Waves	Television and radio	Reflected by ionosphere so can broadcast over long distances .	
Microwaves	Satellite communications, cooking food	Able to pass through the atmosphere to satellites . Has a heating effect.	
Infrared	Electrical heaters, cooking food, infrared cameras	Has a heating effect. Emitted by objects so can be detected .	
Visible Light	Fibre optic communications	Able to pass along a cable by total internal reflection .	
Ultraviolet	Energy efficient lamps, sun tanning	Increases amount of melanin (brown pigment) in skin .	Premature skin ageing , increase risk of skin cancer (some can ionize)
X-Rays	Medical imaging and treatments	Absorbed by bone but transmitted through soft tissue .	Ionizing – can cause mutation of genes and cancer
Gamma Rays	Medical imaging and treatments	Able to pass out of body and be detected by gamma cameras . Can kill cancerous cells .	Ionizing – can cause mutation of genes and cancer

Physics 7: Magnetism and Electromagnetism

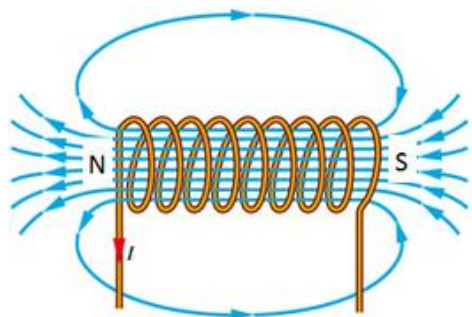
Section 1: Magnetism Key Terms

Pole	The places on a magnet where the magnetic forces are strongest .
Magnetic Field	The area around a magnet where a force acts on another magnet or magnetic material.
Repel	Occurs when two like poles are brought close together. The magnets push apart .
Attract	Occurs when two opposite poles are brought close together. The magnets move together .
Permanent magnet	A magnet that produces its own magnetic field .
Induced magnet	A magnetic material that becomes a magnet when it is placed in a magnetic field . When removed from the field it quickly loses its magnetism .
Magnetic material	There are four magnetic materials: iron, steel, cobalt and nickel .
Compass	Compasses contain small bar magnets which points to the north pole of the Earth's magnetic field .

The magnetic field around a bar magnet. The **field lines** always go **from North to South**

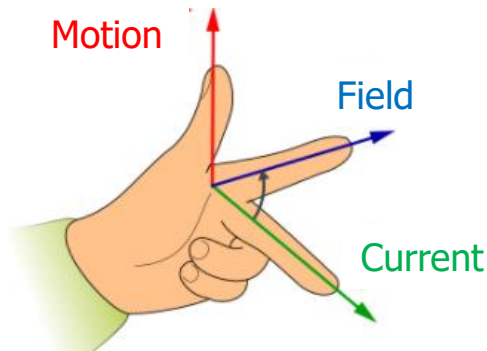


The magnetic field in a **solenoid** is concentrated **inside the coil in a uniform direction**, otherwise it acts in the same way as a bar magnet.



Section 2: Electromagnetism Key Terms

Solenoid	A coil of wire that will create a magnetic field when current is passed through it. The magnetic field inside the solenoid is strong and uniform . It acts in the same way as a bar magnet.
Electromagnet	A solenoid containing an iron core which increases its strength.
Motor effect (HT)	When a conductor carrying a current is placed in a magnetic field , the magnet producing the field and the conductor exert a force on each other . This can be used to create a motor.
Fleming's Left Hand Rule (HT)	A rule that shows the relative direction of the current, force and magnetic field in the motor effect.

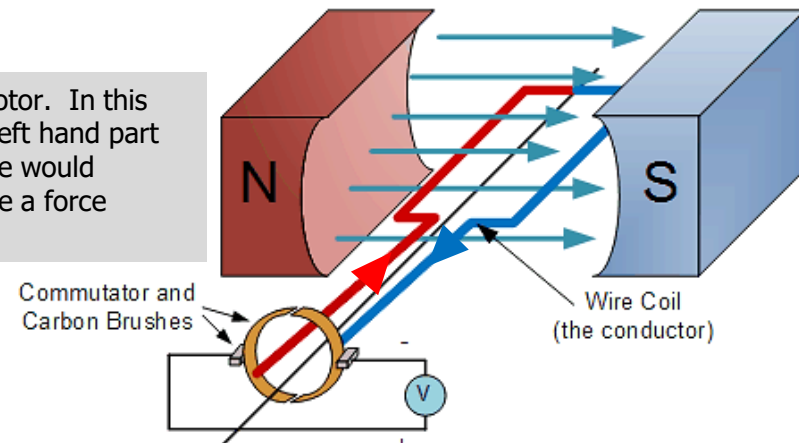


(HT) Fleming's Left Hand Rule. Align fingers to the field and the direction of the current to work out the way the wire moves.

Section 3: Increasing the force of...

A Solenoid	A Motor (HT)
Add an iron core	Increase the number of coils of wire
Increase the number of coils of wire	Increase the strength of the magnetic field
Increase the current	Increase the current
Move the magnetic material/magnet closer to the solenoid	

(HT) A motor. In this case the left hand part of the wire would experience a force upwards.



Section 4: Equations HT – you will be given the equation in the exam BUT you must learn the units and know how to use the equation

Calculation	Equation (given on equations sheet)	Symbols	Units (must learn)
Force on a current-carrying wire	Force = magnetic flux density x current x length	$F = B I l$	Force – Newtons (N) Magnetic flux density – Tesla (T) Current – Amps (A) Length – metres (m)