

AS Physics: Mechanics

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Scalar and Vector Quantities

A scalar quantity has only size. A vector has sized and direction

scalar	vector
distance	displacement
speed	velocity
temperature	force
mass	acceleration
energy	momentum

Whenever you calculate a vector quantity you must give its size and direction

Displacement and Velocity

Displacement is distance in a given direction.

$$\text{Velocity} = \frac{\text{displacement (m)}}{\text{time (s)}} \quad v = s/t$$

Acceleration

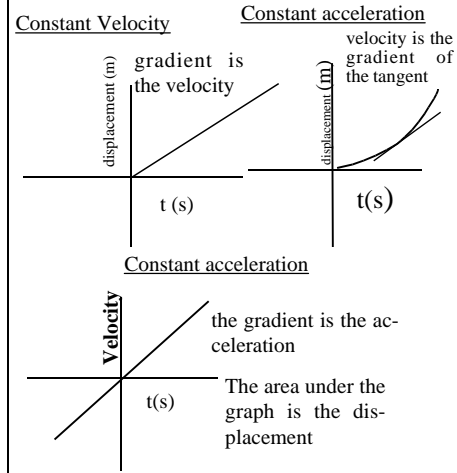
Acceleration is the rate of change of velocity.

An object with constant speed can still be accelerating if its direction is changing because its velocity changes as direction changes.

$$\text{acceleration} = \frac{\text{velocity change}}{\text{time (s)}} \quad a = \frac{v-u}{t}$$

v = final velocity, u = initial velocity, t = time

Motion Graphs



Newtons 2nd Law of Motion

The acceleration produced by a force when it acts on a body is proportional to the force **and takes place in the direction of the force**

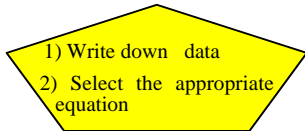
$$\text{acceleration} = \frac{\text{force (N)}}{\text{mass (kg)}} \quad a = f/m$$

Equations of Motion for an Object with constant acceleration

$$v = u + at$$

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

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



Example: A rocket accelerates at 1000ms^{-2} for 20s. What distance is travelled?

$$a = 1000\text{ms}^{-2}, t = 20\text{s}, s = ?$$

$$s = ut + \frac{1}{2}at^2 = 1000 \times 20 + 0.5 \times 1000 \times 20^2$$

$$= 20000 + 200000 = 220000\text{m}$$

Newtons 1st Law of motion

An object will remain at rest or have constant velocity unless it is acted on by an external force

Defining the Newton

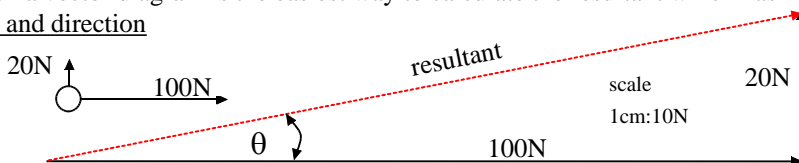
From $f = ma$ we can define 1 N as being the force required to make a 1kg mass accelerate by 1ms^{-2} $f = 1 \times 1 = 1\text{N}$

Mass and Weight

A huge spaceship in deep space is weightless but is still difficult to get moving or stop. Mass is a measure of how difficult it is to change the motion of an object. Weight is the pull of gravity on a mass and very much depends where you are in the universe

Calculations Involving Vectors

Vectors combine together to give a resultant. It could be force, velocity etc. Often a vector diagram is the easiest way to calculate the resultant which has size and direction



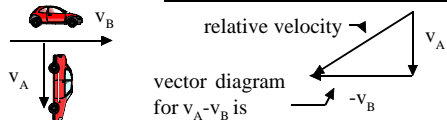
Vector addition Rules

- Using a sensible scale Re-draw the diagram with the tail of one vector starting at the head of the other
- The line that 'closes' the diagram is the resultant
- Measure the length of the line and convert back to the quantity using your scale
- Use a protractor to measure an angle

Length of resultant = 10.2cm which is $10.2 \times 10 = 102\text{N}$ and $\theta = 11.3^\circ$

The same result would have been obtained using Pythagoras theorem $a^2 = b^2 + c^2$ and $\theta = \tan^{-1}(20/100)$

Subtracting vectors . For example when calculating the difference in two cars velocities with velocity v_A and v_B the difference is equal to $v_A - v_B$. The vector v_B must be drawn as $-v_B$

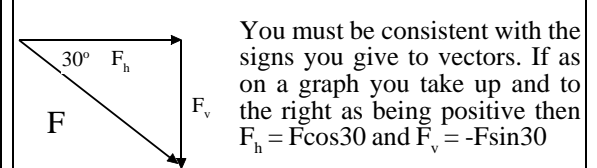


Acceleration due to Gravity(g)

From $f = ma$, weight $w = mg$

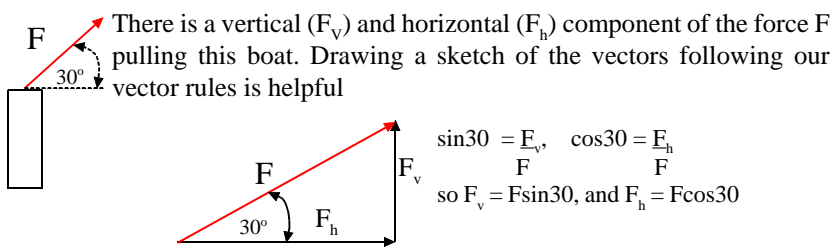
so $g = w/m$, and if air resistance is ignored all objects would accelerate to earth at the same rate of 9.8ms^{-2} . This seems surprising surely heavier objects would accelerate more? They do not because they also have more mass and the two factors cancel each other out

Vectors positive or negative?

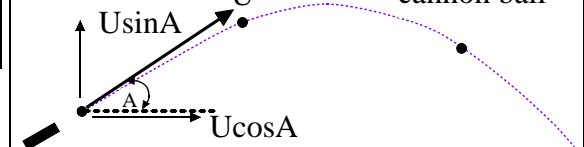


Vector Components

In two dimensions a vector has a horizontal and vertical component



Projectiles



Gravity has no component in the horizontal direction and therefore if we neglect air resistance the projectile will move at constant velocity horizontally. and $U\cos A = s/t$.

In the vertical direction the projectiles acceleration remains at -10ms^{-2} throughout its motion and we must use the equations of motion but remember to apply them in the vertical direction only ie. vertical displacement, vertical velocity. Take care that you are consistent with the signs (+ or -) given to velocity, displacement and g

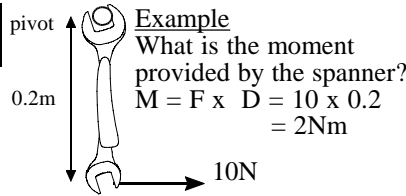
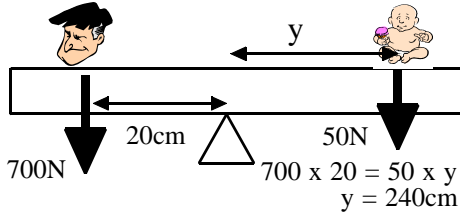
Turning Forces (moments)

A turning force can be called a moment. All moments turn about a point called the pivot. The moment can be made bigger by increasing the force and its distance from the pivot

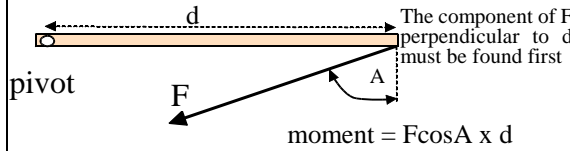
moment = force(N) x perpendicular distance from the pivot to the line of action of the force (m)
(Nm)

Balance point

At equilibrium the sum of the clockwise moments is equal to the sum of the anticlockwise moments. How far (y) is the baby from the pivot if the seesaw balances?



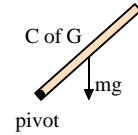
What happens if the distance d and the line of action of the force are not perpendicular?



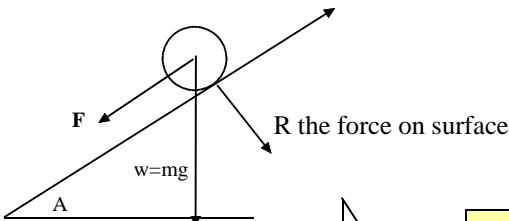
Centre of Gravity

This is the point from which in a body gravity acts. For symmetrical objects with weight evenly distributed it is at the centre. The weight of an object can produce a moment about a pivot. The weight acts from the centre of gravity

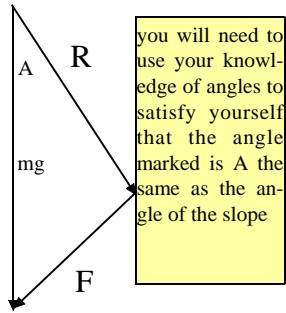
A car barrier



The Inclined Plane Vectors can be used to analyse the forces and acceleration of objects. The acceleration of the ball is clearly 0 when the plane is flat but increases as it becomes more vertical and eventually g when it is completely vertical. The force causing the ball to accelerate is the component of the balls weight down the slope



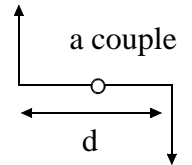
Drawing a vector diagram gives
 $F = mg \sin A$, the force down the slope
from $f = ma$, $mg \sin A = ma$
so $a = g \sin A$, when $A = 90^\circ$
 $a = g$



you will need to use your knowledge of angles to satisfy yourself that the angle marked is A the same as the angle of the slope

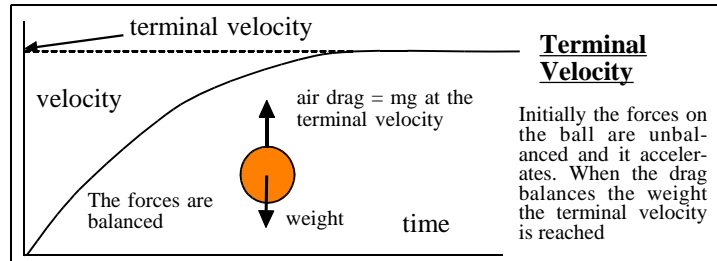
A Couple Two forces acting on an object equal in size and opposite in direction separated by a perpendicular distance d

torque of a couple = force x perpendicular distance
(Nm) between the forces



Equilibrium: A system is in equilibrium if

- 1) the resultant force on it is zero
- 2) the sum of the clockwise and anticlockwise moments is zero



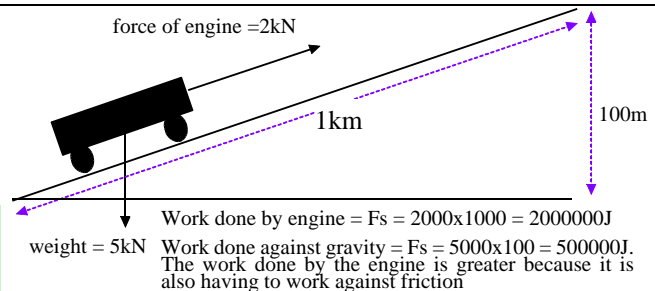
Work

Work is done when a force moves an object through a distance. Work is a transfer of energy. E.g. lifting a book chemical potential energy in muscles is changed to gravitational potential energy

Work Done = force x distance in direction of force
(J) (N) (m)

$W = F \times s$

The Joule. If a 1N weight is lifted through 1m then the work, $W = F \times s = 1 \times 1 = 1\text{J}$ and this is the definition of 1 joule



Power

Power is how quickly work is done. If a machine does a lot of work in a short space of time it has a high power. It is measured in joules per second which scientists call watts (W)

Power = work done (J) / time (s)
(W)

Example: The power of a machine that does 2000J of work in 2s is

$$P = \frac{WD}{t} = \frac{2000}{2} = 500\text{W}$$

Kinetic Energy

Anything which moves has kinetic energy. If an object has a big mass and a high speed it has a very big kinetic energy

kinetic energy = 1/2 x mass x velocity²
(J) (kg) (m/s)



Examples: What is the Kinetic energy of a 100 000kg train moving with a velocity of 30m/s?
answer: $KE = 1/2 \times m \times v^2$
 $= 1/2 \times 100\ 000 \times 30^2$
 $= 1/2 \times 100\ 000 \times 900 = 45\ 000\ 000\text{J}$

Gravitational Potential Energy

This is the energy something has due to its height above the ground

Potential energy = mass x g x height
(J) (kg) (m)

$$g = 10 \text{ m/s}^2$$


It is often more meaningful to describe the change in PE, ΔPE

$\Delta PE = mg\Delta h$

Example What is the potential energy gain of a steel girder of mass 1000kg when a crane lifts it to a height of 100m.?

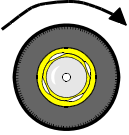
$$\Delta PE = m \times g \times \Delta h = 1000 \times 10 \times 100 = 1\ 000\ 000\text{J}$$

Newton's III Law
When two bodies interact they exert equal and opposite forces on each other



When walking your foot pushes back on the road and the road pushes with an equal and opposite forwards force which causes you to accelerate forwards. The Earth beneath you also accelerates backwards but you do not notice it because the Earth is so massive

Motive Force
 This is provided by an engine and delivered by a torque to the wheels. The wheels push back on the road and the road pushes forward with an equal opposite force (friction)



In icy weather there is not much friction available to provide the forward force. If the push of the tyre on the road exceeds this limit the wheel skids

Braking
 Brakes work using friction to apply a torque to the wheels in the opposite direction to the torque provided by the engine

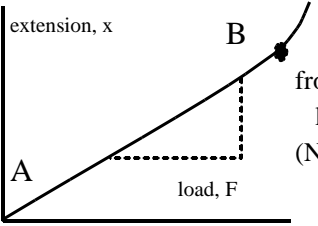
Motive Power
Motive power = force x speed
 (W) (N) (ms⁻¹)
P = Fv

Car safety Features
Crumple zones: These absorb kinetic energy. As they crumple the car decelerates less rapidly and the forces on the occupant are reduced.
Air bags: As the person hits the bag they decelerate less rapidly than if they were to hit the steering wheel directly and the forces on them are reduced.
Seat belts: These keep an occupant in their seat. They need to be slightly stretchy otherwise the forces on the person will be too large. There is a danger that seat belts will have gone past their elastic limit after a collision.

Forces in Collisions
 The deceleration in a collision is huge because the time over which the collisions occur is tiny. If the deceleration is big then the forces involved must be very big because $F = ma$. If the time of the collisions can be increased then the deceleration and the forces involved are also reduced.

Stopping Distance
stopping = thinking + braking distance distance distance
 Thinking distance is the distance you go while reacting. It is affected by alcohol, drugs and speed
 Braking distance is the distance travelled once the foot is on the brake and is affected by how hard the brakes are pressed (the harder the pedal is pressed the more the friction between the brake pad and wheel), speed, weather, road and tyre conditions. Anything which reduces friction will increase braking distance.

Deforming Solids: Hooke's Law
An object obeys Hooke's law if the extension is proportional to the load
 $F = kx$, k is the spring constant, $k = F/x$ and is the force per unit extension



from this graph
 $k = \frac{1}{\text{gradient}}$
 (N/m)

Between A and B the extension is proportional to the load. At B however the elastic limit has been reached and the material no longer returns to its original shape

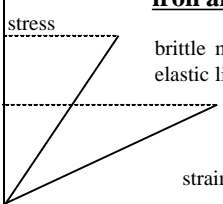
Stress and Strain
 How a material will extend under load very much depends on its dimensions i.e. its original length and cross-sectional area. To be able to compare the stiffness of materials it is more useful to consider the load per m² (stress) and the fractional increase in length (strain)

stress = force (N) / area (m²)
strain = extension / original length
 (no unit)

Young's Modulus - a measure of stiffness
 If the strain in a material is very small when a high stress is being applied then the material is very stiff

Young's modulus = stress (Nm⁻²) / strain
 Young's modulus is a constant unique to a particular material and is independent of dimensions and allows the stiffness of materials to be compared directly

Brittle materials e.g. cast iron and glass.
 brittle materials snap at their elastic limit

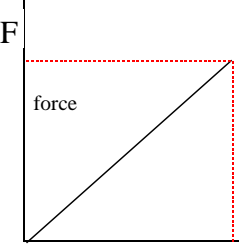


Ultimate tensile stress
 The maximum stress at the breaking point of the material

Strain Energy
 When an elastic material is stretched work is done and the energy is transferred as strain energy in the material

work = force x extension
 = area under the graph
 = 1/2 Fe

strain = 1/2 Fe / energy

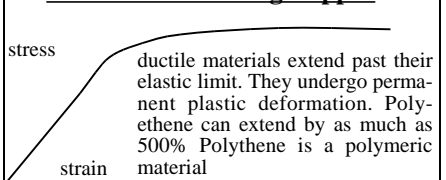


Elastic and Plastic deformation
 Elastic - material returns to its original shape when the load is removed
 Plastic - does not return to its original shape when the load is removed

Density: this is a measure of how compact a substance is

density = mass (kg) / volume (m³)

Ductile Materials e.g. copper
 ductile materials extend past their elastic limit. They undergo permanent plastic deformation. Polythene can extend by as much as 500% Polythene is a polymeric material



Pressure: this is a measure of how concentrated force is - like stress

pressure = force (N) / area (m²)
 (Pa)