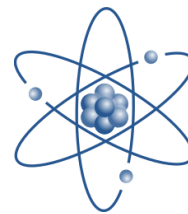# A Level Physics
at Salesian College

Introduction

Welcome to A Level Physics! We very much look forward to meeting you when you join the course in September. The A Level Physics course is fascinating but admittedly challenging; we hope that you will take this opportunity to make a positive start on the course.

Please work through the booklet, completing the tasks which are in **blue text**. After each task, mark your answers using the **solutions** from the separate document, then write a brief comment on your progress in the comments box on Page 2. This will help you to self-assess and identify any areas for improvement. You can also find a **priority order** on Page 2, to help you decide which sections to tackle first.

We anticipate that the work in the booklet will take 8-10 hours, depending on your confidence and how much you remember from your GCSE studies. You should complete as much of the booklet as you can. The more sections you complete, the better prepared you will be for the A Level course. Your work will be collected during the first week of term, and your teachers will use your work to provide feedback and support during the early stages of the A Level Physics course.

At the end of the booklet, you will also find suggestions of extension tasks focusing on how to become a better physicist. The Summer 2020 Physics Lectures are also available on the College's website. These may help to provide some background and additional context to the skills explored in this booklet.

You can find further information about our course, the Edexcel Physics (2015) specification, at the link below:

http://qualifications.pearson.com/en/qualifications/edexcel-a-levels/physics-2015.html

If you have any issues, you can contact me at fenners@salesian.hants.sch.uk.

See you in September!

Miss S Fenner

Head of Physics

Salesian College

Topic	Title	Date completed	Comments: Do you need more practice? Are you confident with this area? What areas of weakness have you identified?	Priority order (1=most important)
1	Prefixes and units			1
2	Significant Figures			1
3	Converting Length, Area, Volume			3
4	Rearranging Equations			1
5	Variables			3
6	Constructing Tables			2
7	Drawing Lines of Best Fit			2
8	Constructing Graphs			3
9	Calculating Gradients – Straight Lines			2
10	Calculating Gradients – Curved Lines			3
11	Calculating Areas – Straight Line Graphs			2
12	Calculating Areas – Curved Line Graphs			3
13	Interpreting Graphs			1
14	Accuracy vs Precision			2
15	Identifying Errors			1
16	Improving Experiments			2
17	Describing Experiments			3

1. Prefixes and units

In Physics we have to deal with quantities from the very large to the very small. A prefix is something that goes in front of a unit and acts as a multiplier. This sheet will give you practice at converting figures between prefixes.

Symbol	Name	What it means		How to convert	
P	peta	10^{15}	1000000000000000		↓ x1000
T	tera	10^{12}	1000000000000	↑ ÷ 1000	↓ x1000
G	giga	10^{9}	1000000000	↑ ÷ 1000	↓ x1000
M	mega	10^{6}	1000000	↑ ÷ 1000	↓ x1000
k	kilo	10^{3}	1000	↑ ÷ 1000	↓ x1000
			1	↑ ÷ 1000	↓ x1000
m	milli	10^{-3}	0.001	↑ ÷ 1000	↓ x1000
μ	micro	10^{-6}	0.000001	↑ ÷ 1000	↓ x1000
n	nano	10^{-9}	0.000000001	↑ ÷ 1000	↓ x1000
p	pico	10^{-12}	0.000000000001	↑ ÷ 1000	↓ x1000
f	femto	10^{-15}	0.000000000000001	↑ ÷ 1000	

Convert the figures into the units required.

6 km	=	6×10^{3}	m
54 MN	=		N
0.086 μV	=		V
753 GPa	=		Pa
23.87 mm/s	=		m/s

Convert these figures to suitable prefixed units.

640	GV	=	640×10^{9}	V
		=	0.5×10^{-6}	A
		=	93.09×10^{9}	m
	kN	=	32×10^{5}	N
	nm	=	0.024×10^{-7}	m

Convert the figures into the prefixes required.

s	ms	μs	ns	ps
0.00045	0.45	450	450 000 or 450 x10³	450×10^{6}
0.000000789				
0.000 000 000 64				

The equation for wave speed is:

$$wave\ speed = frequency\ \times wavelength$$

$$(m/s) \qquad (Hz) \qquad (m)$$

Whenever this equation is used, the quantities must be in the units stated above. At GCSE we accepted m/s but at AS/A Level we use the index notation.   m/s becomes m s^{-1} and m/s² becomes m s^{-2}. By convention we should also leave one space between values and units. 10m should be 10 m. We also leave a space between different units but no space between a prefix and units. This is to remove ambiguity when reading values.

Example ms^{-1} means 1/millisecond because the ms means millisecond, 10^{-3} s

   but   m s^{-1} means metre per second the SI unit for speed.

      or mms^{-1} could mean   mm s^{-1} compared with   m ms^{-1}

                      millimeters per second   compared with   meters per millisecond - quite a difference!!!

Calculate the following quantities using the above equation, giving answers in the required units.

1) Calculate the speed in m s^{-1} of a wave with a frequency of 75 THz and a wavelength 4.0 µm.

   v = f λ = 75 x 10^{12} x 4.0 x 10^{-6} = 3.0 x 10^8 m s^{-1} (300 Mm s^{-1})

2) Calculate the speed of a wave in m s^{-1} which has a wavelength of 5.6 mm and frequency of 0.25 MHz.

3) Calculate the wavelength in metres of a wave travelling at 0.33 km s^{-1} with a frequency of 3.0 GHz.

4) Calculate the frequency in Hz of a wave travelling at 300 x 10^3 km s^{-1} with a wavelength of 0.050 mm.

5) Calculate the frequency in GHz of a wave travelling at 300 Mm s^{-1} that has a wavelength of 6.0 cm.

2. Significant Figures

Rules for significant figures:

1) **All non-zero numbers ARE significant.** The number 33.2 has THREE significant figures because all of the digits present are non-zero.
2) **Zeros between two non-zero digits ARE significant.** 2051 has FOUR significant figures. The zero is between 2 and 5
3) **Leading zeros are NOT significant.** They're nothing more than "place holders." The number 0.54 has only TWO significant figures. 0.0032 also has TWO significant figures. All of the zeros are leading.
4) **Trailing zeros when a decimal is shown ARE significant.** There are FOUR significant figures in 92.00 and there are FOUR significant figures in 230.0.
5) **Trailing zeros in a whole number with no decimal shown are NOT significant.** Writing just "540" indicates that the zero is NOT significant, and there are only TWO significant figures in this value.
6) **For a number in scientific notation: N x 10^x, all digits comprising N ARE significant by the first 5 rules; "10" and "x" are NOT significant.** 5.02 x 10^4 has THREE significant figures.

For each value state how many significant figures it is stated to.

Value	Sig Figs	Value	Sig Figs	Value	Sig Figs	Value	Sig Figs
2		1066		1800.45		0.070	
2.0		82.42		2.483 x 10^4		69324.8	
500		750000		0.0006		0.0063	
0.136		310		5906.4291		9.81 x 10^4	
0.0300		3.10 x 10^4		200000		40000.00	
54.1		3.1 x 10^2		12.711		0.0004 x 10^4	

When adding or subtracting numbers: Round the final answer to the **least precise** number of decimal places in the original values. Eg. 0.88 + 10.2 − 5.776 (= 5.304) = **5.3** (to 1d.p. , since 10.2 only contains 1 decimal place)

Add the values below then write the answer to the appropriate number of significant figures

Value 1	Value 2	Value 3	Total Value	Total to correct sig figs
51.4	1.67	3.23		
7146	−32.54	12.8		
20.8	18.72	0.851		
1.4693	10.18	−1.062		
9.07	0.56	3.14		
739762	26017	2.058		
8.15	0.002	106		
152	0.8	0.55		

When multiplying or dividing numbers: Round the final answer to the **least** number of significant figures found in the initial values. E.g. 4.02 x 3.1 ⌐0.114 = (109.315...) = **110** (to 2s.f. as 3.1 only has 2 significant figures.

Multiply the values below then write the answer to the appropriate number of significant figures

Value 1	Value 2	Total Value	Total to correct sig figs
0.91	1.23		
8.764	7.63		
2.6	31.7		
937	40.01		
0.722	634.23		

Divide value 1 by value 2 then write the answer to the appropriate number of significant figures

Value 1	Value 2	Total Value	Total to correct sig figs
5.3	748		
3781	6.50		
91 x 10^2	180		
5.56	22 x 10^{-3}		
3.142	8.314		

When calculating a mean: Remove any **obvious** anomalies (circle these in the table). Calculate the mean with the remaining values, and record this to the **least** number of decimal places in the included values
E.g. Average 8.0, 10.00 and 145.60:
1) Remove 145.60
2) The average of 8.0 and 10.00 is **9.0** (to 1 d.p.)

Calculate the mean of the values below then write the answer to the appropriate number of significant figures

Value 1	Value 2	Value 3	Mean Value	Mean to correct sig figs
1	1	2		
435	299	437		
5.00	6.0	29.50		
5.038	4.925	4.900		
720.00	728.0	725		
0.00040	0.00039	0.000380		
31	30.314	29.7		

3. Converting length, area and volume

Whenever substituting quantities into an equation, you must always do this in SI units – such as time in seconds, mass in kilograms, distance in metres. If the question doesn't give you the quantity in the correct units, you should always convert the units **first**, rather than at the end. Sometimes the question may give you an area in mm^2 or a volume in cm^3, and you will need to convert these into m^2 and m^3 respectively before using an equation. To do this, you first need to know your length conversions:

1m = 100 cm = 1000 mm   (1 cm = 10 mm)

m to cm	x 100	cm to m	÷ 100
m to mm	x 1000	m to mm	÷ 1000

Always think, *"Should my number be getting larger or smaller?"*

This will make it easier to decide whether to multiply or divide.

Converting Areas

A 1m x 1m square is equivalent to a 100 cm x 100 cm square.

Therefore, $1 m^2 = 10\,000 cm^2$

Similarly, this is equivalent to a 1000 mm x 1000 mm square;

So, $1 m^2 = 1\,000\,000 mm^2$
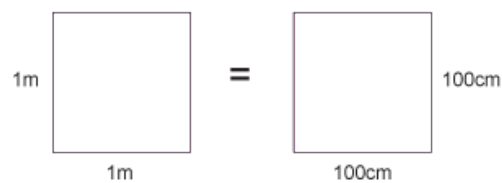
$m^2 \rightarrow cm^2$	x 10 000	$cm^2 \rightarrow m^2$	÷ 10 000
$m^2 \rightarrow mm^2$	x 1 000 000	$m^2 \rightarrow mm^2$	÷ 1 000 000

Converting Volumes

A 1m x 1m x 1m cube is equivalent to a 100 cm x 100 cm x 100 cm cube.

Therefore, $1 m^3 = 1\,000\,000 cm^3$

Similarly, this is equivalent to a 1000 mm x 1000 mm x 1000 mm cube;

So, $1 m^3 = 10^9 mm^3$

$m^3 \rightarrow cm^3$	x 1 000 000	$cm^3 \rightarrow m^3$	÷ 1 000 000
$m^3 \rightarrow mm^3$	x 10^9	$m^3 \rightarrow mm^3$	÷ 10^9
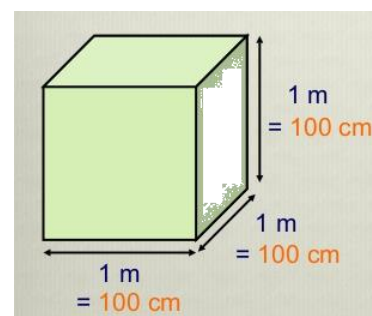
Convert the values below in to the stated units.

6 m²	=	cm²
0.002 m²	=	mm²
24 000 cm²	=	m²
46 000 000 mm³	=	m³
0.56 m³	=	cm³

750 mm²	=	m²
5×10^{-4} cm³	=	m³
8.3×10^{-6} m³	=	mm³
3.5×10^{2} m²	=	cm²
152000 mm²	=	m²

Now use the technique shown on the previous page to work out the following conversions:

31×10^{8} m²	=	km²
59 cm²	=	mm²
24 dm³	=	cm³
4 500 mm²	=	cm²
5×10^{-4} km³	=	m³

(*Hint: There are 10 cm in 1 dm*)

A 2.0 m long solid copper cylinder has a cross-sectional area of 3.0×10^{2} mm². What is its volume in cm³?

Volume = _____ cm³

For the following, think about whether you should be writing a smaller or a larger number down to help decide whether you multiply or divide. Eg. *To convert 5 m ms⁻¹ into m s⁻¹ – you will travel more metres in 1 second than in 1 millisecond, therefore you should multiply by 1000 to get 5000 m s⁻¹.*

5 N cm⁻²	=	N m⁻²
1150 kg m⁻³	=	g cm⁻³
3.0 m s⁻¹	=	km h⁻¹
65 kN cm⁻²	=	N mm⁻²
7.86 g cm⁻³	=	kg m⁻³

4. Rearranging Equations

Rearrange each equation into the subject shown in the middle column.

Equation		Rearrange Equation
$V = IR$	R	
$I = \dfrac{Q}{t}$	t	
$\rho = \dfrac{RA}{l}$	A	
$\varepsilon = V + Ir$	r	
$s = \dfrac{(u+v)}{2}t$	u	

Equation		Rearrange Equation
$hf = \phi + E_K$	f	
$E_P = mgh$	g	
$E = \dfrac{1}{2}Fe$	F	
$v^2 = u^2 + 2as$	u	
$T = 2\pi\sqrt{\dfrac{m}{k}}$	m	

5. Variables

A variable is a quantity that takes place in an experiment. There are three types of variables:

- Independent variable – *this is the quantity that you **change***
- Dependent variable – *this is the quantity that you **measure***
- Control variable – *this is a quantity that you **keep the same** so that it does not affect the results*

You can only have one independent variable and one dependent variable, but the more control variables you have the more accurate your results will be. Further to these, you can also split the independent variable category – this can be continuous or discrete. A continuous variable can take *any* numerical value, including decimals. You will construct line graphs for continuous variables. A discrete variable can only take *specific* values or labels (eg. integers or categories). You will construct bar charts for discrete variables.

For each case study below, state the independent variable, dependent variable, and any control variables described. Add further control variables, and state what type the independent variable is and what type of graph you will present the results with (if required).

Case study 1 – *Measuring the effect of gravity.* The aim of this experiment is to find out how fast objects of different masses take to fall from height. To conduct this experiment we used a number of spheres of the same diameter, which had different masses. Each sphere had its mass measured on electronic scales, before being dropped from a marker exactly 2.000 m from the floor. The time the sphere took to drop was timed on a stopwatch, and repeated 3 times for each sphere to gain an average time.

Independent variable: _____

Dependent variable: _____

Control variables:_____

_____

Type of independent variable: _____

Graph: _____

Case study 2 – *The number of children involved in different after school activities.* The aim of this study is to discover which activities are most popular so the correct resources can be supplied to the correct member of staff. On a certain day after school the number of children were recorded for the different activities they took.

Independent variable: _____

Dependent variable: _____

Control variables:_____

Type of independent variable: _____

Graph: _____

Case study 3 – *How far does the spring stretch?* The aim of this experiment is to find how far different masses stretch a spring. A spring was hung from a clamp stand, and its length end to end measured. A 10g mass was then added and the length of the spring measured and recorded. This was repeated adding 10g between 0g and 100g.

Independent variable: _____

Dependent variable: _____

Control variables:_____

Type of independent variable: _____

Graph: _____

6. Constructing tables

The **left hand column** is for your **independent variable**. The **right hand column** is for your **dependent variable**. You may split this up into further columns if repeats are carried out, and make sure you include an average column. Each sub column must come under the main heading (including the average column).

Place results in the table in order of independent variable, usually starting with the smallest value first.

Ensure each column contains a heading with units in brackets. No units should be placed in the table.

All measured values in one column should be to the same decimal place – don't forget to add zeros if necessary!

Any averages should be given to the same number of decimal places as the measured values. Remember to remove any anomalies by circling the results and do not include them in calculating your average.

Any calculated values should be given to a suitable number of significant figures/precision.

At AS/A Level we don't use brackets to separate the quantity heading from the units but use a / .

Example: **mass (kg)** should be written as **mass / kg.**

Independent Variable Heading /unit	Dependent Variable Heading /unit			
	1	2	3	Average

A student forgot his exercise book when doing a practical on electrical resistance for a resistor. Below are his readings in the practical. He measured the current in the circuit three times for five different voltages. He has made many errors.

Construct a suitable table for his results.

V : 0.11A, 0.1A, 0.12A
        2.0V : 0.21A, 0.18A, 0.24

5V : 0.5, 5.1, 0.48   4.0V : 0.35A, 0.40A, 0.45

3.0V: 0.33A, 0.6
         0.30

7. Drawing Lines of Best Fit

When drawing lines of best fit, draw a *smooth* straight or curved line that passes through the majority of the points. If you can, try to have an even number of points above and below the line if it can't go through all points. When describing the trend, use the phrase:

"As 'X' increases, 'Y' *increases/decreases* in a *linear/non-linear* fashion."
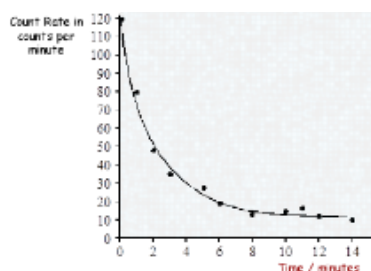
Eg. *As time increases, the count rate decreases in a non-linear fashion.*

Draw a line of best fit for each of the graphs and describe the trend shown by each (call the quantities X and Y).

1.

2.

3.

4.
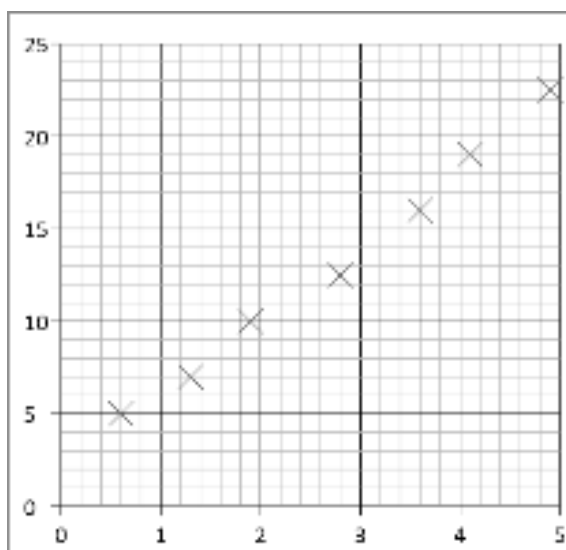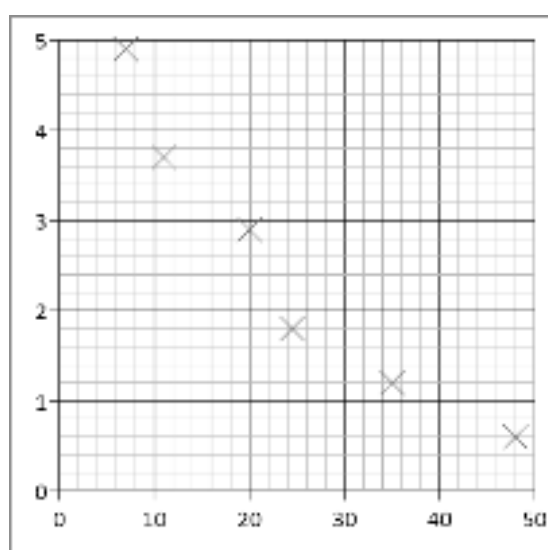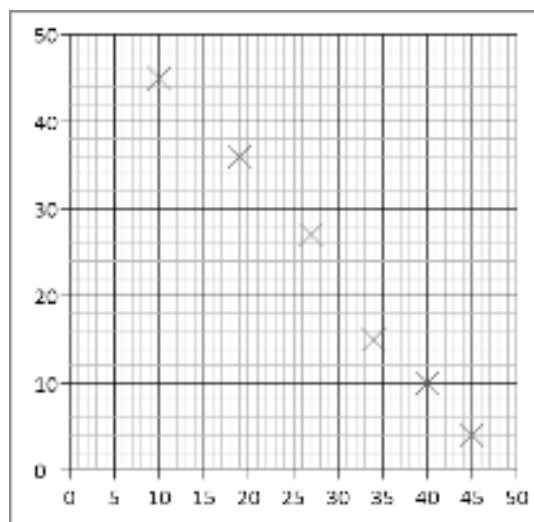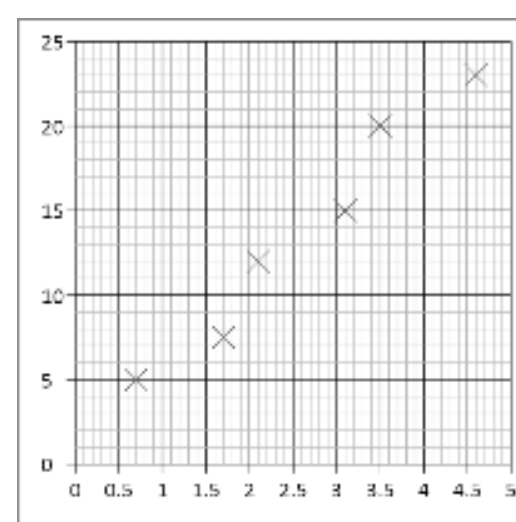
8. Constructing Graphs

When drawing graphs, you will be marked on the following criteria:

1) Axes – Your independent variable is on the x axis, and your dependent variable is on the y axis. Both axes need to be labelled.
2) Units – Add units to your axes when labelling.
3) Scale – Make your scale as large as possible so that your data fills most of the page. **You don't have to start your axes at the origin**. *Make sure you have a regular scale that goes up in nice numbers – 1, 2, 5, 10 etc…*
4) Points – mark each point with a cross using a sharp pencil. Don't use circles or dots as points.
5) Line of best fit – draw a smooth line of best fit – straight or curved depending on what pattern your data follows.

An easy way to remember these points is….. **S** cale

L ine

A xes

P oints

U nits

Plot graphs for the following sets of data, including a line of best fit for each.

Surface area of pendulum / cm²	Time taken for pendulum to stop/ s
5.0	170
6.2	127
7.4	99
8.0	86
8.8	70
9.9	56

Current / A	Voltage / V
0.07	1.46
0.14	1.44
0.21	1.42
0.30	1.40
0.41	1.38
0.57	1.33
0.81	1.29
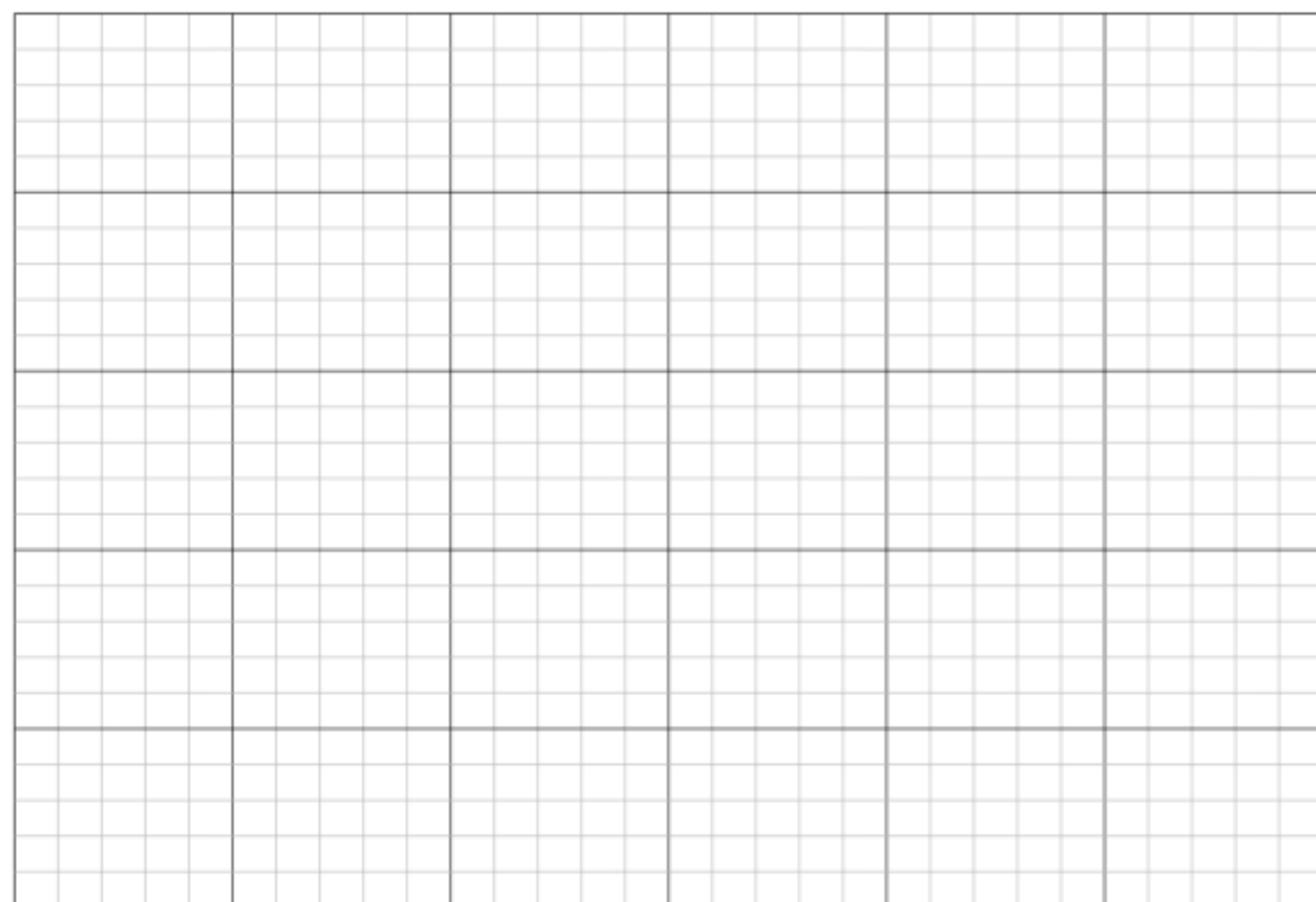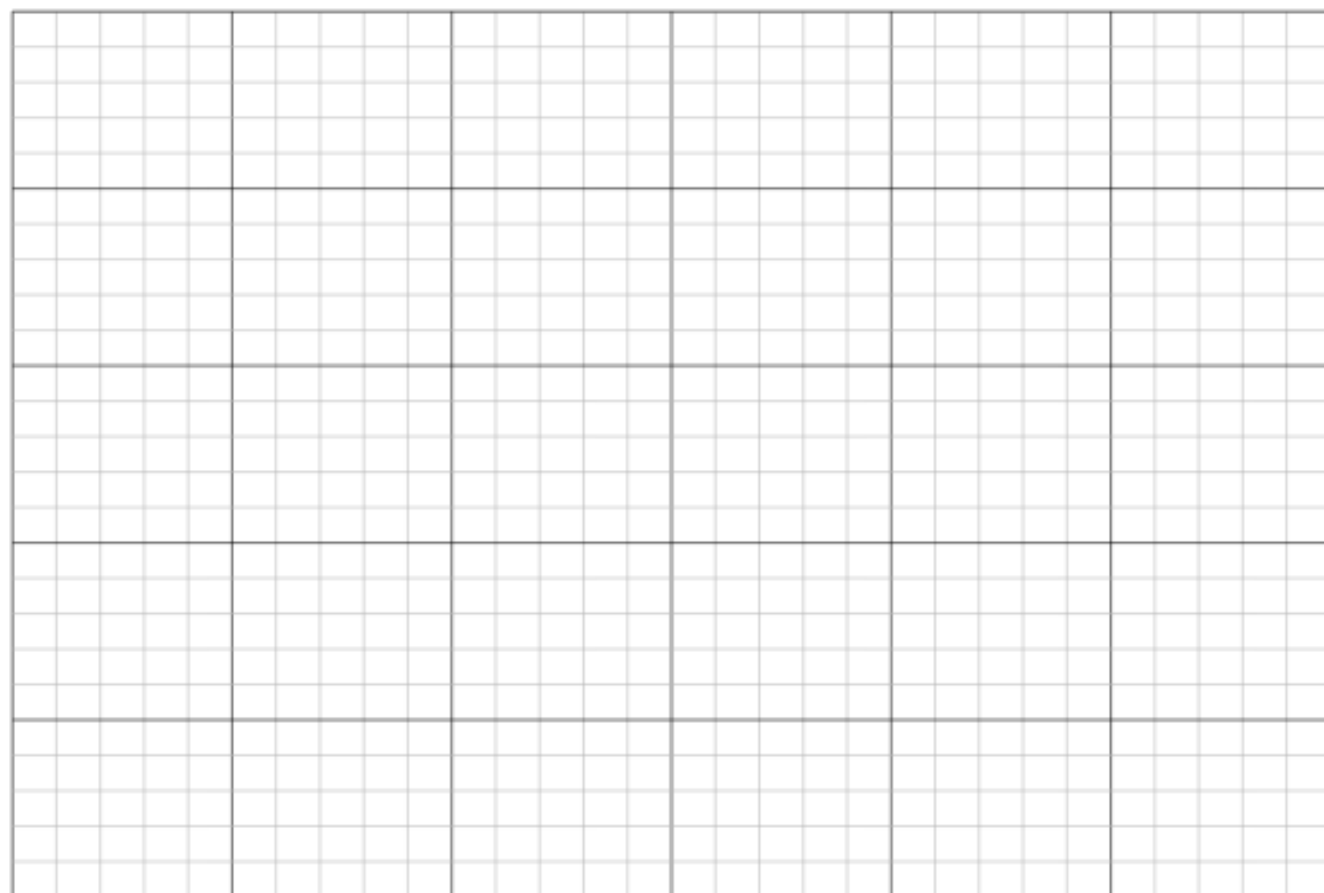
9. Calculating Gradients – Straight Lines

Gradients are a useful tool that show how fast or slow quantities change – eg speed tells us how fast distance is changing, or how quickly energy is being lost over time. To calculate the gradient, pick any two points on the line as far away as possible and draw a large triangle between them. The gradient is given by:
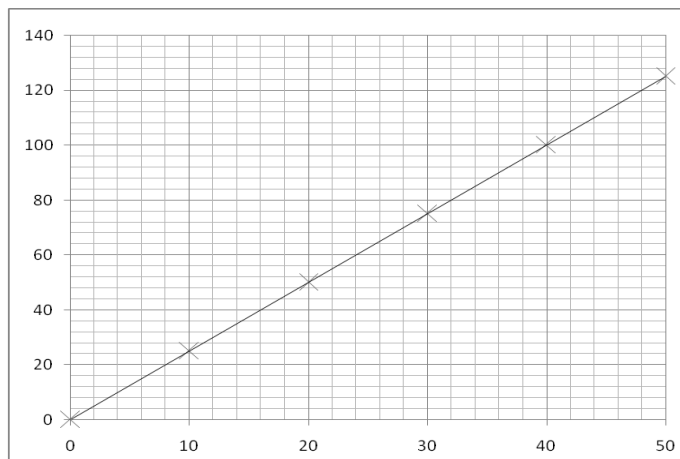
$$gradient = \frac{diffference\ in\ y\ values}{difference\ in\ x\ values}$$

But make sure the you subtract the values in the same order! Remember – if the line slopes up, the gradient should be positive; if the line slopes down, then the gradient should be negative.

(x,y)
$= (6,5)$

$\Delta y = y - y_1$
$= (5 - 3)$
$= 2$

(x_1, y_1)
$= (2,3)$

$\Delta x = x - x_1$
$= (6 - 2)$
$= 4$
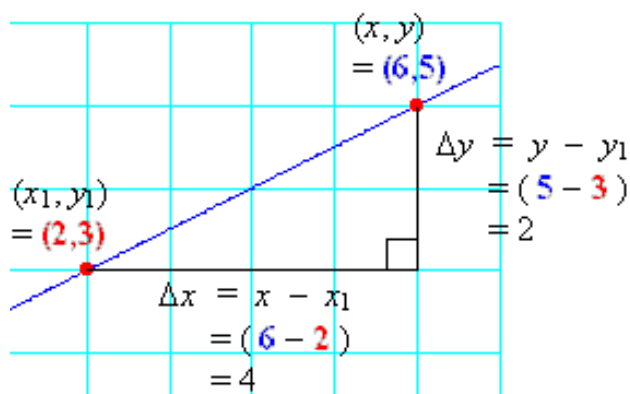
$Gradient = \frac{difference\ in\ y}{difference\ in\ x}$

$= \frac{2}{4}$

$= 0.5$

Calculate the gradients of the graphs below.
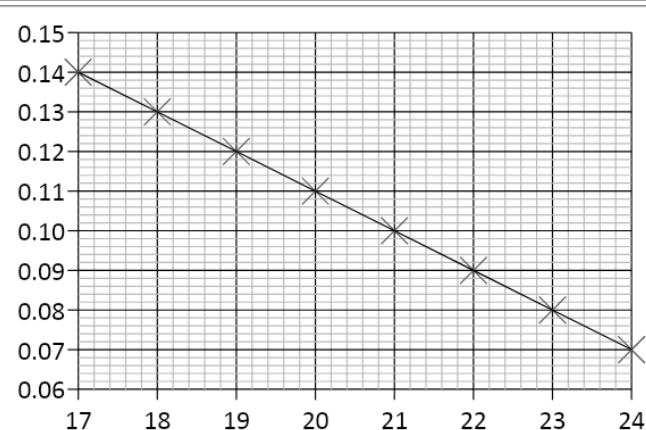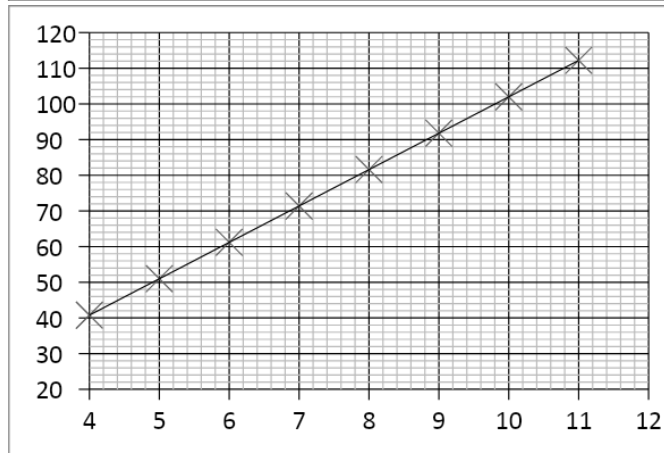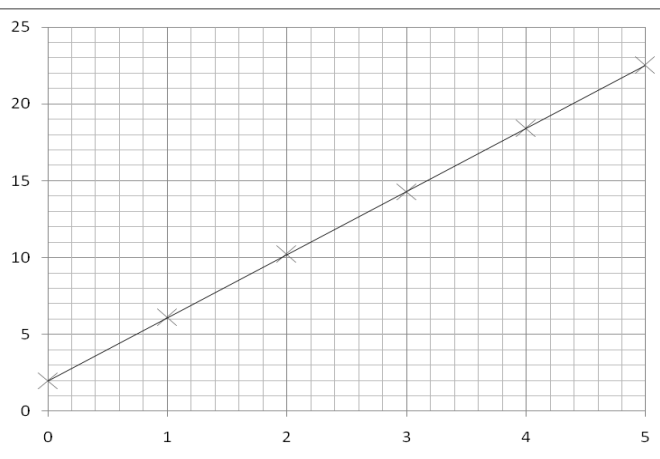
Most graphs in real life are not straight lines, but curves; however it is still useful to know how the quantity changes over time, hence we still need to calculate gradients. If we want to know the gradient at a particular point, firstly we need to draw a *tangent* to the curve at that point. A tangent is a straight line that follows the gradient at the required point. Once we have drawn the straight line tangent, its gradient can be calculated in exactly the same way as the previous page showed. Tip – make sure your tangents and gradient triangles are as big as possible to be as accurate as you can!

Examples of drawing tangents and calculating the gradient of a tangent:
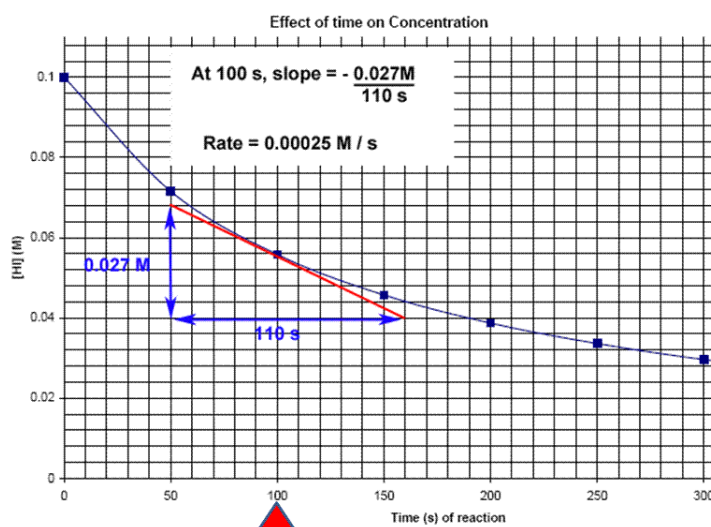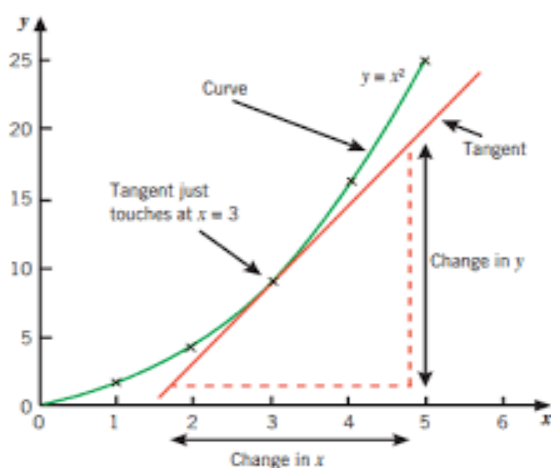
Draw a tangent to the line and calculate its gradient at the following x-axis values:
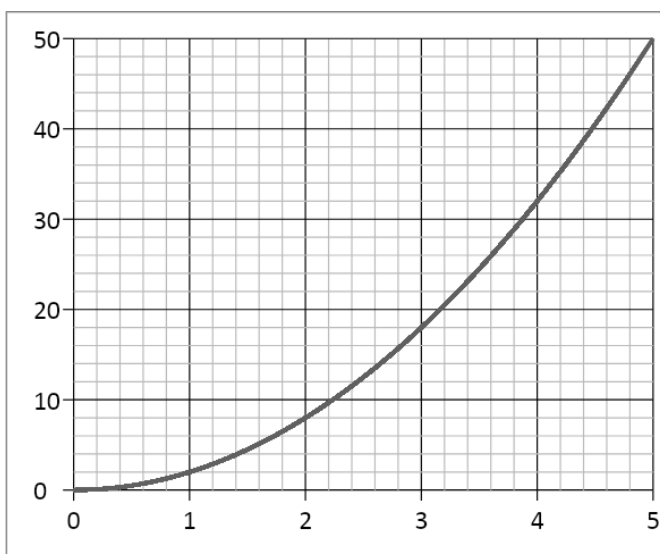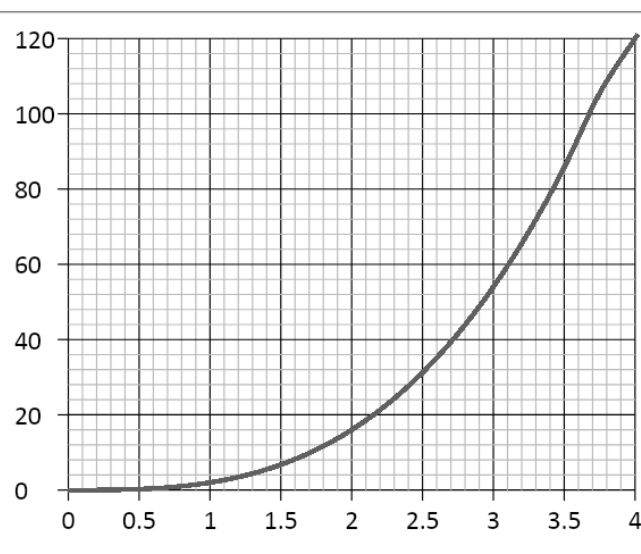
2.0 and 4.0   1.5 and 3.5

(Note - gradients in Physics often have units, this is something we will consider as we progress in the course)

11. Calculating Areas – Straight line Graphs

Often other quantities can be found by multiplying the two quantities represented on a graph together (for example, multiplying velocity and time gives distance travelled). The exact quantity can be found by calculating the area under the graph. If the graph is made of straight lines, the total area can be found by splitting the graph into segments of rectangles and triangles (or into a trapezium) and adding those areas together. See the example below.

Area A = 10 x 4 = 40 m
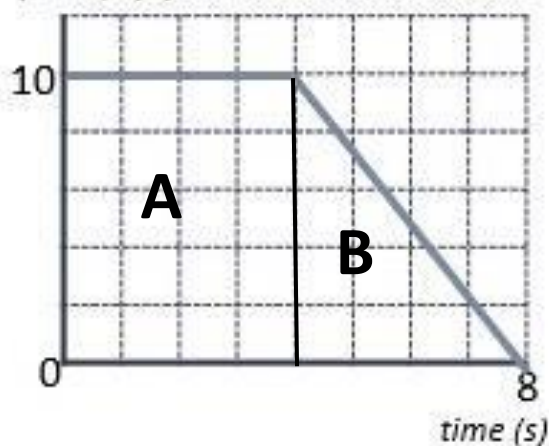
Area B = ½ x 4 x 10 = 20 m

Total Area = A + B = 40 + 20 = **60 m**

Or

Area of trapezium = ½ (4 + 8) x 10 = **60 m**

**Calculate the area of the below graph and the correct unit for that area.**
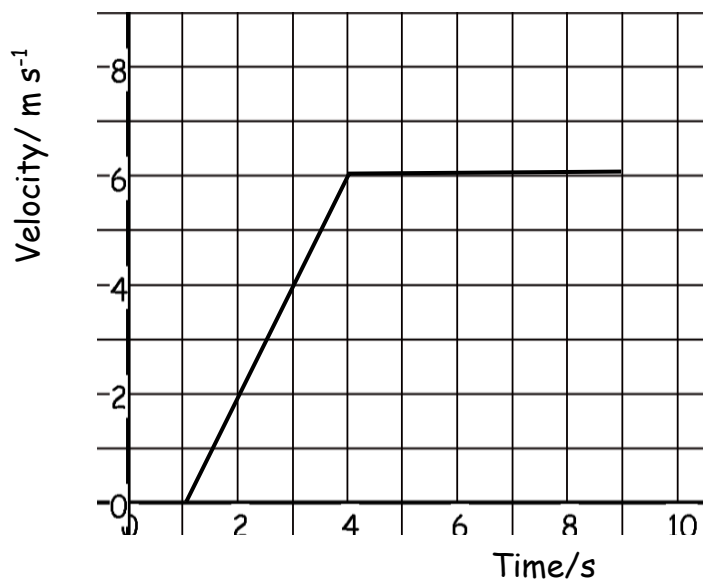
12. Calculating Areas – Curved line Graphs

When graphs have curved lines we use a simple process of counting squares and estimating.

1) Calculate the area of 1 small (but the not smallest!) square on the graph
2) Count the number of whole squares under the line
3) Estimate the whole number of squares that have been segmented by the line.
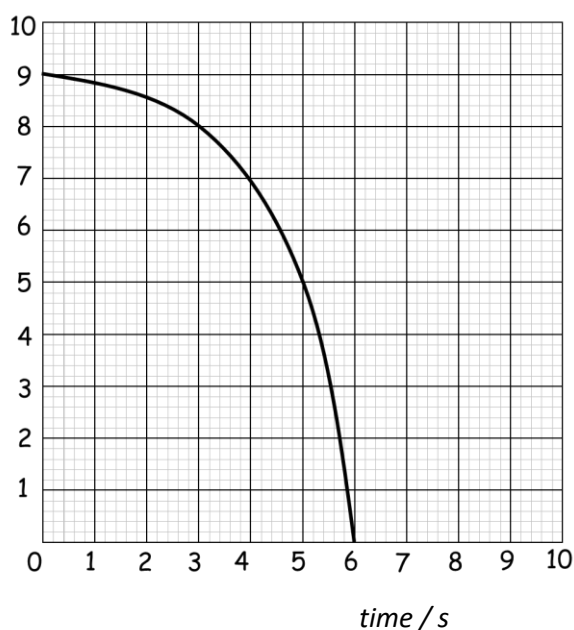4) Multiply the total number of squares by the area of one square to estimate the area.

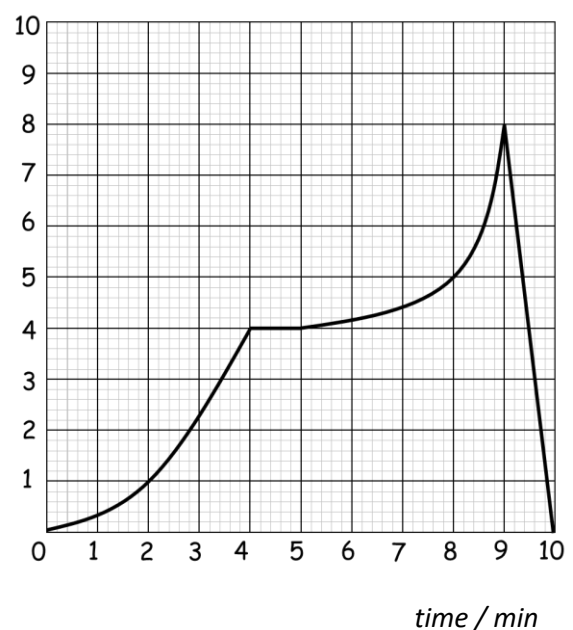*Example: work out the distance travelled by calculating the area under the graph.*
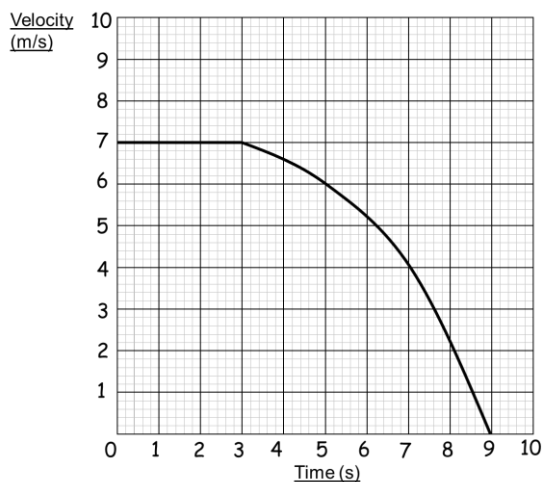
1) 1 square = 1 m s^{-1} x 1 s = 1 m
2) Whole Squares = 44
3) Segmented squares = 4
4) 48 squares x 1 m = **48 m**

Calculate the area under the following graphs.

Velocity / m s^{-1}

time / s

velocity / km s^{-1}

time / min

13. Interpreting Graphs
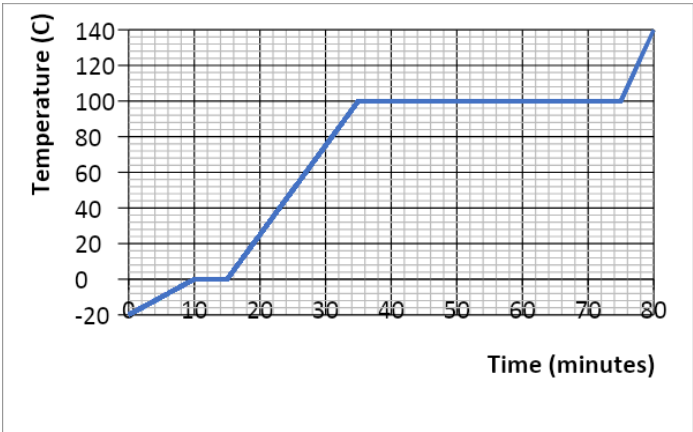
When interpreting graphs that are worth more than 2 marks, you need to go into more detail describing how the gradient changes over time and pick specific values to help support your answer.
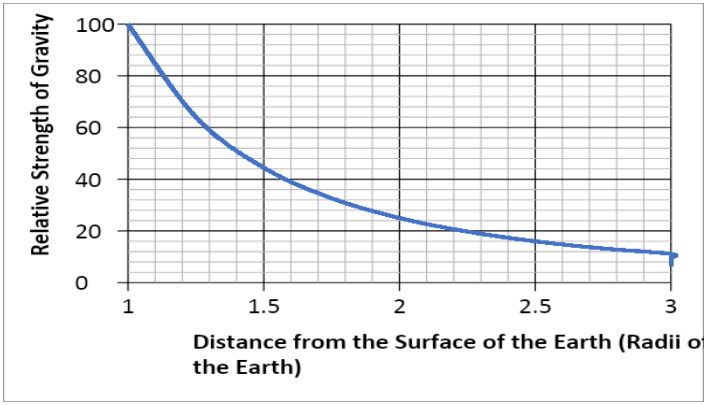
Tips:

- Use the quantities on the axes to support your answer.
- Are there points where the y value doesn't change? What is the value? When does this happen on x axis?
- Are there any maximum or minimum values? What are they? When do they occur?
- The gradient increases/decreases at a constant/increasing/decreasing rate….
- Does the gradient represent anything (eg. velocity or acceleration)?
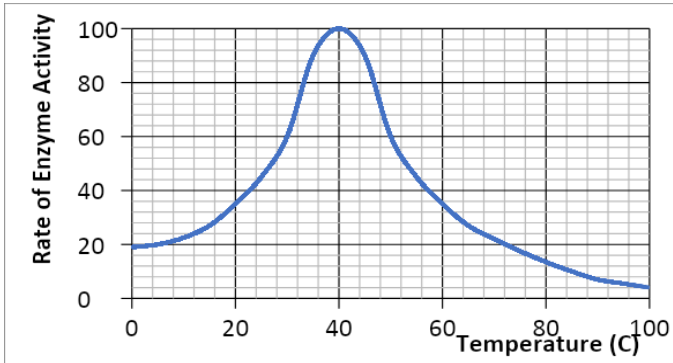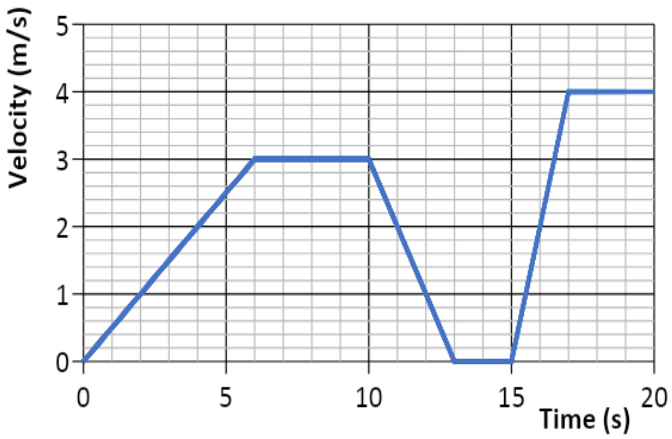- Are there multiple gradients? Are some steeper than others?
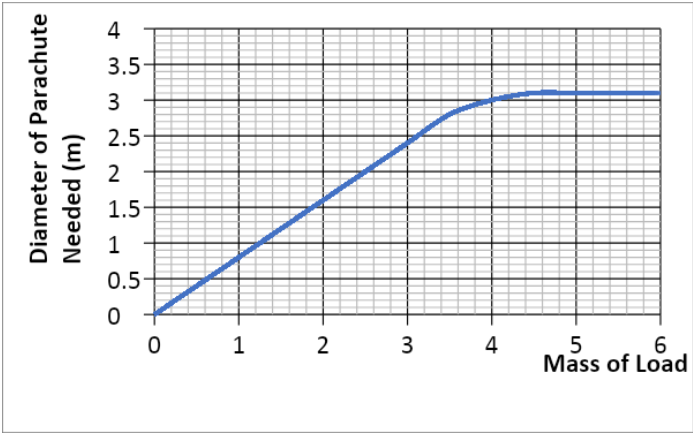
As the mass of the load increases, the diameter of the parachute needed also increases at a constant rate. This occurs to a mass of 3.4kg (which gives a diameter of 2.8m), where the gradient increases at a decreasing rate until the diameter remains constant at 3.1m for any load beyond 4.4kg.

Describe in detail each graph. Write your answer at the side of each graph. Include the points mentioned under 'tips' in your answers.

Relative Strength of Gravity vs. Distance from the Surface of the Earth (Radii of the Earth)

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Rate of Enzyme Activity vs. Temperature (C)

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Velocity (m/s) vs. Time (s)

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

An ***accurate*** result is one that is judged to be close to the true value. It is influenced by random and systematic errors. The true value is the value that would be obtained in an ideal measurement.

A ***precise*** measurement is described when the values 'cluster' close together. We describe measurements as precise when repeated values are close together (consistent). It is influenced by random effects.

Resolution is the smallest change in the quantity being measured that causes a perceptible change in the output of the measuring device. This is usually the smallest measuring interval. It does not mean a value is accurate.

Uncertainty is variation in measured data and is due to random and systematic effects. We usually assume the uncertainty is the same as the resolution of the measuring instrument.
example ruler, resolution +/- 1 mm so uncertainty is also +/- 1 mm
        Stop watch used by a pupil, resolution +/- 0.01 s but uncertainty estimated as +/- 0.2 s due to
         human reaction time.

Eg. The true temperature of the room is 22.4 ℃. One thermometer gives a reading of 22 ℃ and another gives a reading of 23.4 ℃ . Which is most accurate and estimate its uncertainty?

23.4 ℃ has the best resolution but is not close to the correct value.

22 ℃ has less resolution but is more accurate as it is closer to the correct result.

Try the question below:

Isabelle is finding the mass of an insect, but the insect moves while on the electronic balance.
She records a set of readings as 5.00 mg , 5.01 mg, 4.98 mg, 5.02 mg.
The true value of the insect's mass is 4.5 mg.
Calculate an average value with estimated uncertainty for her results. C
Compare this value with the true value using the terms above.

15. Identifying Errors

There are two main types of error in Science:
1) Random error
2) Systematic error

Random errors can be caused by changes in the environment that causes readings to alter slightly, measurements to be in between divisions on a scale or observations being perceived differently by other observers. These errors can vary in size and can give readings both smaller and larger than the true value.

The best way to reduce random error is to use as large values as possible (eg. Large distances) and repeat and average readings, as well as taking precaution when carrying out the experiment.

Systematic errors have occurred when all readings are shifted by the same amount away from the true value.

The two main types of systematic error are:
i) *Zero error* – this is where the instrument does not read zero initially and therefore will always produce a shifted result (eg. A mass balance that reads 0.01g before an object is placed on it). Always check instruments are zeroed before using.

ii) *Parallax error* – this is where a measurement is not observed from eye level so the measurement is always read at an angle producing an incorrect reading. Always read from eye level to avoid parallax.
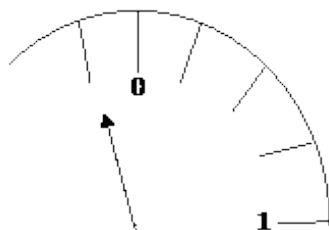
Zero Error
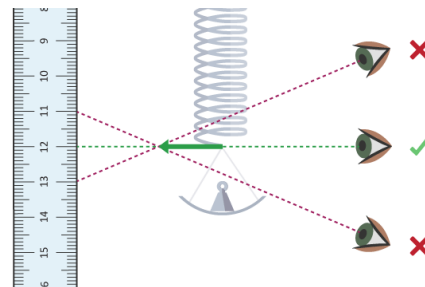
Parallax Error

Repeat and averaging experiments will not reduce systematic errors as correct experimental procedure is not being followed.

There are occasions where readings are just measured incorrectly or an odd result is far away from other readings – these results are called **anomalies**. Anomalies should be removed and repeated before used in any averaging.

For each of the measurements listed below identify the most likely source of error what type of error this is and one method of reducing it.

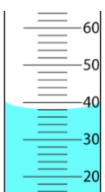| Measurement	Source of error	Type of error
A range of values are obtained for the length of a copper wire		
The reading for the current through a wire is 0.74 A higher for one group in the class		
A range of values are obtained for the rebound height of a ball dropped from the same start point onto the same surface.		
A few groups obtain different graphs of resistance vs light intensity for an LDR. A light bulb placed at different distances from the LDR was used to vary the light intensity.		
The time period (time of one oscillation) of a pendulum showing a range of values		

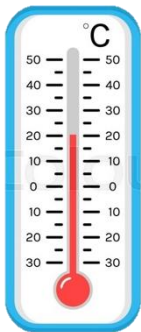# 16. Improving Experiments – Accuracy, Resolution and Reliability

When improving **accuracy**, you must describe how to make sure your *method* obtains the best results possible. You should also try to *use as <u>large quantities</u> as possible as this reduces the percentage error in your results*. Also make your <u>range as large as possible</u>, with <u>small intervals</u> between each reading.

Resolution refers to the smallest scale division provided by your measuring instrument, or what is the smallest non-zero reading you can obtain from that instrument.

Reliability refers to how 'trustworthy' your results are. You can improve reliability by repeating and averaging your experiment, as well as removing anomalies.

Complete the table below to state how to use the measuring instruments as accurately as possible, as well as stating the precision (smallest scale division) of each instrument.

Measuring Instrument	Accuracy What procedures should you use to ensure you gain accurate results?	Resolution State the resolution of the instruments shown in the diagram.
Measuring Cylinder 		
Top Pan Electronic (Mass) Balance 		

| Measuring Instrument | Accuracy - What procedures should you use to ensure you gain accurate results? | Precision

State the precision of the instruments shown in the diagram. |
|---|---|---|
| Ruler | | |
| Thermometer | | |

Research and describe a method to determine the thickness of one sheet of A4 paper accurately. You may only use a mm ruler. You should also refer to the precision and reliability of your result.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

- **Variables** – Which variables will you keep the same and which will you change?
- **Instruments** – What measuring instruments will you use and how will you take the measurements?
- **Range** – Give specific values for the range and intervals you will use. Make sure your range is large with small intervals.
- **Analyse** – State any equations you will use and what graph you will plot including the axes.
- **Accuracy** – State ways you are being accurate with your measuring instruments.
- **Reliability** – State "Repeat and average" to improve reliability

Example: Water is placed in a plastic tray, one end it raised, dropped and the speed of the water wave is measured. A student suggests that the speed of the wave depends on the height of the water in the tray. How could you prove this?

Change the depth of water by filling the tray to different heights. The height of the water will be measured by placing a ruler into the tray. Depths from 1.0 to 5.0 cm, at 1.0 cm intervals should be used.

The tray should be lifted to the same height each time and dropped without pushing it down. The height the tray is lifted to should also be measured with a ruler that is vertical using a set square.

When the tray hits the table, the time should be measured for the wave to pass end to end 4 times, then divided by 4 to make the reading more accurate to reduce reaction time. The time should be measured using a stopwatch.

The length of the tray should be measured using a ruler, overhead and measured at eye level for accuracy.

The equation speed = distance / time should be used to calculate the speed of the wave.

Repeat each height and average to improve reliability.

Plot a graph of speed (y axis) vs depth of water (x axis) to see if there is a relationship between the two variables.

Using the steps above, describe how to carry out the following experiment:

A student suggests that if an egg was dropped from different heights the area of splatter would increase as the height increases but only until a certain point. How could you investigate this?

Extension Suggestions – Becoming a Better Physicist
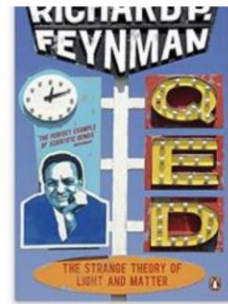
Read

Readable Relativity:
https://archive.org/details/ReadableRelativity/page/n1/mode/2up

Complexity – A Guided Tour: https://www.amazon.co.uk/Complexity-Guided-Tour-Melanie-Mitchell/dp/0199798109

The Physics of Superheroes: https://www.amazon.co.uk/Physics-Superheroes-James-Kakalios/dp/0715639110

QED The Strange Theory of Light and Matter:
https://www.amazon.co.uk/QED-Strange-Theory-Penguin-Science/dp/0140125051

Guesstimation – Solving the World's Problems on the back of a cocktail napkin: https://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt7sgcs

Read

- *Quantum: A guide for the perplexed* by Jim Al-Khalili
- *Flatland: A romance of Many Dimensions* by Edwin Abbott Abbott
- *13 Things That Don't Make Sense: The Most Intriguing Scientific Mysteries of Our Time* by Michael Brooks
- *Carrying the Fire: An Astronaut's Journeys* by Michael Collins (the Apollo 11 astronaut)
- *Why Does E=mc²* by Brian Cox and Jeff Forshaw
- *Big Bang: The Most Important Scientific Discovery of All Time and Why You Need to Know About It* by Simon Singh
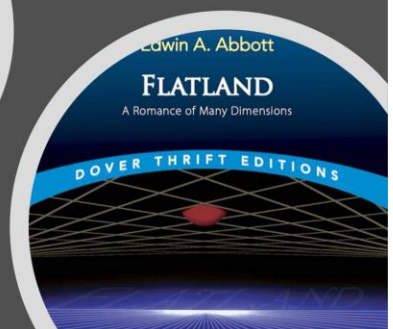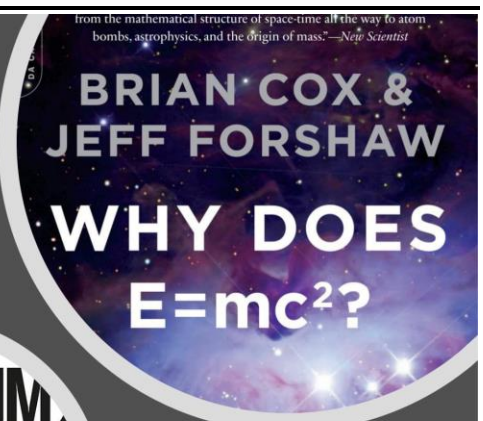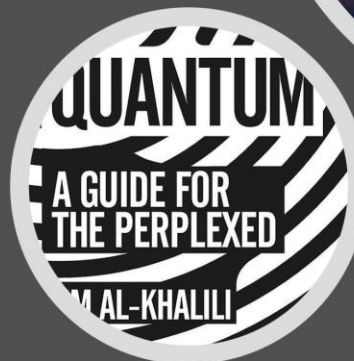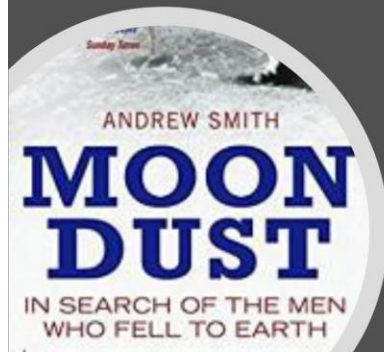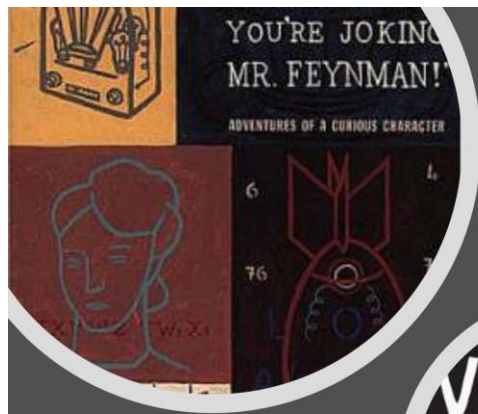
Read

Surely You're Joking Mr Feynman: Adventures of a Curious Character:
https://www.waterstones.com/book/surely-youre-joking-mr-feynman/richard-p-feynman/9780099173311

Moondust – In Search of the Men Who fell to Earth:
https://www.amazon.co.uk/Moondust-Search-Men-Fell-Earth/dp/1408802384

Quantum Theory Cannot Hurt You:
https://www.waterstones.com/book/quantum-theory-cannot-hurt-you/marcus-chown/9780571315024

Thing Explainer – Complicated Stuff in Simple Words:
https://xkcd.com/thing-explainer/
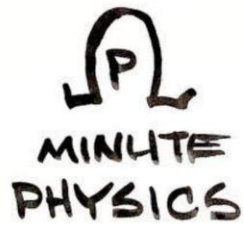
Movies

Moon (2009)

Gravity (2013)

Interstellar (2014)

The Imitation Game (2015)

The Prestige (2006)

Apollo 13 (1995)

Online Clips and Series

Minute Physics

Wonders of the Universe

Wonders of the Solar System

Shock and Awe: the Story of Electricity

NASA TV

The Fantastic Mr Feynman

Blue Planet

Online clips and series

Archive studies with some incredible footage:
http://www.afana.org/psscfilms.htm

From Fire to Ice:
https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/b09rzq05

How to Grow a Planet:
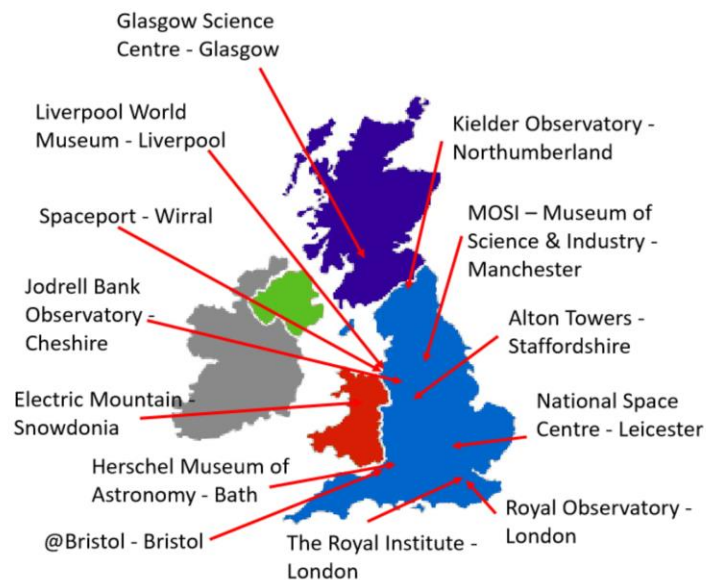https://www.dailymotion.com/video/x56cdsi

TED Talks

From mach-20 glider to hummingbird drone

Is our universe the only universe?

The fascinating physics of everyday life

We need nuclear power to solve climate change

Day trips

Glasgow Science Centre - Glasgow

Liverpool World Museum - Liverpool

Kielder Observatory - Northumberland

Spaceport - Wirral

MOSI – Museum of Science & Industry - Manchester

Jodrell Bank Observatory - Cheshire

Alton Towers - Staffordshire

Electric Mountain - Snowdonia

National Space Centre - Leicester

Herschel Museum of Astronomy - Bath

@Bristol - Bristol

The Royal Institute - London

Royal Observatory - London

Social media - Twitter

Commander Chris Hadfield – former resident aboard the International Space Station @cmdrhadfield

NASA's Voyager 2 – a satellite launched nearly 40 years ago that is now travelling beyond our solar system @NSFVoyager2

Neil deGrasse Tyson – Director of the Hayden Planetarium in New York @neiltyson

The SETI Institute – The Search for Extra Terrestrial Intelligence, be the first to know what they find! @setiinstitute

Phil Plait – tweets about astronomy and bad science @badastronomer

Institute of Physics – The leading scientific membership society for physics @PhysicsNews

Scientific America – Journal sharing discoveries and insights into science that develops the world @sciam

SN Students – Science news for students @SNStudents

Social media - Facebook

National Geographic - since 1888, National Geographic has travelled the Earth, sharing its amazing stories in pictures and words.

Science News Magazine - Science covers important and emerging research in all fields of science.

BBC Science News - The latest BBC Science and Environment News: breaking news, analysis and debate on science and nature around the world.

Institute of Physics - The Institute of Physics is a leading scientific membership society working to advance physics for the benefit of all.

Chandra X-ray Observatory - NASA's Chandra X-ray Observatory is a telescope specially designed to detect X-ray emission from very hot regions of the Universe such as exploded stars, clusters of galaxies, and matter around black holes.

Interesting Engineering - Interesting Engineering is a cutting edge, leading community designed for all lovers of engineering, technology and science.

Citizen science

Agent Exoplanet: https://agentexoplanet.lco.global/

Aurorasaurus: https://www.aurorasaurus.org/

EMSC: https://www.emsc-csem.org/#2

Cosmo Quest: https://www.nasa.gov/solve/feature/asteroid-mappers

MOOCs

https://ocw.mit.edu/courses/physics/8-01sc-classical-mechanics-fall-2016/

https://www.edx.org/course/question-everything-scientific-thinking-in-real-li

https://www.edx.org/course/cosmic-rays-dark-matter-and-the-mysteries-of-the-2

https://www.coursera.org/learn/particle-physics

Search 'physics MOOCs' for more!

Course Features

› Video lectures
› Online textbooks
› Captions/transcript
› Assignments: problem sets (no solutions)

Course Description

This first course in the physics curriculum introduces classical mechanics. Historically, a set of core concepts—space, time, mass, force, momentum, torque, and angular momentum—were introduced in classical mechanics in order to solve the most famous physics problem, the motion of the planets.

The principles of mechanics successfully described many other phenomena encountered in the world. Conservation laws involving energy, momentum and angular momentum provided a second parallel approach to solving many of the same problems. In this course, we will investigate both approaches: Force and conservation laws.

Our goal is to develop a conceptual understanding of the core concepts, a familiarity with the experimental verification of our theoretical laws, and an ability to apply the theoretical framework to describe and predict the motions of bodies.
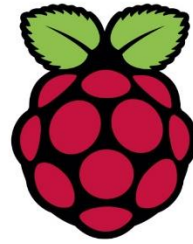
Get Started ›

Learn programming

Some good options include:

- https://www.codecademy.com/learn/learn-python - particularly if you are studying Physics and/or Engineering

- https://www.codecademy.com/learn/learn-r - particularly if you are studying social sciences or will be working with large data sets

- https://online-learning.harvard.edu/course/quantitative-methods-biology/gbkla=0 – focused for applications to biology and medicine

- https://www.futurelearn.com/courses/how-computers-work - a broader view of the fundamentals of computing, supported by Google