Year 10 WJEC Knowledge Organisers

Triple Award Physics

Topic list:

1.1 - Electric Circuits

1.2 - Generating Electricity

1.3 – Making Use of Energy

1.4 – Domestic Electricity

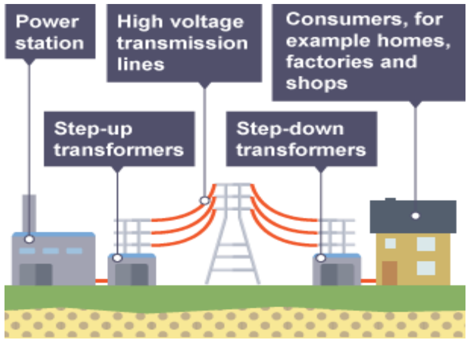
1.5 – Waves

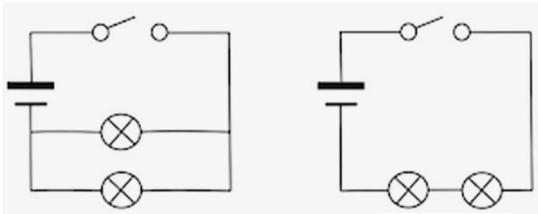
1.6 – Total Internal Reflection (TIR)

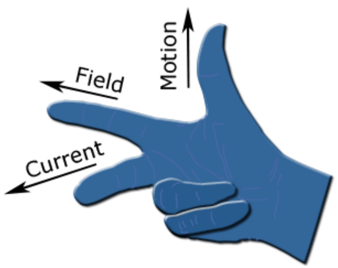
1.7 – Seismic Waves

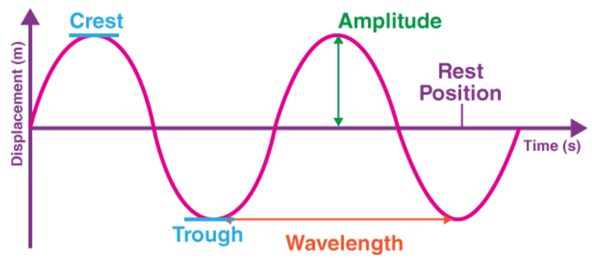
1.8 – Kinetic Theory

1.9 – Electromagnetism



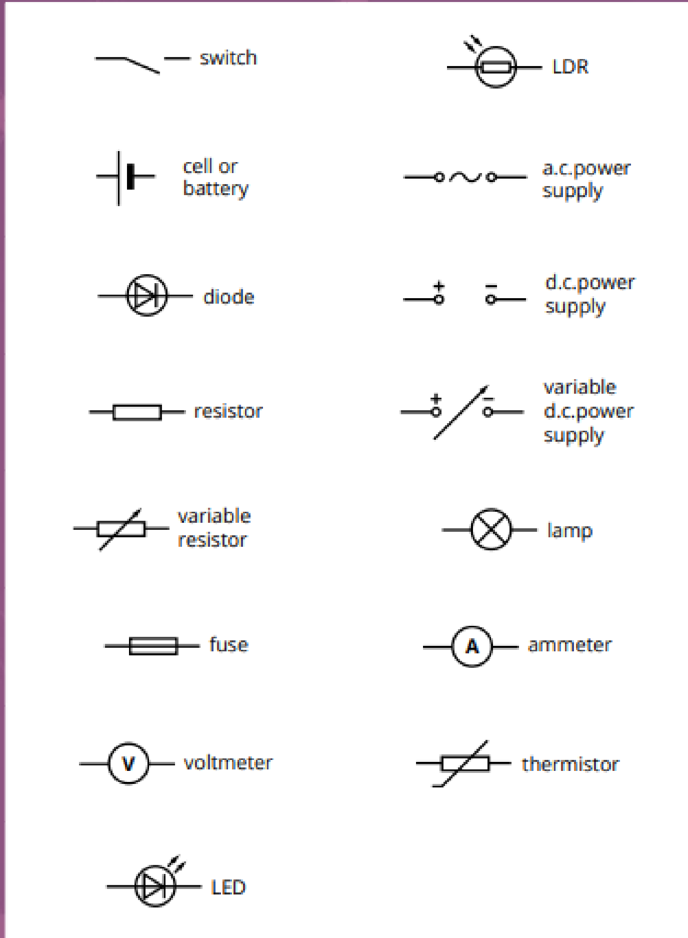






Unit 1.1/3.1 Electrical Circuits

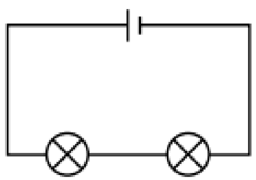
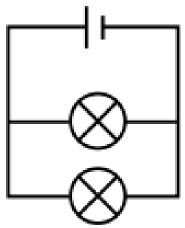
The following symbols are used to represent different electrical components:



Resistors are used to control or change the current. Fixed resistors are used to lower the current but variable resistors, thermistors and LDRs (light dependent resistors) can change their resistance and change the current.
Variable resistors can be changed by moving a slider or turning a dial, e.g. dimmer switch.
Thermistors change depending on the **temperature;** higher temperature = lower resistance.
LDRs change depending on the **light** on the LDR; brighter light = lower resistance.

When you draw a circuit; remember to draw the **correct symbols** in place first then connect using **straight** lines to represent the **wires**.

Series and parallel circuits

Series	Parallel
	
Equal current everywhere in the circuit. **Voltage** is **shared** between the components but must add to the voltage from the power source.	**Current** is **shared** between the components but must add to the current from the power source. **Equal voltage** across each component.

Current is measured using an **ammeter** which must be connected in **series**.
Voltage is measured using a **voltmeter** which must be connected in **parallel**.

Resistance can be calculated using this equation:

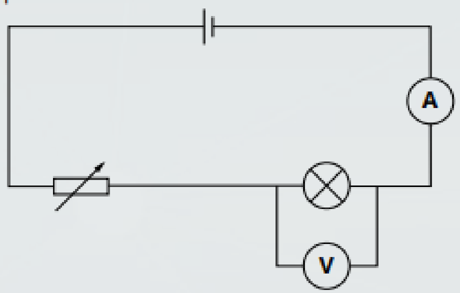
$$\text{Current (A)} = \frac{\text{Voltage (V)}}{\text{Resistance }(\Omega)}$$

Series	Parallel
When you add resistors in series, the resistance increases according to this equation: $R = R_1 + R_2$	When you add resistors in parallel, the resistance of the circuit decreases. $\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}$

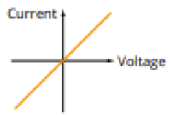
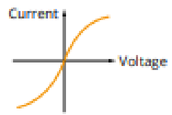
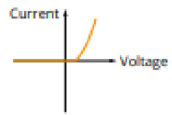
The **power** of a circuit represents the energy transferred per second. It is measured in Watts where **1W = 1 Joule per second.**
These equations can be used to calculate power:

Power(W) = Voltage(V) × Current(A)
Power(W) = Current(A)^2 × Resistance(Ω)
Energy(J) = Power(W) × Time(s)

This circuit can be used to **investigate how the current changes with voltage** for a bulb. The bulb can be swapped for a resistor or a diode to investigate the relationship with different components.



To get a **series** of values you must record the current and voltage then **adjust the variable resistor** and take the next set of results. You can **repeat** this until you have a complete set.

Resistor or wire (At a constant temperature)	Filament lamp	Diode
		
Constant resistance	Resistance increases at higher voltages	Very high resistance (no current) until a specific voltage

These are the results you would get from each device. You must learn the shape of the curve and be able to describe why it is that shape.

Renewable energy:
A source of energy which is not going to run out. For example: Wind, Solar, Geothermal, Hydroelectric and Biomass.

Non-renewable energy:
A source of energy which is going to run out. For example: Coal, Oil, Natural Gas and Nuclear.

Source	Advantages	Disadvantages
Wind, Solar	Renewable No waste or pollution	Low power output Unreliable – dependant on the weather Considered unsightly
Coal, Oil, Gas	Reliable Large power output	Non-renewable Produce greenhouse gasses Cause acid rain (mainly with coal)
Nuclear	Reliable Large power output No greenhouse gasses	Non-renewable Long start up time Produces radioactive waste which must be stored for a long time Expensive to commission and decommission
Hydroelectric	Renewable Reliable Short start up time No waste or pollution	Not many suitable places for this power station Must flood a large area which affects wildlife
Tidal power	Renewable No waste or pollution	Must flood a large area which affects wildlife
Biomass	Renewable Reliable Carbon neutral	Uses a lot of crops which require a lot of land to grow

Efficiency

Efficiency can be calculated using this equation:

$$\% \text{ efficiency} = \frac{\text{energy usefully transferred}}{\text{total energy supplied}} \times 100\%$$

You do not need to remember the equation, it will be on the equation sheet, but it is important to choose the correct values for the equation. Useful energy is the energy you want to use from the power station and the energy supplied is the energy put into the power station.

Thermal power station (for example Coal, Biomass, Nuclear, Geothermal)

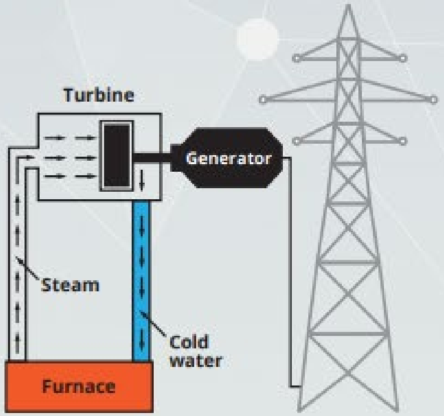
Heat is created in the **furnace** by burning a fuel, or a nuclear reaction in nuclear power.

This heat turns water to steam which moves through the pipes to the **turbine**.

This turns the turbine which in turn turns the **generator**.

This generates **electricity** which is supplied to the **National Grid**.

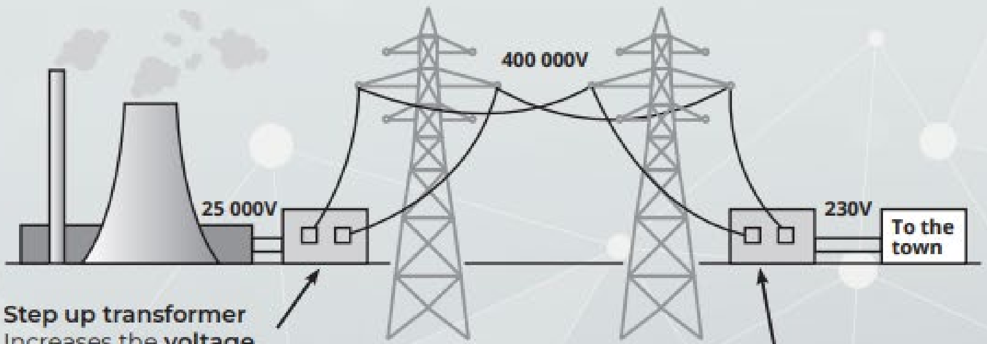
The steam is cooled and sent back to the furnace to be heated again.



National Grid

The National Grid is a **network** of cables which connects every power station to every home, shop, factory, school, hospital and every other consumer.

Demand for power **changes** due to the seasons, weather and time of day. For example, at the end of a popular TV programme there is a sudden demand for electricity as people put their kettles on at the same time. **To meet this demand**, the National Grid switches on extra hydroelectric power stations or buys extra electricity from abroad.



Step up transformer
Increases the **voltage**, which reduces the **current** and lowers **heat losses** in the cables. This increases the grid's efficiency.

Step down transformer
Lowers voltage to a **safer** level

To calculate density, you must use this equation: $density = \frac{mass}{volume}$

You do not have to remember the equation but it is important to choose the correct values to use.

Units

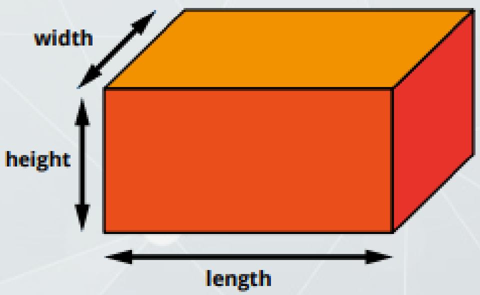
Density is measure in **g/cm³** or in **kg/m³**. Look for units in the question to know which of these options to use with your answer.

In order to use the equation, you must know the **mass** and the **volume.** The different methods to find these are described below.
When you describe how to calculate density, remember to name the **equipment** you need and how to use it.

Calculating the density of a regularly shaped solid

1. Measure the mass using a balance.
   e.g. 25g
2. Use a ruler to measure the length, width and height of the solid.
   e.g. 3.0cm, 2.0cm, 1.5cm
3. Calculate the volume using:
   volume = length × width × height
   e.g. $3.0 \times 2.0 \times 1.5 = 9.0\text{cm}^3$
4. Calculate the density using
   $density = \frac{mass}{volume}$

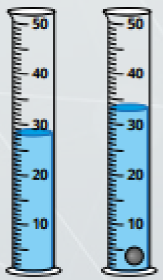
   e.g. $density = \frac{25}{9} = 2.8\ \text{g/cm}^3$



Calculating the density of an irregularly shaped solid

1. Measure the mass using a balance.
   e.g. 6.0g
2. Fill a measuring cylinder with water to a specific volume.
   e.g. 28cm^3
3. Place the solid in the measuring cylinder and record the new volume.
   e.g. 33cm^3
4. Calculate the volume of the solid by subtracting the initial volume (step 2) from the new volume (step 3).
   e.g. $33 - 28 = 5\text{cm}^3$
5. Calculate the density using:
   $density = \frac{mass}{volume}$

   e.g. $density = \frac{6.0}{5} = 1.2\ \text{g/cm}^3$



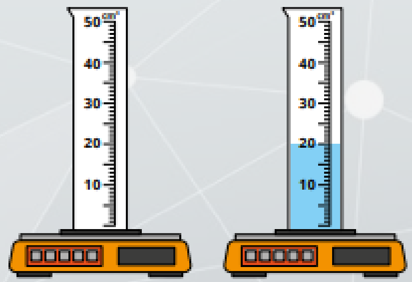
Variations

What if the solid floats in the water? Then you must use something to ensure the solid is completely under the water. Remember if you use something to sink the solid you must subtract its volume and the volume of the water from the new volume.

Calculating the density of a liquid

1. Measure the mass of an empty measuring cylinder.
   e.g. 80.0g
2. Fill the measuring cylinder with a specific volume of the liquid. Record the volume.
   e.g. 20cm^3
3. Measure the combined mass of the measuring cylinder and the liquid.
   e.g. 96.0g
4. Calculate the mass of the liquid by subtracting the empty mass (step 2) from the new mass (step 3).
   e.g. $96.0 - 80.0 = 16.0\text{g}$
5. Calculate the density using:
   $density = \frac{mass}{volume}$

   e.g. $density = \frac{16.0}{2.0} = 0.8\ \text{g/cm}^3$



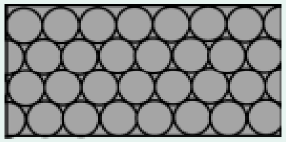
Unit 1.3/3.3 Heat transfer

Heat always transfers **from hot to cold**, but how it transfers depends on the material or state of the matter (solid, liquid, gas or vacuum).

The greater the **difference** in temperature, the greater the **rate** of heat transfer.
A mug of tea at 90 °C will cool quicker outside where the temperature is 5 °C than in the house where the temperature is 20 °C.

Conduction

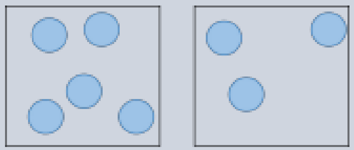
Conduction happens in **solids**. Heat energy causes the **particles** to vibrate more and is transferred from one particle to the next as they **collide**. **Metals** are the best conductors as they have free **electrons** that can move the energy quickly from the hot side to the cold.



Air is a poor conductor as it is a gas. It has large gaps between particles and reduces the rate of collisions. This makes it very useful as an **insulator**.

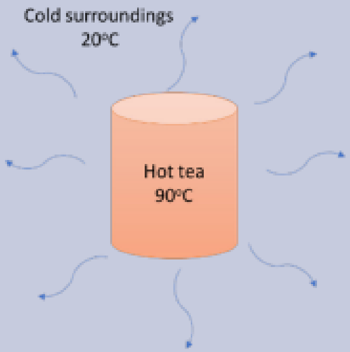
Convection

Convection happens in **liquids** and **gases**. Heat energy causes the **particles** to move quicker and make them move **further apart**. This means there will be fewer particles in a specific volume and therefore will be **less dense**. This less dense liquid or gas will **rise above** the denser cold liquid, this forms a **convection current**.



Radiation

All warm things **emit** heat **radiation** in the form of infrared waves. Hotter bodies emit more radiation than cold bodies. These **waves** can travel through **solids**, **liquids**, **gases** and through a **vacuum** like space. They travel in **all directions** from the hot body into a colder body.

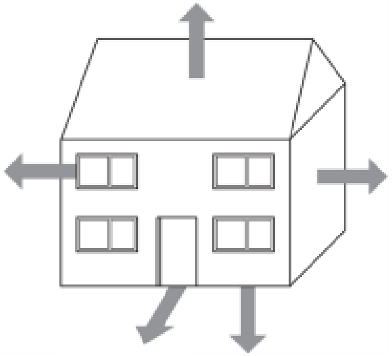


Black surfaces **absorb** radiation best and **emit** radiation best. Tea in a black mug will cool down quicker than tea in a white mug.

Shiny surfaces **reflect** radiation well but are poor emitters and absorbers.

Loft insulation reduces heat loss due to **conduction**. Fibreglass wool between the ceiling and the loft space has pockets of trapped air which acts as an insulator.

Double glazed windows reduce heat losses due to **conduction**. Trapping air between two layers of glass acts as an insulator.



Cavity walls reduce heat losses due to **conduction**. Trapping air between two layers of bricks acts as an insulator. Filling the cavity (gap) with fibreglass wool or foam stops the air in the gap moving and reduces **convection**.

Stopping draughts reduces **convection** currents in the house through stopping cold air being sucked into the house as the hot air inside rises.

Floor insulation reduces heat losses due to **conduction**. Fibreglass wool below the floor has pockets of trapped air that acts as an insulator.

Payback time

Comparing different methods of insulating the home is difficult as the **initial cost** and the **saving each year** for the methods can be very different. To compare methods, it is important to be able to calculate the payback time, which is the time it takes to save the same amount as the initial cost of insulation.

For example, loft insulation that costs £400 but saves £50 each year will take 8 years to pay back, whereas loft insulation that costs £500 but saves £100 each year has a pay back time of 5 years.

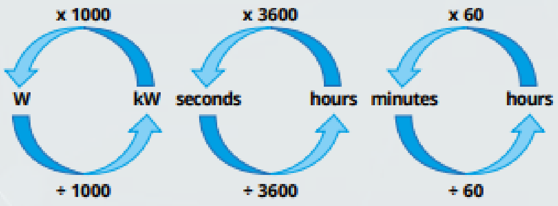
The equation is not to be given on the equation page.

$$\text{Payback time} = \frac{\text{installation cost}}{\text{annual savings}}$$

wjec cbac

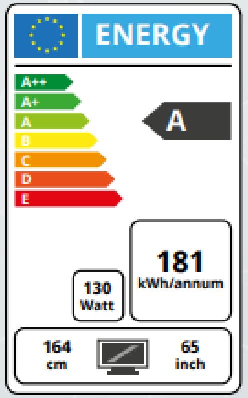
The amount of energy used in the home is measured in kilowatt hours (**kWh**), also known as **Units**, where 1 kWh is equal to the energy converted by a 1 kW device for 1 hour.

In order to calculate the cost, these equations are used:
Units used (kWh) = Power (kW) × time (hours)
Cost = Units used × Cost per unit
Both equations are given on the equation sheet, **but it is important that you can convert between units correctly**. Often power is given in Watts and time in seconds or minutes.

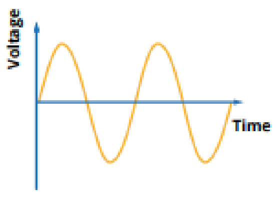
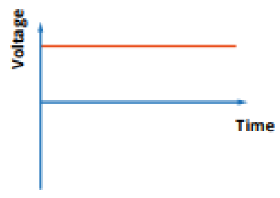


The **efficiency** of a device is shown on a scale like this - the more efficient a device, the better it's rating will be.

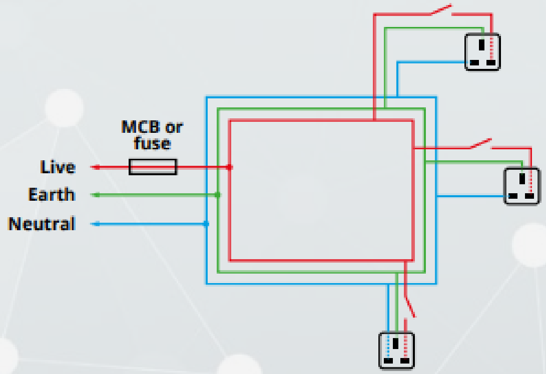
This is important as it will help **compare** devices that do the same thing. For example, two televisions of the same size and picture quality but different energy ratings will have a different cost to use.



Electricity can be supplied in two ways; with an Alternating Current (AC) or a Direct Current (DC).

AC	DC
	
Voltage constantly changes size and the current constantly changes direction.	Voltage and current have a constant size and direction.
Supplied by the National Grid.	Supplied by batteries.

The electrical circuits in your home are connected using a **ring main** circuit.



The advantages of a ring main circuit are:

- The current can travel two ways so you can make the wires thinner and have a lower current in each part.
- You can add more sockets anywhere on the ring and each will have the same voltage (230V).

There are 3 wires in the ring main circuit:

1. **Live** – this carries a current into the house at a **high voltage**.
2. **Earth** – operating normally this wire carries no current.
3. **Neutral** – this completes the circuit and has the **same current** as the live wire but a lower voltage.

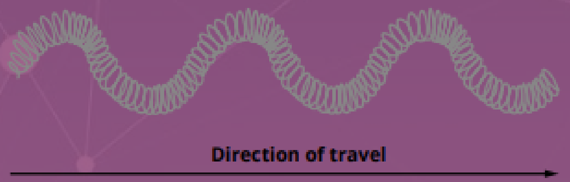
The earth wire is connected to the casing of any device with a **metal** case. This is so that *if the live wire touches the casing* due to a **fault**, then the *current will travel **safely** to the earth through the earth* wire rather than through a person who touches the casing.

There are three other safety devices used in these circuits:

Fuse	Stops the **current** if it becomes too **large**. It does this by melting a wire in the fuse. This means the fuse must be replaced once it has 'blown'. This prevents the device overheating.
Miniature circuit breaker (MCB)	Stops the **current** if it becomes too **large**. Reacts more **quickly** and can be **reset**. This prevents the device overheating.
Residual current circuit breaker (RCCB)	Stops the current if the current in the **neutral wire is different to the live wire** (*remember, when the circuit is operating normally the current will be the same in both*). Reacts to a **very small** difference, reacts very **quickly** and can be **reset**. This will protect the user from a serious electric shock.

There are two different types of waves, longitudinal and transverse.

Transverse:



A transverse wave has **vibrations** at 90° to the direction of travel.

Longitudinal:

A longitudinal wave has **vibrations** parallel to the direction of travel.

In this example there are **two** complete waves shown.

You must be able to describe a wave in terms of its wavelength, amplitude and frequency.

Wavelength = the length of one complete wave

Amplitude = maximum displacement

Frequency = the number of waves in 1 second

For the wave shown:

Wavelength = 4 units

Amplitude = 2 units

Wave speed can be calculated in two ways, both equations are given on the equation sheet so use the **units** to help decide which you need to use.

$$\text{Speed } (\boldsymbol{m/s}) = \frac{\text{distance } (\boldsymbol{m})}{\text{time } (\boldsymbol{s})}$$

$$\text{Wave speed} = \text{wavelength}(\boldsymbol{m}) \times \text{frequency}(\boldsymbol{Hz})$$

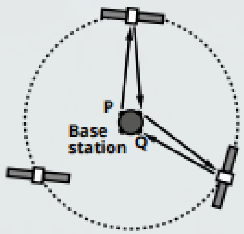
Satellite communication

There are two kinds of satellite used, both take 24 hours to orbit.

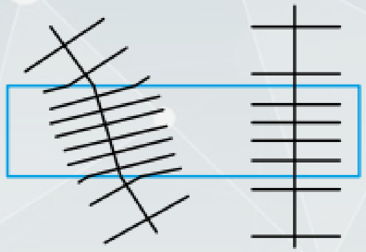
Geosynchronous returns to the same point **once** every 24 hours.

Geostationary stays **above** the same point at **all times**.

Using geostationary satellites to send messages requires at least 3 satellites. Remember the signal must travel up to the satellite and back and cannot travel straight from one satellite to another without returning to a station on the ground first.



Refraction

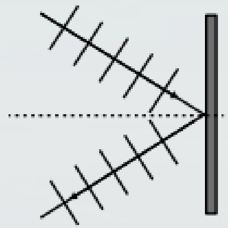


Low optical density/ deep water Higher speed Longer wavelength
High optical density/ shallow water Slower Shorter wavelength
Low optical density/ deep water Higher speed Longer wavelength

Notice the change in direction and the change in wavelength due to the change in speed.

Reflection

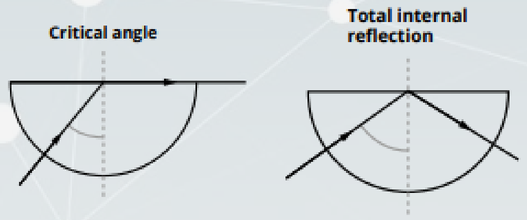
Notice that the wavelength does not change this time and that the angle from the normal to the wave when it hits the object is the same as when it is reflected.



The Electromagnetic spectrum

All parts of the spectrum transfer energy, they are all transverse waves and all travel at the same speed in a vacuum (3×10^8 m/s), but have different properties and uses.

Wave	Radio waves	Microwaves	Infrared	Visible light	Ultraviolet	X rays	Gamma rays
Wavelength	Long ←						Short
Frequency	Low →						High
Energy	Low →						High
Danger	Low danger	Heating water molecules in cells	Heat/burns	Damage retina	**Ionising**, causes cancer	**Ionising**, causes cancer	**Ionising**, causes cancer
Uses	Radio Television	Satellite television Mobile phones Cooking food	Optical fibres Remote controls Heat treatment	The only part that can be seen with the naked eye	Fraud detection	Looking at broken bones	Kills cancer cells



At the **critical angle**, the light bends **along the boundary**. If you increase the angle, the light will reflect. This is called **total internal reflection**.

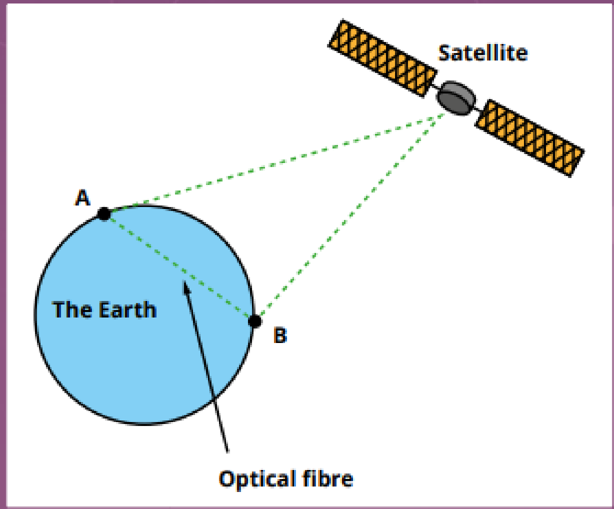
The two conditions required for total internal reflection to occur are:

1. The light must be travelling from a **higher** optical density towards a **lower** optical density, for example glass into air.
2. The angle between the normal and the ray of light must be **greater than the critical angle**.

Optical fibres
Total internal reflection is used in optical fibres.

Light is sent along a glass tube reflecting from the side of the tube until it reaches the end. This is very useful to send information quickly over long distances and is used in endoscopes.

Satellite or optical fibre communication?

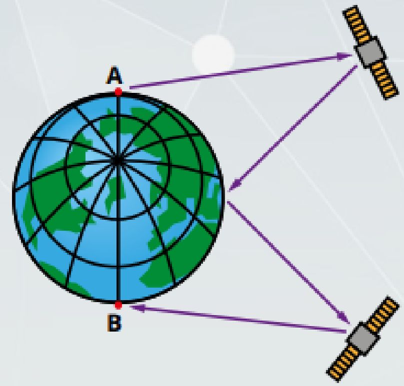


To communicate with Station B, Station A could send a message via satellite or along an optical fibre.

Satellite	Uses Microwaves Faster wave speed (300 000 000m/s) Larger distance = longer delay Can communicate anywhere
Optical fibre	Uses Infrared Slower wave speed (200 000 000m/s) Shorter distance = small delay Needs a connection to the fibre

Endoscopes
Endoscopes use total internal reflection to investigate specific areas of the body. Light is sent into the body through an optical fibre and reflected back along another optical fibre to a camera located outside the body.

They investigate specific areas in detail and are less harmful as no ionising radiation is used.



For a signal to travel from A to B via satellite, the signal must **travel to the satellite, back to Earth and then to the next satellite** as they cannot send signals directly to each other. This means that the distance the signal travels **is 4 times the distance** from the base station to the satellite. The total distance will be 4 × 36000km = 144000km.

Using the equation $time = \frac{distance}{speed}$ you can calculate the time it takes the signal to travel from A to B:

$$time = \frac{144\,000km}{300\,000km/s} = 0.48s$$

However, if an optical fibre was connected from A to B, the length would be 20 000km and although the light travels slower through the glass, 20 000km/s, **the time taken is much less**.

$$time = \frac{20\,000km}{200\,000km/s} = 0.01s$$

CT scans
CT scans can also be used to investigate the body. They use X rays to generate more overall images of the body and are in 3D.

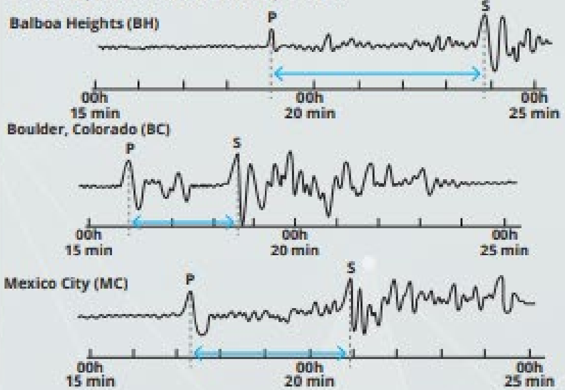
They give a more overall picture but pose a higher risk due to the X rays.

Following an earthquake, three different types of seismic waves are created. They are called primary waves **(P waves)**, secondary waves **(S waves)** and **surface waves**.

Wave	P waves	S waves	Surface waves
Type	Longitudinal	Transverse	Longitudinal
Speed	Fastest (arrives first)	Slower (arrives second)	Slowest (arrives last)
What can they travel through?	Solid and liquid rock	Solid rock only	Along the Earth's surface only

Lag time

P waves are **faster** than S waves and following an earthquake will arrive first. The **delay** between P waves and S waves arriving is known as the **lag time** and can be used to **calculate the distance** to the earthquake from that point.

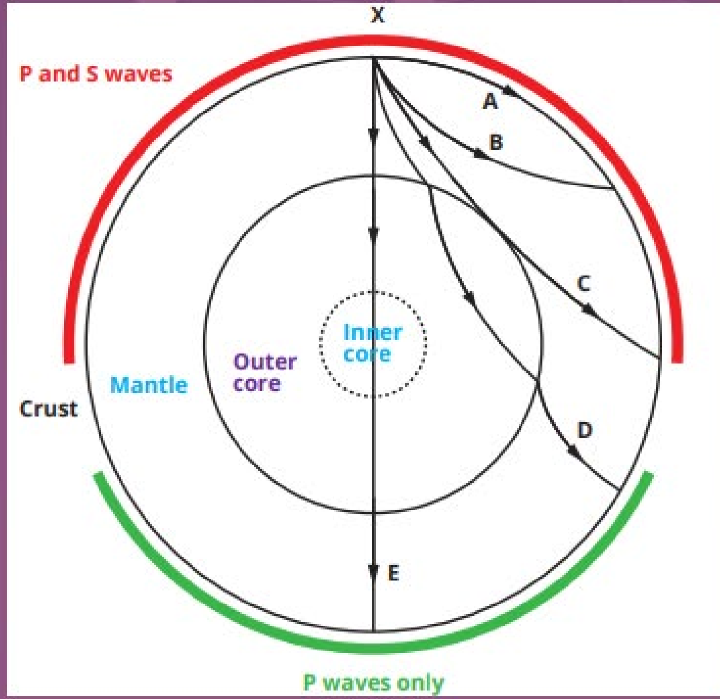


BH Lag time = 4:50
Furthest from the earthquake

BC Lag time = 2:40
Closest to the earthquake

MC Lag time = 3:40

Using **data** from the question or a **graph**, you can convert the lag time into a distance. Using data from **three stations**, draw circles with a radius equivalent to that distance to find the point where the circles meet. This is where the earthquake happened (marked by the arrow).



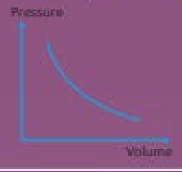
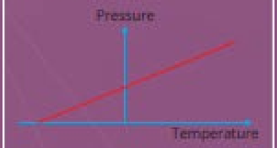
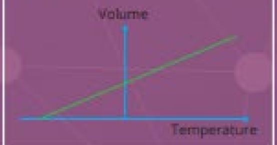
An earthquake at X will create all three types of seismic waves which can be measured across the Earth.

As only P waves reach the opposite side of the Earth from X the outer core must be liquid as S waves cannot travel through it.

Path	Wave	Reason
A	Surface wave	Travels on the **surface** of the Earth, not into the mantle.
B	P waves and S waves	Travels through the **solid mantle**, both P and S waves can travel through solid rock.
C	P waves and S waves	Travels through the **solid mantle**, both P and S waves can travel through solid rock.
D	P waves only	Travels through the **liquid outer core**, S waves cannot travel through liquid so cannot follow this path.
E	P waves only	Travels through the **liquid outer core**, S waves cannot travel through liquid so cannot follow this path.

Gases contain particles that are free to move around. This means that they collide with the surface of any container and through colliding exert a force on that surface, the more frequent the collisions the greater the force.

Describing the relationships between properties and behaviour of gases

Factors	Relationship	Relationship
Pressure and Volume (Fixed temperature) 	When you **decrease** the volume of a gas the pressure will **increase**. (Inversely proportional)	Particles having less room to move around and therefore colliding with the surface of the container more often.
Pressure and temperature (Fixed volume) 	When you **increase** the temperature on a fixed volume of gas, the pressure will **increase**. (Directly proportional)	Particles move around more quickly and collide with the surface of the container more often.
Volume and temperature (Fixed pressure) 	When you **increase** the temperature of a gas, the volume will **increase** if the pressure remains constant. (Directly proportional)	Particles move around more quickly and collide with each other more often forcing the particles further apart.

Absolute zero

Notice that the graphs of Pressure against Temperature and Volume against Temperature **don't reach zero** at 0°C. They **reach 0 at a temperature of -273°C,** this temperature is known as absolute zero.

Pressure can be calculated using the following equation:

$$Pressure = \frac{Force}{Area}$$

It represents how much force is put onto a specific area and is normally given in units of Pascals (Pa) where **1Pa = 1 N/m²**. This equation can be used to calculate the pressure by a solid on another solid or the force of a gas on a surface.

Kelvin

As absolute zero is not 0°C, a new scale where absolute zero was at zero was introduced. On this scale 0K = -273°C and therefore 0°C = 273K.

$$T/K = \theta/^{o}C + 273$$

These relationships allow us to use the following equation to calculate the changes in pressure, temperature or volume.

$$\frac{pV}{T} = constant$$

Where p = pressure, V = volume and T = temperature in Kelvin.

This allows us to calculate the new pressure, volume and temperature if there is a change to the gas because the constant is the same for that gas.

For example, if bottle contains $5.0 \times 10^{-4} m^3$ of air at 290K, the pressure inside the bottle is 100000Pa. When the bottle is moved the volume changes to $3.8 \times 10^{-4} m^3$ and the temperature remains the same. The new pressure inside the bottle could be calculated using the equation:

At the start:

$$\frac{pV}{T} = \frac{100\,000 \times 5.0 \times 10^{-4}}{290} = constant = 0.17$$

The constant (0.17) must be the same after the volume changed:

$$\frac{pV}{T} = \frac{p \times 3.8 \times 10^{-4}}{290} = 0.17$$

The same constant

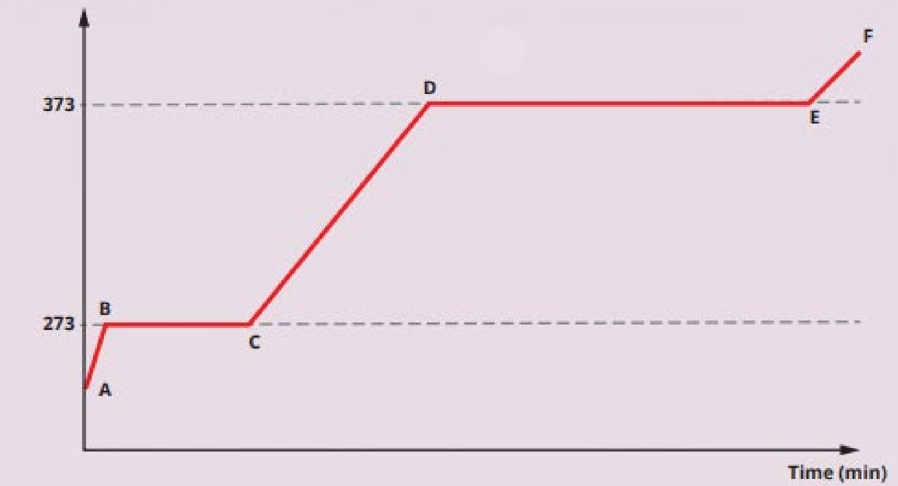
Rearranging this equation gives:

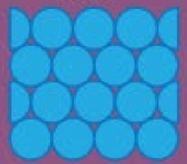
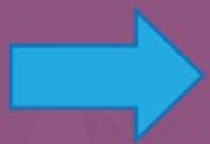
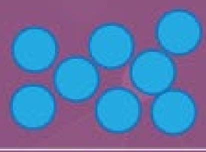
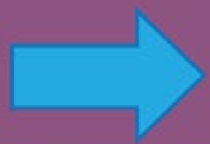
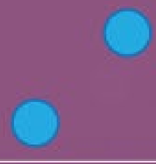
$$p = \frac{0.17 \times 290}{3.8 \times 10^{-4}} = 130\,000 Pa$$

GCSE Physics Unit 1

Unit 1.8 Kinetic Theory (Heat)

The graph below shows how the temperature of a block of ice changes over time as it is heated.



A-B	B-C	C-D	D-E	E-F
Solid	Melting	**Liquid**	Boiling	**Gas**
				
Particles are packed very closely. The **vibrate** in place but are **not free** to move.	Energy is used to break **some of the bonds** holding the particles in place.	Particles are close together but can **move** past each other.	Energy is used to break **all the bonds** holding the particles in place.	Particles are **free to move** and have large gaps between them.
As it is heated the particles vibrate more.	This energy is the **specific latent heat of fusion**.	As it is heated the particles move past each other more quickly.	This energy is the **specific latent heat of vaporisation**. It is larger than the latent heat of fusion because more bonds are broken when boiling.	As it is heated the particles move more quickly.

Specific heat capacity

This is the energy required to heat **1kg** of a substance by **1°C**.

For example, water has a specific heat capacity of 4200 J/kg °C, this means it would take 4200J of energy to heat 1kg of water by 1°C.

$$\Delta Q = mc\Delta\theta$$

Where:
ΔQ = change in thermal energy
m = mass
c = specific heat capacity
Δθ = change in temperature.

Specific latent heat

This is the energy required to **change the state** of **1kg** of a substance without a change in temperature.
For example, ice has a specific latent heat of fusion of 336000J/kg, this means it would take 336000J of energy to completely melt 1kg of ice into water without changing the temperature.

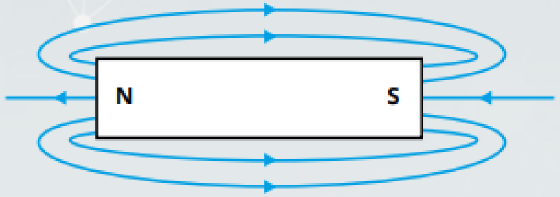
$$Q = mL$$

Where:
Q = thermal energy for change in state
m = mass
L = specific latent heat.

Magnetic fields

A magnetic field shows the area where a magnetic force will be felt. The strength of the field can be shown by how close together the lines are.

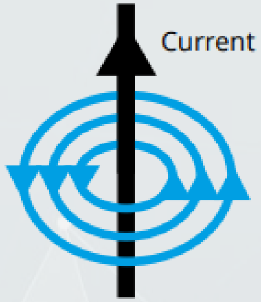
Bar magnet



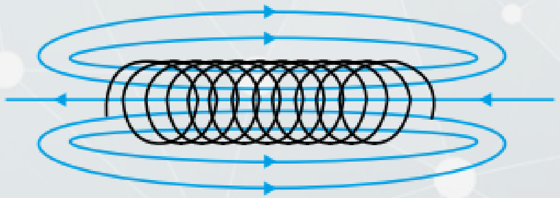
A wire carrying a current will create a magnetic field.

Long straight wire

A larger current will create a stronger field but changing the direction of the current will reverse the direction of the field.



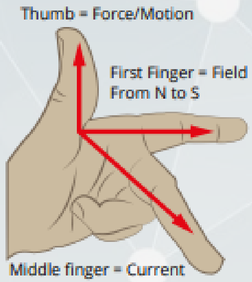
Coil



A larger current will create a stronger field, more turns on the coil will create a stronger field but changing the direction of the current will reverse the direction of the field.

Motor

A wire carrying a **current** through a **magnetic field** will have a **force** acting on it.
The **direction** of the force is given by Fleming's **Left** Hand Rule.



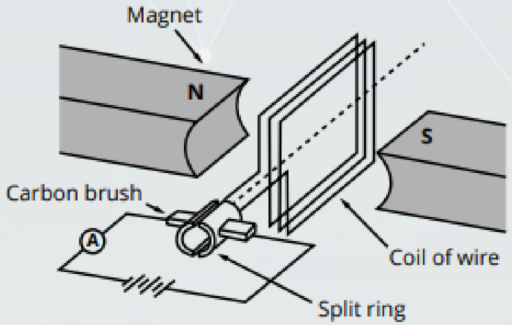
The size of the force can be calculated using the equation

$$F = BIl$$

Where F = force in N, B = Magnetic field strength in T, I = current in A and l = length in m.

This can be used to make a motor spin. To make the motor spin **faster**, you can use a coil with **more turns**, use a **larger current**, use **stronger magnets** or a coil with a **larger area**.

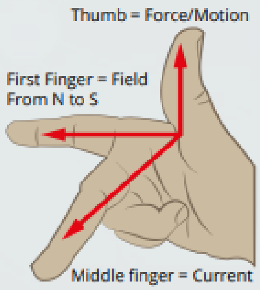
To change direction of the motor, you can **change the direction** of the current or **reverse** the field.



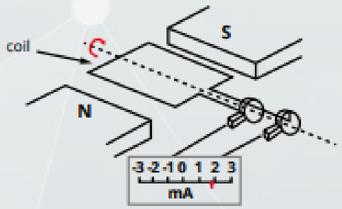
Generator

When a wire is **moved** through a **magnetic field** a **current** is generated.

The **direction** of the force is given by Fleming's **Right** Hand Rule.



This can be used to create an Alternating Current in a generator.

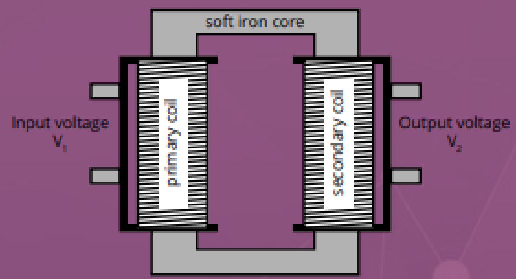


To generate a **larger** current, you can use a coil with **more turns**, use **stronger magnets** or a coil with a **larger area**. Turning the coil **faster** will also increase the current but will make the **frequency** of the current increase too.

Transformer

Magnetic field is used in transformers to step up and step down the voltage. There are 3 steps:

1. The **alternating** current in the primary coil creates an **alternating magnetic field** in the coil.
2. The core **strengthens** the field and **connects** it to the secondary coil.
3. The **alternating field** inside the secondary coil generates an **alternating current**.



The coil with the most coils will have the higher voltage. e.g. In a step-up transformer the **secondary coil will have the most turns** to increase the voltage.

The ratio of turns and voltage can be calculated using this equation.

$$\frac{V_1}{V_2} = \frac{N_1}{N_2}$$