QUICK REVIEW M



Physics

by Linda Huetinck, Ph.D.

> Series Editor Jerry Bobrow, Ph.D.



Cliffs Quick Review Physics

The Cliffs Notes logo, the names "Cliffs," "Cliffs Notes," and "Cliffs Quick Review," and the black and yellow diagonal stripe cover design are all registered trademarks belonging to Cliffs Notes, Inc., and may not be used in whole or in part without written permission.

SECOND EDITION

© Copyright 1994 by Cliffs Notes, Inc.

All Rights Reserved Printed in U.S.A.

Previous edition © Copyright 1993 by Cliffs Notes, Inc.

ISBN 0-8220-5337-3

INTRODUCTION 1
CLASSICAL MECHANICS 3
Kinematics in One Dimension
Definition of a vector
Displacement and velocity
Average acceleration
Graphical interpretations of displacement,
velocity, and acceleration 4
Definitions of instantaneous velocity and
instantaneous acceleration
Motion with constant acceleration
Kinematics in Two Dimensions
Addition and subtraction of vectors:
geometric method
Addition and subtraction of vectors:
component method 11
Velocity and acceleration vectors
in two dimensions
Projectile motion
Uniform circular motion
Dynamics
Newton's laws of motion
Mass and weight
Force diagrams
Friction
Centripetal force
Universal gravitation
Momentum and impulse
Conservation of momentum
Work and Energy
Work
Kinetic energy
Potential energy

Power	36
The conservation of energy	36
Elastic and inelastic collisions	37
Center of mass	38
Rotational Motion of a Rigid Body	39
Angular velocity and angular acceleration	39
Torque	41
Moment of inertia	41
Angular momentum	43
Rotational kinetic energy, work, and power	44
Comparison of dynamics equation for linear	
and rotational motion	44
Elasticity and Simple Harmonic Motion	45
Elastic modules	45
Hooke's law	47
Simple harmonic motion	47
The relation of SHM to circular motion	47
The simple pendulum	48
SHM energy	49
Fluids	49
Density and pressure	49
Pascal's principle	50
Archimedes' principle	50
Bernoulli's equation	51
•	
WAVES AND SOUND	53
Wave Motion	53
Transverse and longitudinal waves	53
Wave characteristics	54
Superposition principle	56
Standing waves	57
	58
Sound	
Intensity and pitch	58 59
Doppler effect	59 60
Forced vibrations and resonance	
Beats	61

THERMODYNAMICS	63
Temperature	63
Thermometers and temperature scales	63
Thermal expansion of solids and liquids	65
Development of the Ideal Gas Law	66
Boyle's law	67
Charles/Gay-Lussac law	67
Definition of a mole	68
The ideal gas law	68
Avogadro's number	69
The kinetic theory of gases	69
Heat	70
Heat capacity and specific heat	70
Mechanical equivalent of heat	71
Heat transfer	72
Calorimetry	72
Latent heat	73
The heat of fusion	73
The heat of vaporization	74
Methods of heat transfer: conduction,	
convection, and radiation	74
The Laws of Thermodynamics	76
The first law of thermodynamics	76
Work	77
Definitions of thermodynamical processes	77
Carnot cycle	78
The second law of thermodynamics	81
Entropy	81
ELECTRICITY AND MAGNETISM	83
Electrostatics	83
	83
Electric charge	86
Electric fields and lines of force	88
Electric fields and lines of force	80

Electric flux	89
Gauss's law	90
Potential difference and equipotential surfaces	93
Electrostatic potential and equipotential surfaces	94
Capacitors	98
Capacitance	98
The parallel plate capacitor	98
Parallel and series capacitors	99
Current and Resistance	101
Current	101
Resistance and resistivity	103
Electrical power and energy	103
Direct Current Circuits	104
Series and parallel resistors	104
Kirchhoff's rules	107
Electromagnetic Forces and Fields	108
Magnetic fields and lines of force	108
Force on a moving charge	109
Force on a current-carrying conductor	111
Torque on a current loop	111
Galvanometers, ammeters, and voltmeters	112
Magnetic field of a long, straight wire	113
Ampère's law	113
Magnetic fields of the loop, solenoid, and toroid	114
Electromagnetic Induction	115
Magnetic flux	115
Faraday's law	116
Lenz's law	116
Generators and motors	117
Mutual inductance and self-inductance	118
Maxwell's equations and electromagnetic waves	119
Alternating Current Circuits	119
Alternating currents and voltages	120
Resistor-capacitor circuits	120

	_
Resistor-inductor circuits	121
Reactance	122
Resistor-inductor-capacitor circuit	124
Power	124
Resonance	124
Transformers	125
LIGHT	127
Characteristics of Light	127
Electromagnetic spectrum	127
Speed of light	128
Polarization	129
Geometrical Optics	131
The law of reflection	132
Plane mirrors	134
Concave mirrors	135
Convex mirrors	140
The law of refraction	141
Brewster's angle	143
Total internal reflection	143
Thin lens	145
The compound microscope	148
Dispersion and prisms	148
Wave Optics	150
Huygens' principle	150
Interference	151
Young's experiment	151
Diffraction	153
MODERN PHYSICS	157 157
Frames of reference	157
Michelson-Morley experiment	158

The special theory of relativity	159
Addition of velocities	159
Time dilation and the Lorentz contraction	160
The twin paradox	162
Relativistic momentum	162
Relativistic energy	163
General relativity	163
Quantum Mechanics	165
Blackbody radiation	165
Photoelectric effect	166
Compton scattering	167
Particle-wave duality	168
De Broglie waves	168
The uncertainty principle	169
Atomic Structure	169
Atomic spectra	170
The Bohr atom	171
Energy levels	173
De Broglie waves and the hydrogen atom	174
Nuclear Physics	174
Nuclear structure	175
Binding energy	175
Radioactivity	176
Half-life	177
Nuclear reactions	177

INTRODUCTION

Physics is a branch of physical science that deals with physical changes of objects. The mental, idealized models on which it is based are most frequently expressed in mathematical equations that simplify the conditions of the real world for ease of analysis. Even though the equations are derived from ideal conditions, they approximate real situations closely enough to allow accurate prediction of the behaviors of complex systems.

The primary task in studying physics is to understand its basic principles. Understanding these formal principles enables better understanding of the phenomena observed in the universe.

The system of units used throughout this book is called the International System of Units (SI). The fundamental quantities in this system are length, time, mass, electric current, temperature, amount of a substance, and luminous intensity.

CLASSICAL MECHANICS

Mechanics is the study of the motion of material objects. Classical or Newtonian mechanics deals with objects and motions familiar in our everyday world.

Kinematics in One Dimension

Kinematics analyzes the positions and motions of objects as a function of time, without regard to the causes of motion. It involves the relationships between the quantities **displacement** (d), **velocity** (v), **acceleration** (a), and **time** (t). The first three of these quantities are vectors.

Definition of a vector. A vector is a physical quantity with direction as well as magnitude, for example, velocity or force. In contrast, a quantity that has only magnitude and no direction, such as temperature or time, is called a scalar. A vector is commonly denoted by an arrow drawn with a length proportional to the given magnitude of the physical quantity and with direction shown by the orientation of the head of the arrow.

Displacement and velocity. Imagine that a car begins traveling along a road after starting from a specific sign post. To know the exact position of the car after it has traveled a given distance, it is necessary to know not only the miles it traveled but also its heading. The displacement, defined as the change in position of the object, is a vector with the magnitude as a distance, such as 10 miles, and a direction, such as east. Velocity is a vector expression with a magnitude equal to the speed traveled and with an indicated direction of motion. For motion defined on a number line, the direction is specified

by a positive or negative sign. Average velocity is mathematically defined as

average velocity =
$$\frac{\text{total displacement}}{\text{time elapsed}}$$

Note that displacement (distance from starting position) is *not* the same as distance traveled. If a car travels one mile east and then returns one mile west, to the same position, the total displacement is zero and so is the average velocity over this time period. Displacement is measured in units of length, such as meters or kilometers, and velocity is measured in units of length per time, such as meters/second (meters per second).

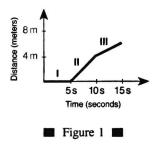
Average acceleration. Acceleration, defined as the rate of change of velocity, is given by the equation:

average acceleration =
$$\frac{\text{final velocity - initial velocity}}{\text{time elapsed}}$$

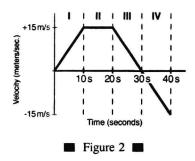
Acceleration units are expressed as length per time divided by time such as meters/second/second or in abbreviated form as m/s².

Graphical interpretations of displacement, velocity, and acceleration. The distance versus time graph in Figure 1 shows the progress of a person: (I) standing still, (II) walking with a constant velocity, and (III) walking with a slower constant velocity. The slope of the line yields the speed. For example, the speed in segment II is

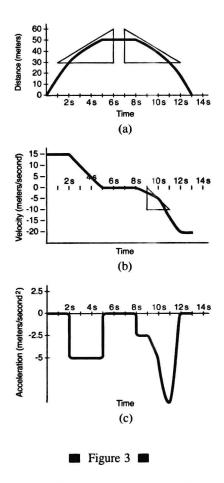
$$\frac{(4-0) \text{ m}}{(10-5) \text{ s}} = \frac{4 \text{ m}}{5 \text{ s}} = .8 \text{ m/s}$$



Each segment in the velocity versus time graph of Figure 2 depicts a different motion of a bicycle: (I) increasing velocity, (II) constant velocity, (III) decreasing velocity, and (IV) velocity in a direction opposite the initial direction (negative). The area between the curve and the time axis represents the distance traveled. For example, the distance traveled during segment I is equal to the area of the triangle with height 15 and base 10. Because the area of a triangle is (1/2) (base) (height), then (1/2)(15 m/s)(10 s) = 75 m. The magnitude of acceleration equals the calculated slope. The acceleration calculation for segment III is (-15 m/s)/(10 s) = -1.5 m/s/s or -1.5 m/s^2 .



The more realistic distance versus time curve in Figure 3(a) illustrates gradual changes in the motion of a moving car. The speed is nearly constant in the first 2 seconds as can be seen by the nearly constant slope of the line; however, between 2 and 4 seconds, the speed



is steadily decreasing and the instantaneous velocity describes how fast the object is moving at a given instant.

Instantaneous velocity can be read on an odometer in the car. It is calculated from a graph as the slope of a tangent to the curve at the specified time. The slope of the line sketched at 4 seconds is 6 m/s. Figure 3(b) is a sketch of the velocity versus time graph constructed from the slopes of the distance versus time curve. In like fashion, the

instantaneous acceleration is found from the slope of a tangent to the velocity versus time curve at a given time. The instantaneous acceleration versus time graph in Figure 3(c) is the sketch of the slopes of the velocity versus time graph of Figure 3(b). With the vertical arrangement shown, it is easy to compare the displacement, velocity, and acceleration of a moving object at the same time.

For example, at time t = 10 s, the displacement is 47 m, the velocity is -5 m/s, and the acceleration is -5 m/s².

Definitions of instantaneous velocity and instantaneous acceleration. The instantaneous velocity by definition is the limit of the average velocity as the measured time interval is made smaller and smaller. In formal terms, $v = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \Delta d/\Delta t$. The notation $\lim_{\Delta t \to 0}$ means the ratio $\Delta d/\Delta t$ is evaluated as the time interval approaches zero. Similarly, instantaneous acceleration is defined as the limit of the average acceleration as the time interval becomes infinitesimally short. That is, $a = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \Delta v/\Delta t$.

Motion with constant acceleration. When an object moves with constant acceleration, the velocity increases or decreases at the same rate throughout the motion. The average acceleration equals the instantaneous acceleration when the acceleration is constant. A negative acceleration can indicate either of two conditions: case (1) the object has a decreasing velocity in the positive direction, or case (2) the object has an increasing velocity in the negative direction. For example, a ball tossed up will be under the influence of a negative (downward) acceleration due to gravity. Its velocity will decrease while it travels upward (case 1); then, after reaching its highest point, the velocity will increase downward as the object returns to earth (case 2).

Using v_o (velocity at the beginning of time elapsed), v_f (velocity at the end of the time elapsed), and t for time, the constant acceleration is

$$a = \frac{v_f - v_o}{t}$$
 or $v_f = v_o + at$ [Equation 1]

Substituting the average velocity as the arithmetic average of the original and final velocities $v_{avg} = (v_o + v_f)/2$ into the relationship between distance and average velocity $d = (v_{avg})(t)$ yields

$$d = \frac{1}{2}(v_o + v_f)t$$
 [Equation 2]

Substitute v_f from Equation 1 into Equation 2 to obtain

$$d = v_0 t + \frac{1}{2}at^2$$
 [Equation 3]

Finally, substitute the value of t from Equation 1 into Equation 2 for

$$v_f^2 = v_o^2 + 2ad$$
 [Equation 4]

These four equations relate v_o , v_f , t, a, and d. Note that each equation has a different set of four of these five quantities. The table below summarizes the equations for motion in a straight line under constant acceleration.

A special case of constant acceleration occurs for an object under the influence of gravity. If an object is thrown vertically upward or dropped, the acceleration due to gravity of -9.8 m/s² is substituted in the above equations to find the relationships among velocity, distance, and time.