



Physics Notes

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Physics

MECHANICS

Kinematics ✓
Newton's Laws ✓
Work, Energy, and Power ✓
Harmonic Motion
Elastic Properties of Solids
Fluid Mechanics

WAVES

Waves

GRAVITATION

Gravitation

THERMODYNAMICS

Heat & Temperature
The Ideal Gas and Kinetic Theory
The First Law of Thermodynamics
The Second Law of Thermodynamics and Heat Engines

ELECTRICITY & MAGNETISM

Electricity ✓
DC Current
Magnetism

LIGHT & OPTICS

The Properties of Light
Geometric Optics
Wave Optics

MODERN PHYSICS & NUCLEAR PHYSICS

Modern Physics
Nuclear Physics

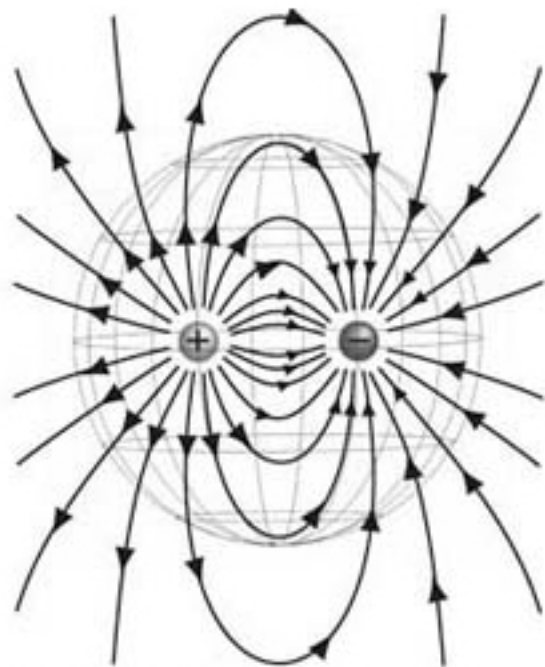
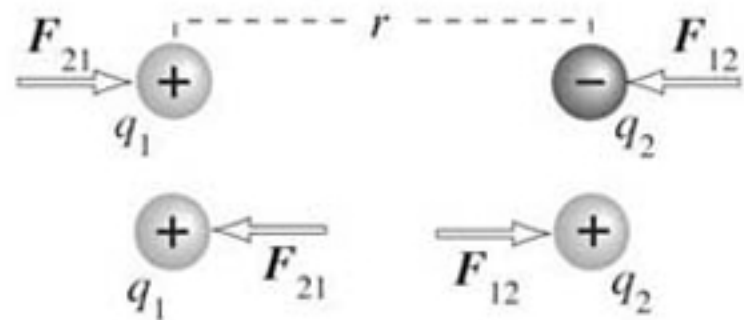
Kinematics ✓
Newton's Laws ✓
Work, Energy, & Power ✓
Electricity ✓
Ideal Gas & Kinetic Theory
Atomic Theory
Periodic Properties
The Chemical Bond
Intermolecular Forces
Organic Functional Groups
Stereochemistry

Fluid Mechanics
Deformations, Oscillations & Vibrations
Waves

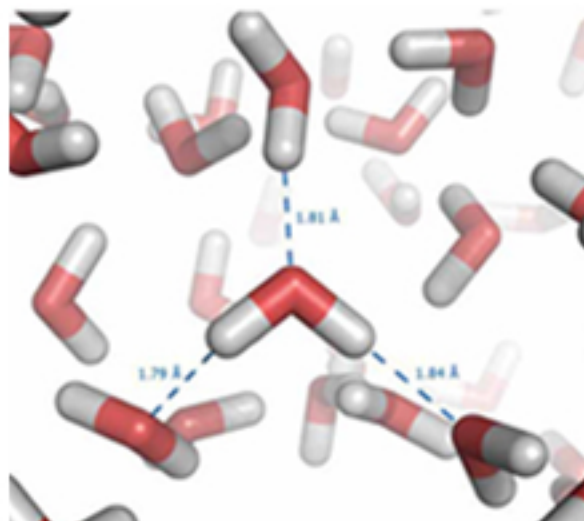
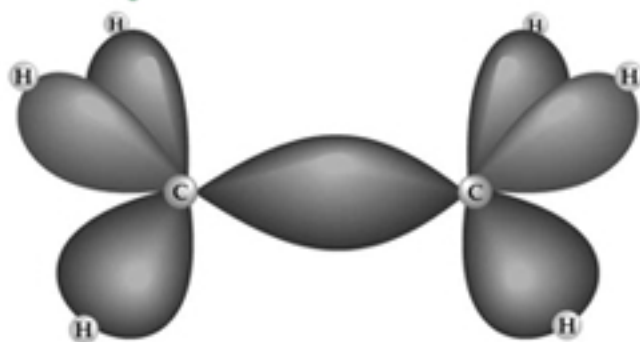
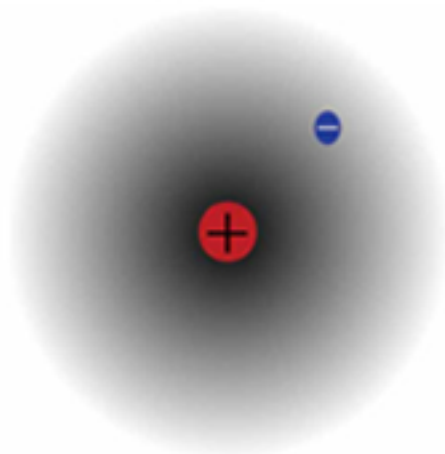
Temperature & Heat Flow
1st Law of Thermodynamics
Stoichiometry
Thermochemistry
2nd Law & Heat Engines
Chemical Thermodynamics & Equilibrium
The States of Matter
Organic Physical Properties
Solutions
Acids & Bases
Organic Reaction Mechanisms
Amino Acids & Protein Structure

↓
Biochemistry

Physics



Chemistry



KINEMATICS • How things move

↗
vectors
and scalars

Displacement Δx
(m)

Velocity (m/s)
speed is the magnitude
of the velocity

Acceleration (m/s^2)
↑
'meters per
second per
second'

Displacement, Velocity and Acceleration

$$\bar{v} = \frac{x - x_0}{\Delta t}$$

$$x - x_0 = \Delta x$$

$$\Delta x = \bar{v} \Delta t$$

$$\bar{a} = \frac{v - v_0}{\Delta t}$$

$$\Delta v = \bar{a} \Delta t$$

The Kinematics of Constant Acceleration

$$v = v_0 + at$$

$$x - x_0 = \frac{1}{2}(v + v_0)t$$

$$x - x_0 = v_0 t + \frac{1}{2}at^2$$

$$v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0)$$

Motion in Two Dimensions

$$a_r = \frac{v^2}{r}$$

Uniform Circular Motion

Projectile Motion

$$v_y = v_{y0} - gt$$

$$v_x = v_{x0} = \text{constant}$$

Four Equations of Kinematics for Constant Acceleration

$$v = v_0 + at$$

$$\Delta v = at$$

$$x - x_0 = \frac{1}{2}(v + v_0)t$$

$$\Delta x = \bar{v}t$$

$$v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0)$$

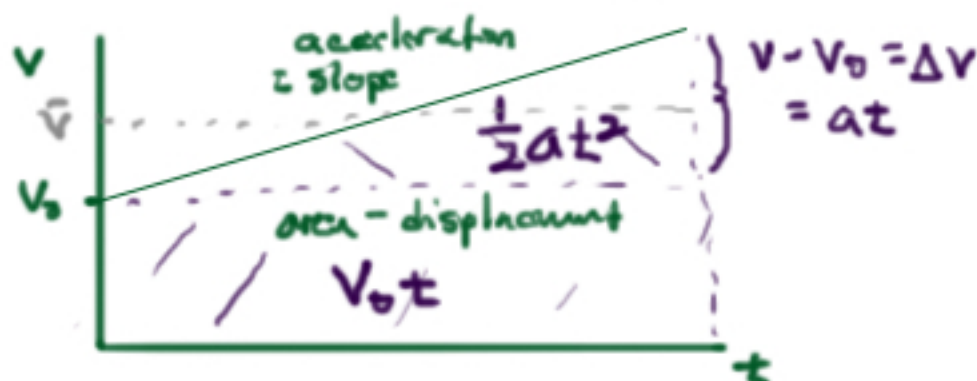
$$v^2 - v_0^2 = 2a \Delta x$$

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_0^2 = ma \Delta x = F \Delta x$$

$$\Delta KE = \text{work}$$

work
↓

$$x - x_0 = v_0t + \frac{1}{2}at^2 \quad \star$$



mass (kg)

DYNAMICS

Force ($\text{kg} \cdot \text{m/s}^2 = \text{N}$)

Newton's Laws of Motion

$$\Sigma F = 0 \text{ then } a = 0$$

$$F = ma$$

$$F_{12} = -F_{21}$$

Free Body Diagrams



Friction Force

$$F_s \leq \mu_s N$$

↑ threshold
of static
friction

$$F_k = \mu_k N$$

The Fundamental Forces

$$F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2}$$

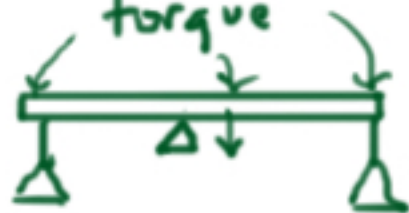
Gravitation

$$F = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$$

$$F = qB v \sin \theta$$

Electromagnetism

static
equilibrium - when there's
no net force
and no net
torque



Work 1 N·m = 1 J
(energy)

Power 1 J/s = 1 Watt

WORK, ENERGY, AND POWER

Work

$$W = (F \cos \theta)s$$

Work = force · distance
↑
parallel to displacement

Kinetic Energy

$$K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

Potential Energy

$$U = mgh$$

$$U_{\text{spr}} = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$$

$$U_e = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r}$$

Conservation of Energy

$$K_i + U_i = K_f + U_f$$

↑
mass
spring

↑
2 point
charges

Power

$$\bar{P} = \frac{\Delta W}{\Delta t}$$

$$P = Fv$$

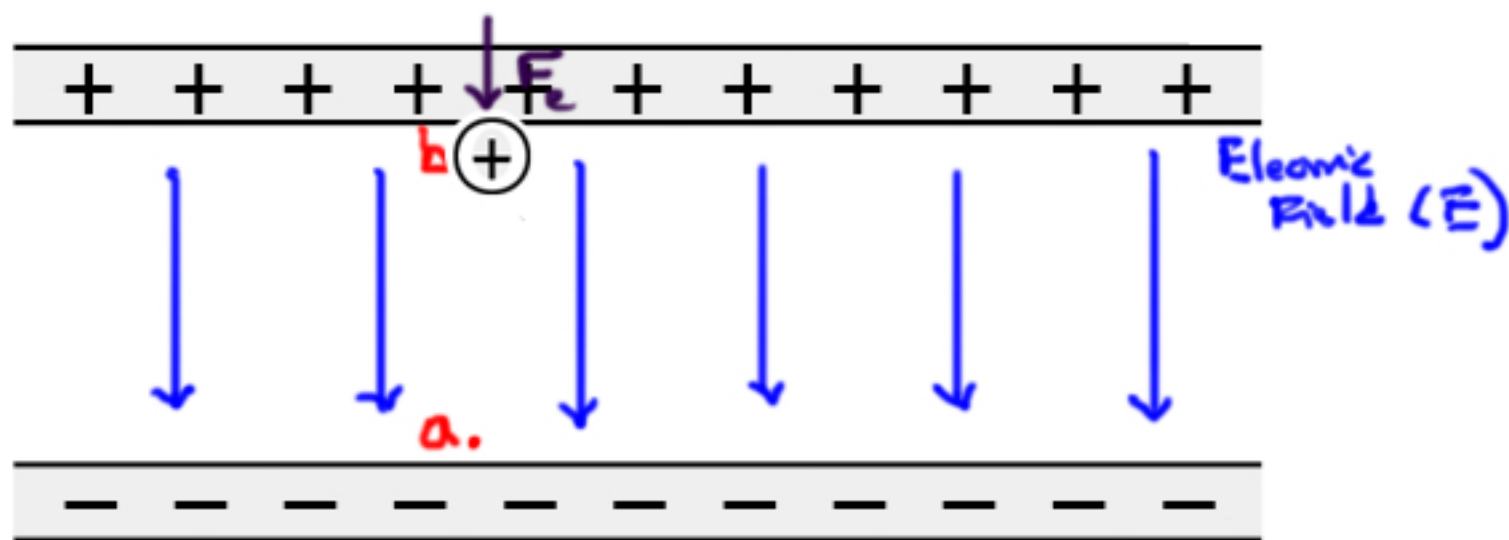
Electric, q
charge
- Coulombs
(C)

Electric Field, E
 N/C

Potential Difference
 V , voltage
Volt - J/C



uniform electric field



Kinematics

constant
acceleration

Dynamics

$$F = Eq$$

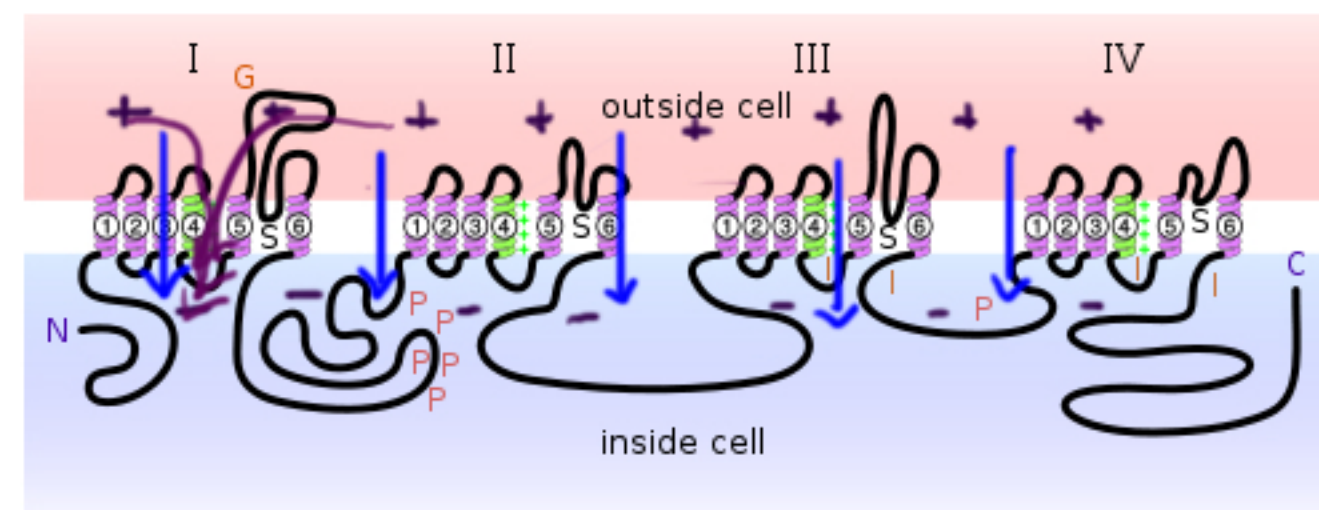
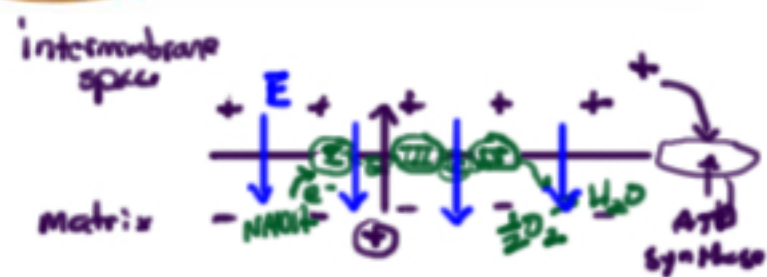
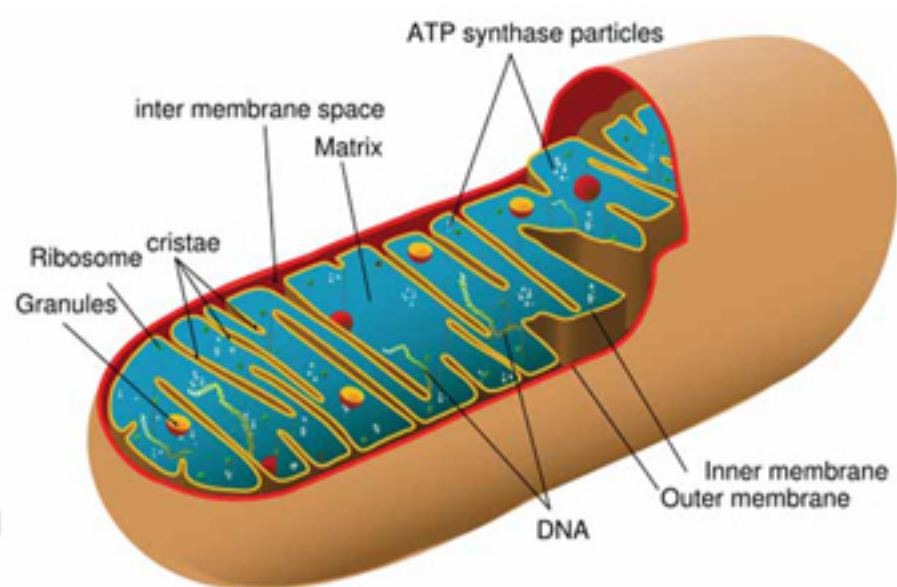
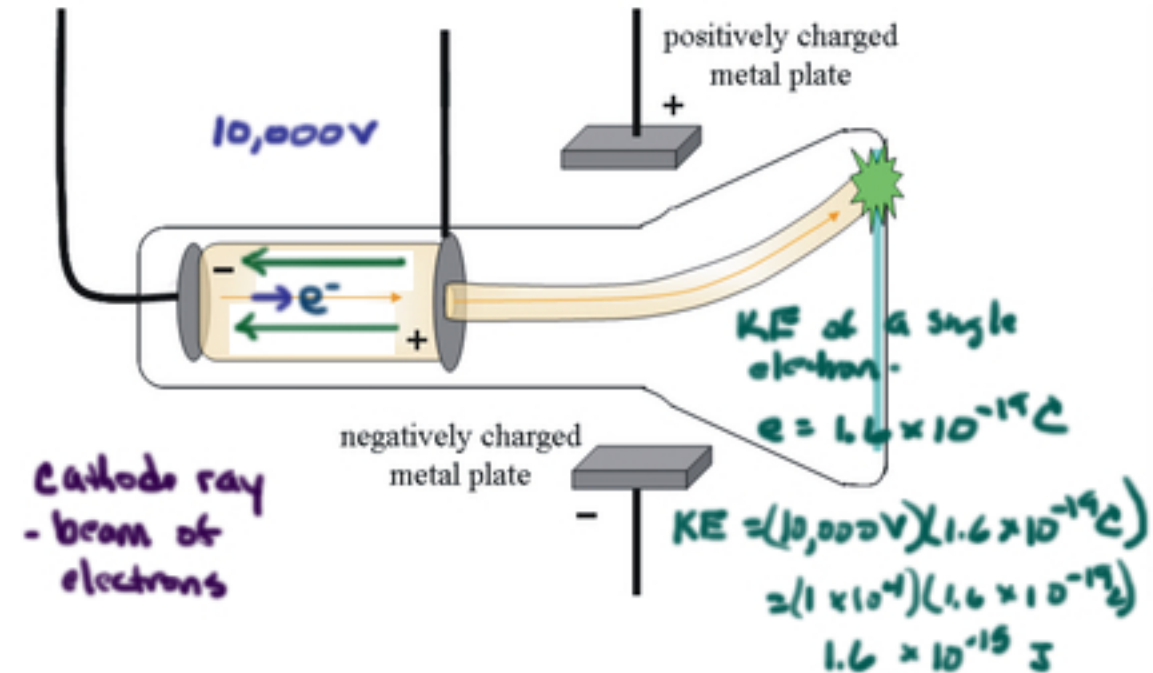
$$F = ma$$

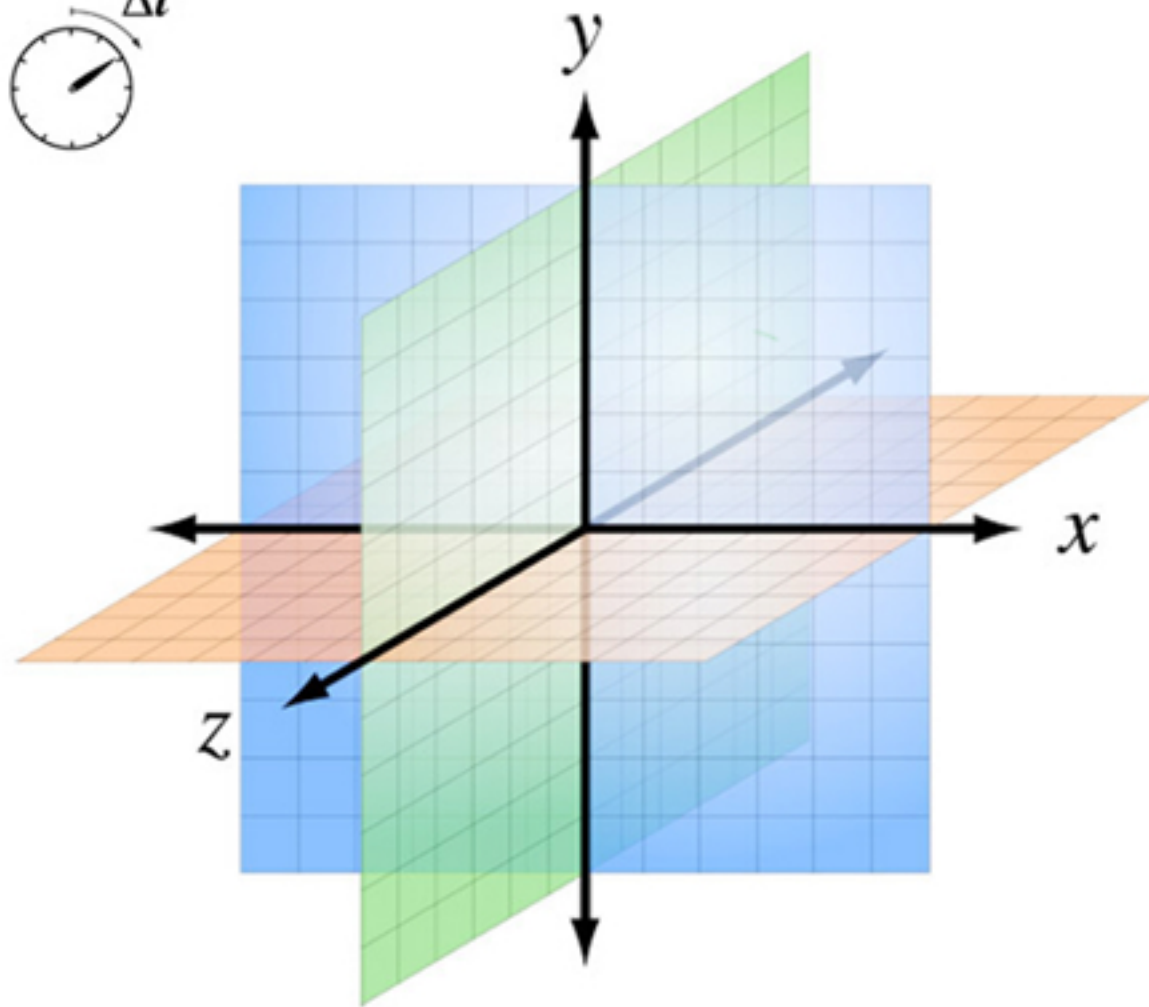
Work & Energy

$$V = Ed$$

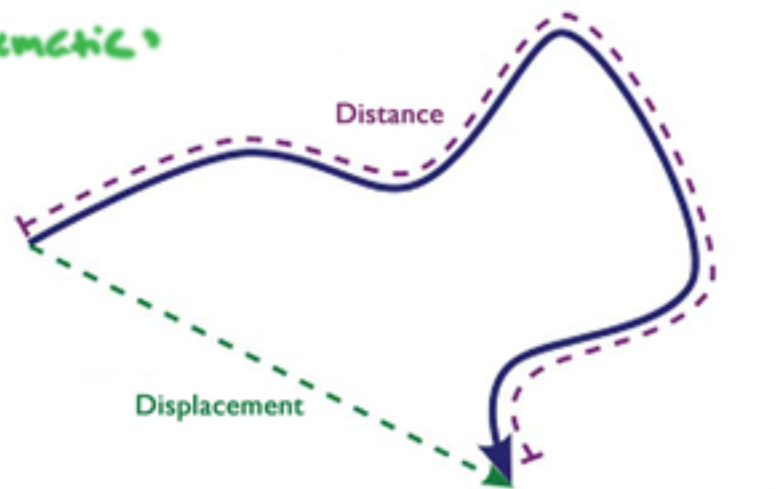
$$1 \text{ volt} = J/C$$

work = force \cdot distance





Kinematics



- displacement $\Delta \mathbf{x}$
- velocity $\frac{\Delta \mathbf{x}}{\Delta t} = \vec{v}$
- acceleration $\frac{\Delta \vec{v}}{\Delta t} = \vec{a}$

Velocity

$$\bar{v} = \frac{x - x_0}{\Delta t}$$

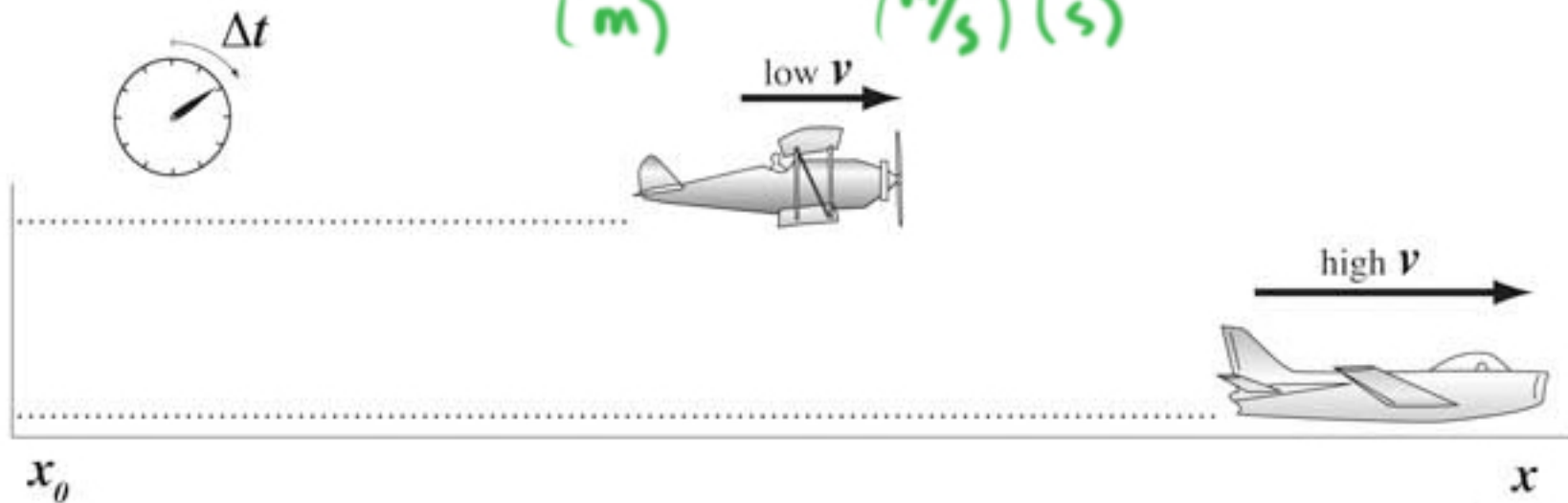
\bar{v} = average velocity

$x - x_0$ = change in position

Δt = change in time

$$x - x_0 = \bar{v} \Delta t$$

(m) (m/s)(s)



Acceleration

$$\bar{a} = \frac{v - v_0}{\Delta t}$$

\bar{a} = average acceleration

$v - v_0$ = change in velocity

Δt = change in time

$$v - v_0 = \bar{a} \Delta t$$

$$(\text{m/s}) = (\text{m/s}^2)(\text{s})$$



Velocity as a Function of Time

Constant
acceleration

$$v = v_0 + at$$

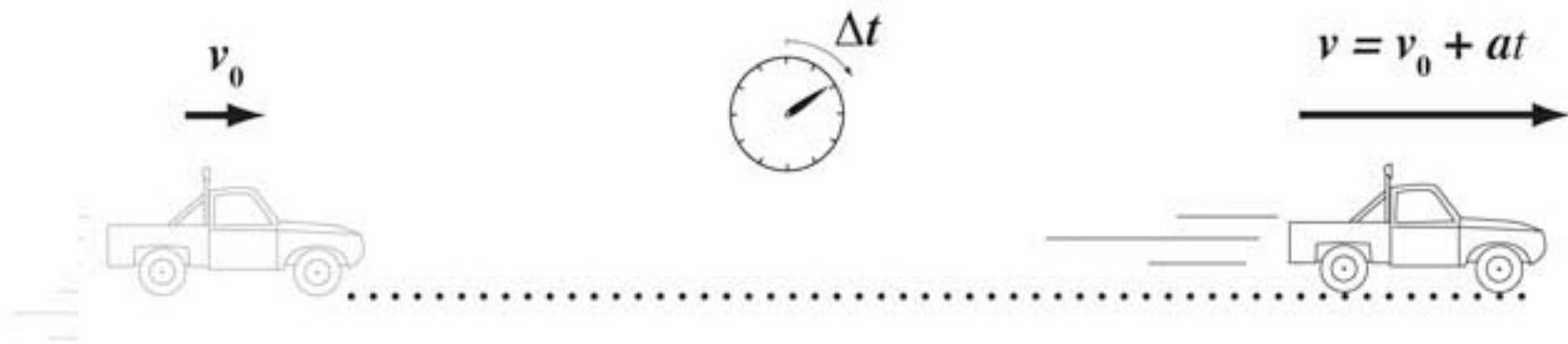
$$\Delta v = at$$

v = velocity

v_0 = initial velocity

a = acceleration (constant)

t = time



Displacement Equation ★

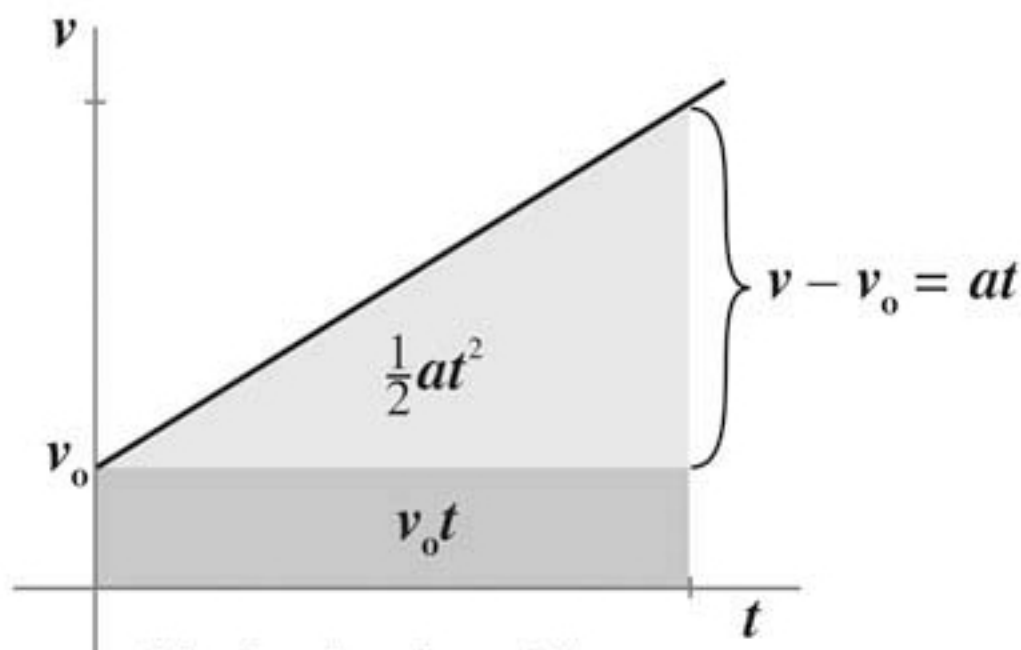
$$x - x_0 = v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2$$

$x - x_0$ = change in position

v_0 = initial velocity

t = change in time

a = acceleration (constant)





The tallest apple tree in the world is 12 meters tall.

Approximately how long would it take an apple falling from the highest branch to hit the ground?

$$\Delta x = 12 \text{ m}$$

$$v_0 = 0$$

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

$$\Delta x = v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2$$

$$12 \text{ m} = \frac{1}{2} (10 \text{ m/s}^2) (t^2)$$

$$t^2 = \frac{12}{5} \text{ s}^2$$

$$t^2 = 2.4$$

$$t = 1.5 \text{ s}$$

Displacement is the Product of Average Velocity and Time

$$x - x_0 = \frac{1}{2}(v + v_0)t$$

constant acceleration

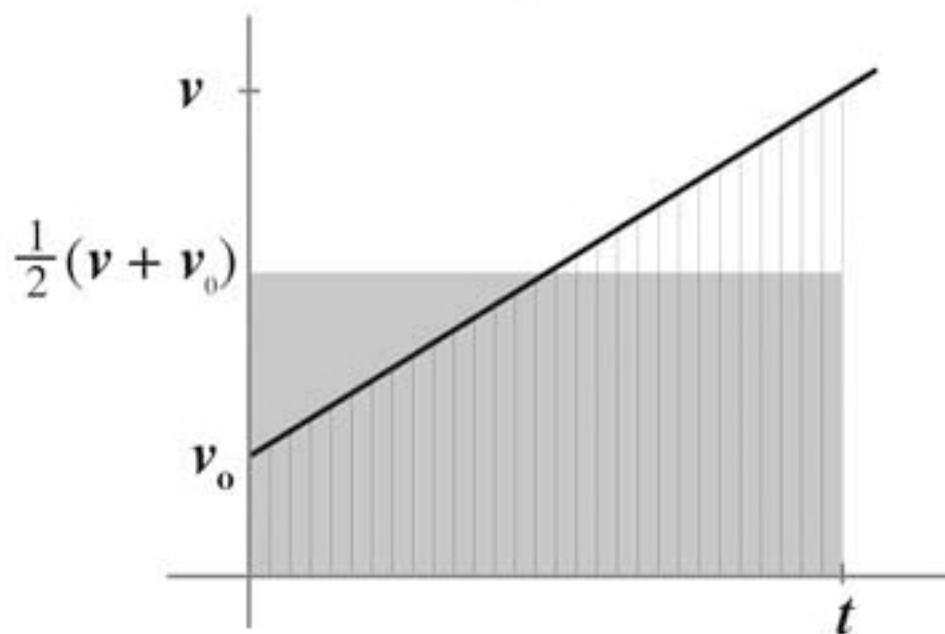
$x - x_0$ = change in position

v = velocity

v_0 = initial velocity

t = change in time

$$\Delta x = \bar{v} t$$



Velocity as a Function of Displacement

$$v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0)$$

constant acceleration

v = velocity

v_0 = initial velocity

a = acceleration (constant)

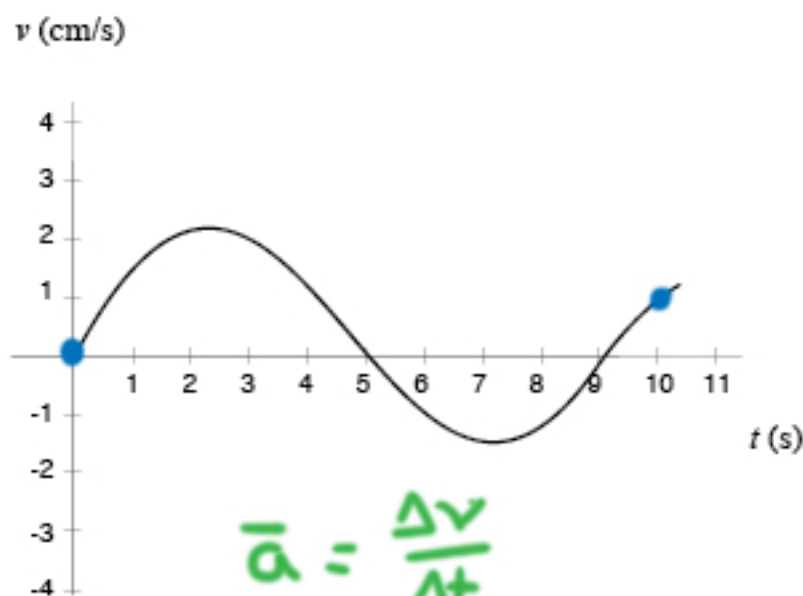
$x - x_0$ = change in position (displacement)



The accompanying graph was derived from measurements of blood velocity within the port of a hemodialysis catheter carried out over ten seconds. Which of the following is the nearest approximation of the average acceleration of a volume element within the blood during that time period?

- A. 0.001 m/s²
- B. 0.01 m/s²
- C. 0.1 m/s²
- D. 10 m/s²

$$\bar{v} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}$$



$$\bar{a} = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t}$$

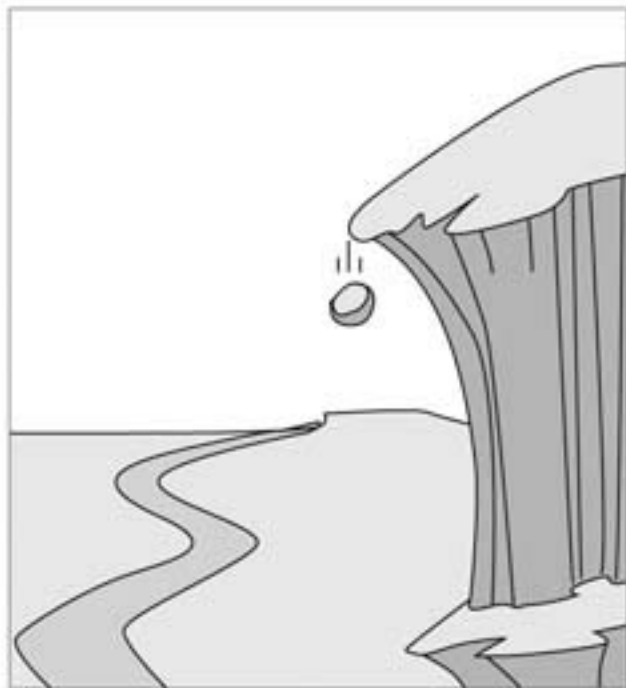
$$\bar{a} = \frac{1 \text{ cm/s}}{10 \text{ s}} = 0.1 \text{ cm/s}^2$$

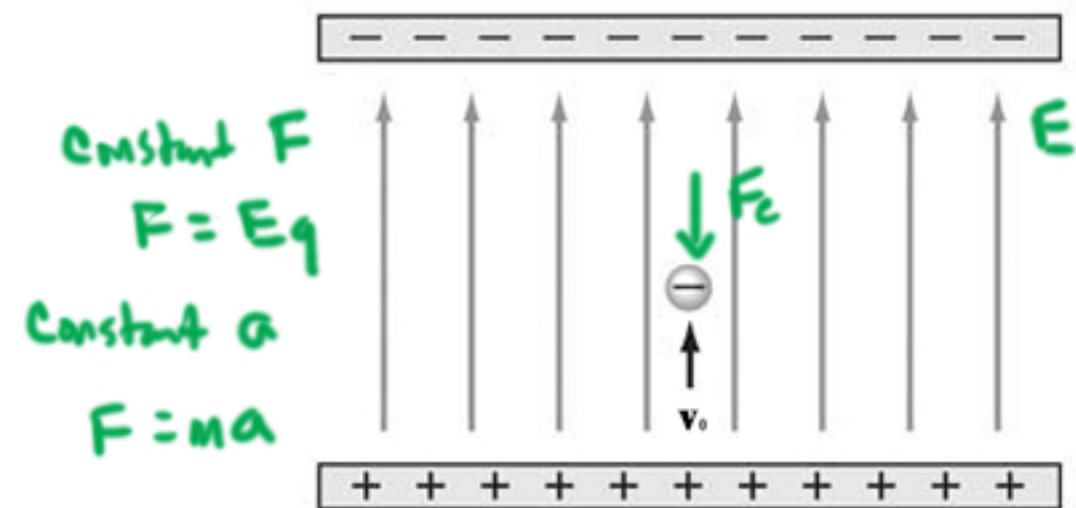
$$(0.1 \text{ cm/s}^2) \left(\frac{1 \text{ m}}{100 \text{ cm}} \right) = 0.001 \text{ m/s}^2$$

Discounting air friction, approximately how far will the boulder have fallen in 3 seconds?

- a. 20 m
- b. 45 m
- c. 30 m
- d. 90 m

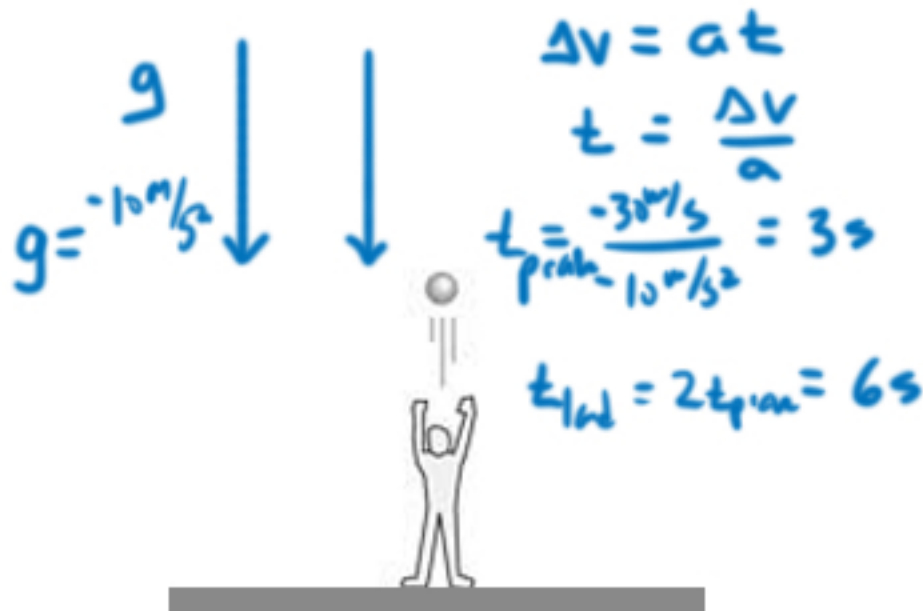
$$\begin{aligned}\Delta x &= v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (10) (3)^2 \\ &= 45 \text{ m}\end{aligned}$$





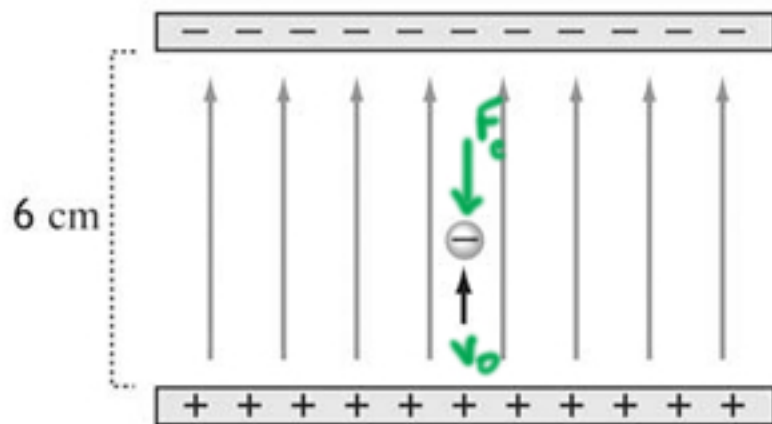
$$t_{\text{peak}} = \frac{v_0}{a}$$

If he throws it upwards at 30 m/s
 how long to catch it again?



The application of heat causes emission of an electron by the positive plate of a parallel plate capacitor. The electron moves into the uniform electric field between the plates with an initial velocity of $2.0 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}$ perpendicular to the plate. The electron undergoes an acceleration of magnitude $4.0 \times 10^7 \text{ m/s}^2$ perpendicular to the plates within the electric field. How long is the electron in flight?

- a. $2.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}$
- b. $5.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}$
- c. $1.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}$
- d. $4.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}$



$$t_{\text{up}} = \frac{2 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}}{4 \times 10^7 \text{ m/s}^2}$$

$$= 5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}$$

$$t_{\text{down}} = 2 t_{\text{up}}$$

$$= 1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}$$

Projectile Motion

$$V_x = V_{x0} = \text{constant}$$

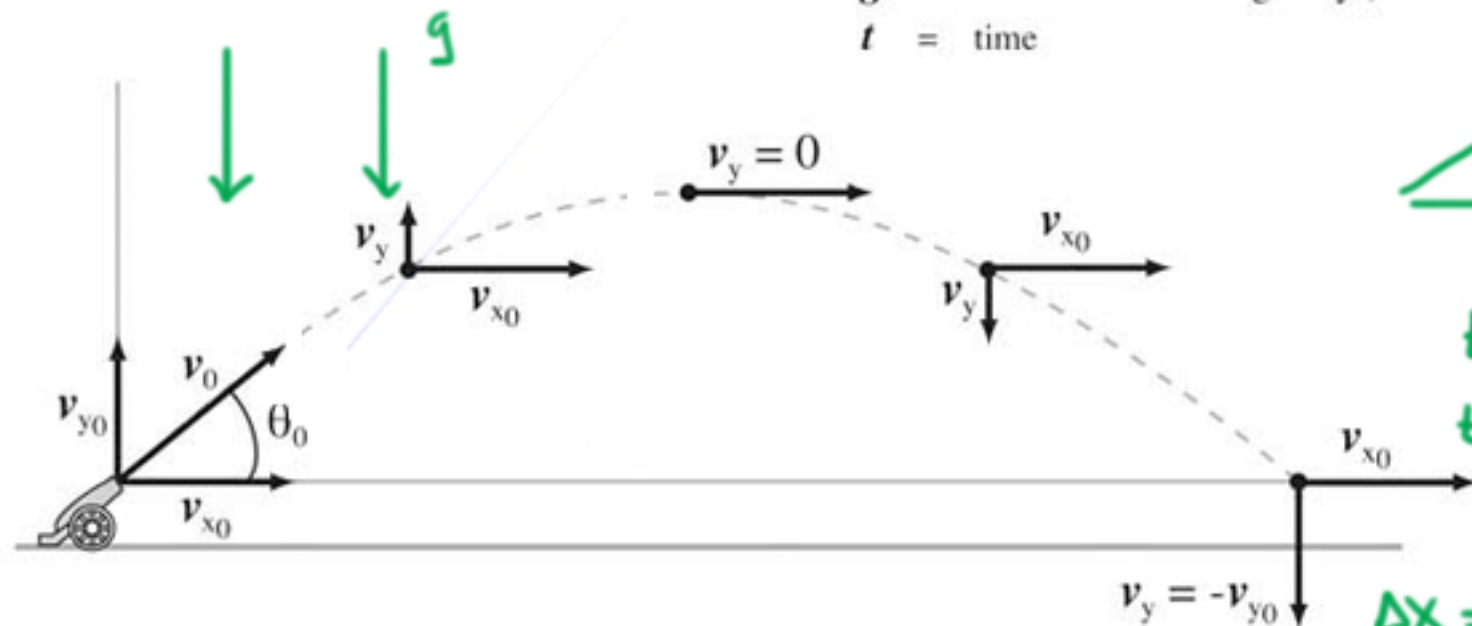
v_x = horizontal velocity
 v_{x0} = initial horizontal velocity

$$v_y = v_{y0} - gt$$

v_y = vertical velocity
 v_{y0} = initial vertical velocity
 g = acceleration due to gravity (9.8 m/s^2)
 t = time

$$v_{y0} = v_0 \sin \theta$$
$$v_{x0} = v_0 \cos \theta$$

$$v_0 = v_{y0} + v_{x0}$$



$$t_{\text{peak}} = \frac{v_{y0}}{g}$$

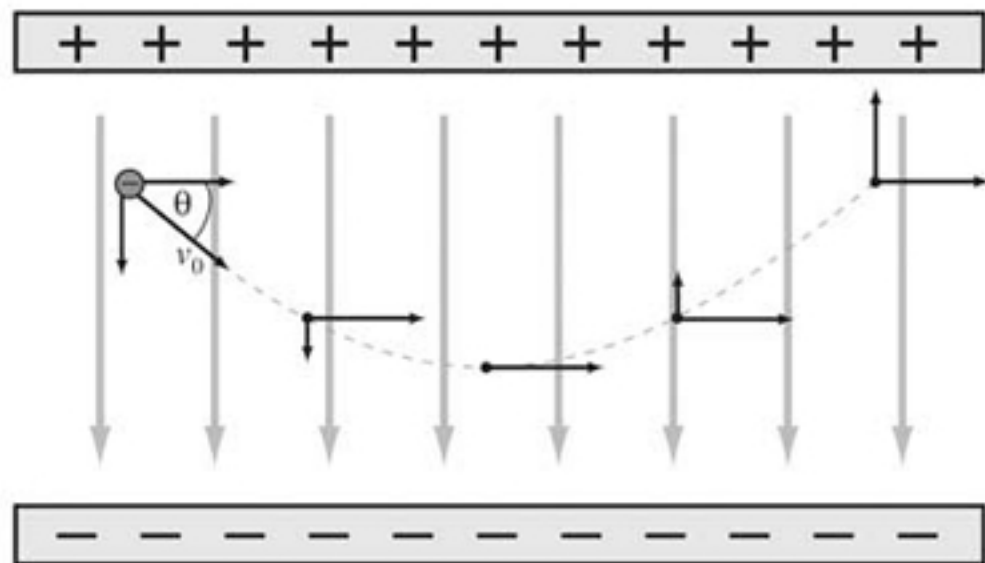
$$t_{\text{range}} = \frac{2v_{y0}}{g}$$

$$\Delta x = v_{x0} \left(\frac{2v_{y0}}{g} \right)$$

range

The shape of the path of projectile motion is a parabola.

A charged particle experiences constant acceleration within a region occupied by a uniform electric field. A negatively charged particle moves into a uniform electric field with an initial velocity at an angle, θ , to the electric field. What kind of kinematics results?

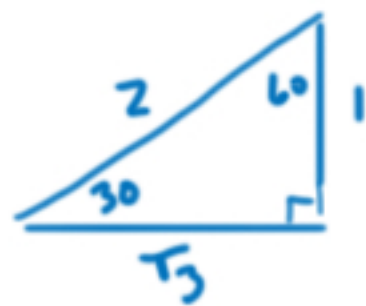


a. uniform circular motion

c. constant speed

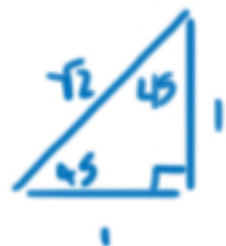
b. constant velocity

☒ d. parabolic motion

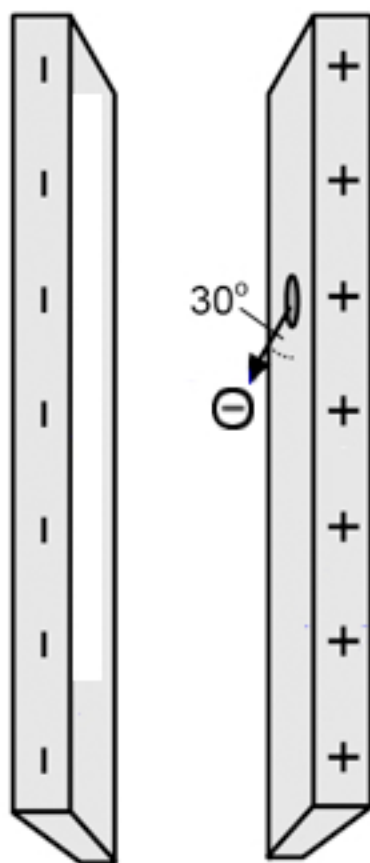


$$\sin 30^\circ = \cos 60^\circ = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\sin 60^\circ = \cos 30^\circ = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$



$$\sin 45^\circ = \cos 45^\circ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

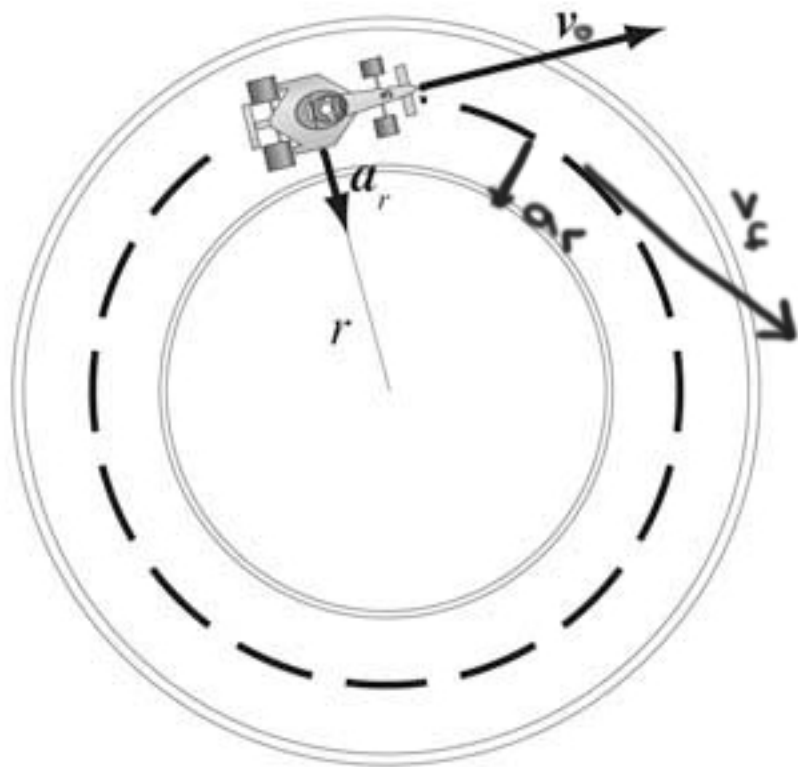
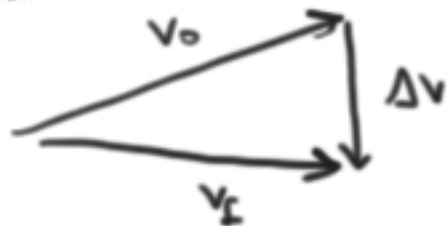


$$V_{\perp} = V_0 \sin 30^\circ$$

$$\sqrt{2} \sim 1.4 \quad \sqrt{3} \sim 1.7$$

Uniform Circular Motion

Constant speed on a circular path



$$a_r = \frac{v^2}{r} \quad F_r = \frac{mv^2}{r}$$

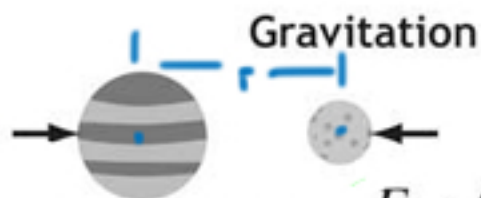
a_r = centripetal acceleration
 v = speed
 r = radius

Does centripetal force perform work?

• Because F_r is always \perp to displacement, it performs no work

The Classical Fundamental Forces

Twice the distance
→ $\frac{1}{4}$ the F



Gravitation

Gravitational force
between two masses

$$F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2}$$

inverse
square
law
force's

$$F = \frac{G M_1 m_2}{(2r)^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \frac{G m_1 m_2}{r^2}$$

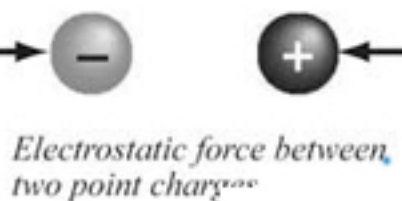
$$W = mg$$



Gravitational force on a mass within
the uniform gravitational field
on the earth's surface

Electromagnetism

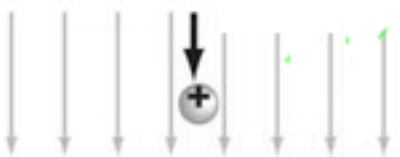
$$F = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$$



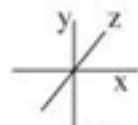
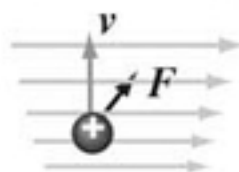
Electrostatic force between
two point charges

Electrostatic
Force

$$F = Eq$$

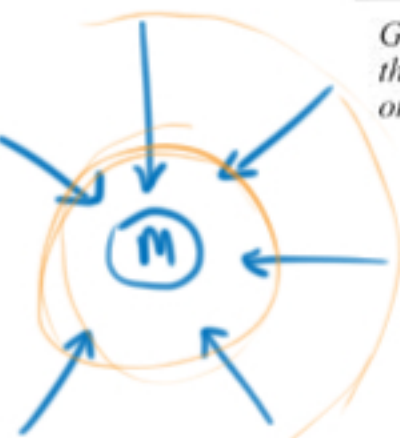


Electrostatic force on a point charge within
a uniform electric field



Magnetic force on a
point charge moving
through a magnetic field

$$F = qB v \sin \theta$$

Magnetic
Force

Newton's First Law

Law of inertia

An isolated object at rest will remain at rest. An object moving with uniform velocity will maintain that motion unless acted on by a net external force.

$$\Sigma F = 0 \quad \text{then } a = 0$$

Newton's Second Law

$$\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$$

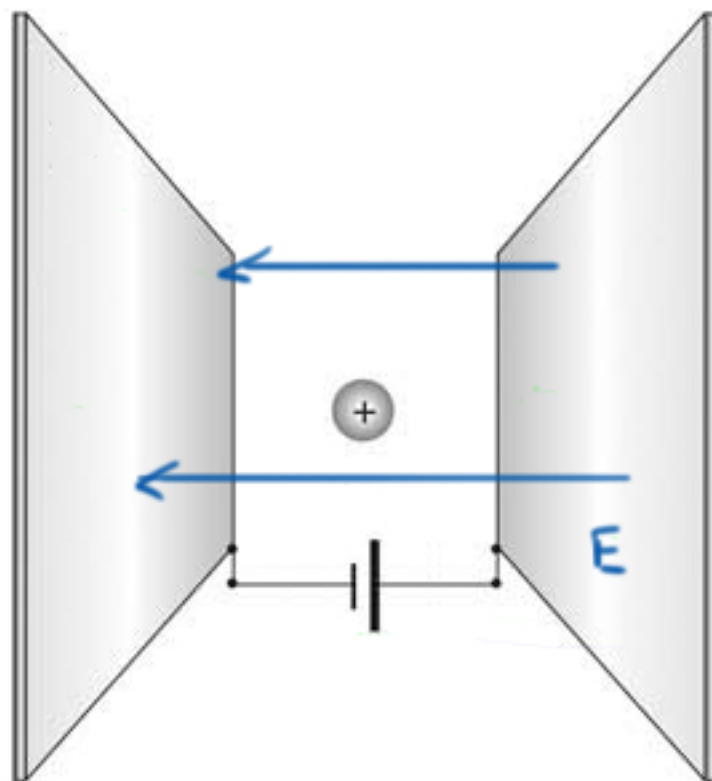


Newton's Third Law

$$\mathbf{F}_{12} = -\mathbf{F}_{21}$$

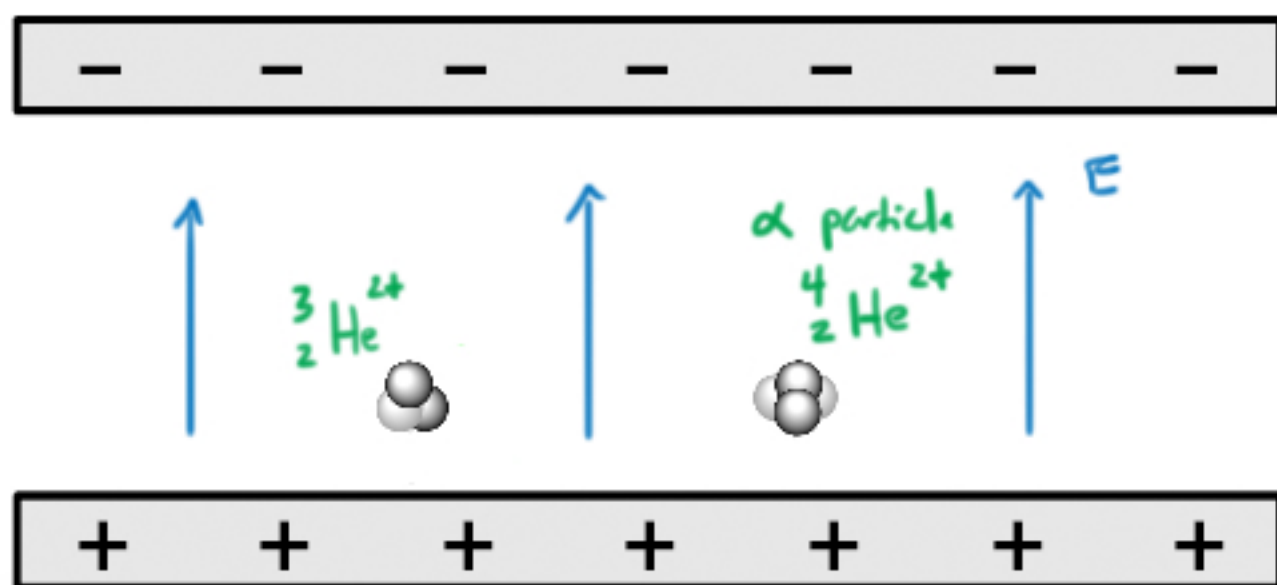
A motionless, 20 kg, positively charged sphere is suspended in a weightless environment. An externally applied electric field subjects the sphere to a 10 N force for 4 seconds. At the end of four seconds, what is the speed of the sphere?

- a. 0.08 m/s
- b. 0.5 m/s
- c. 2.0 m/s
- d. 8.0 m/s



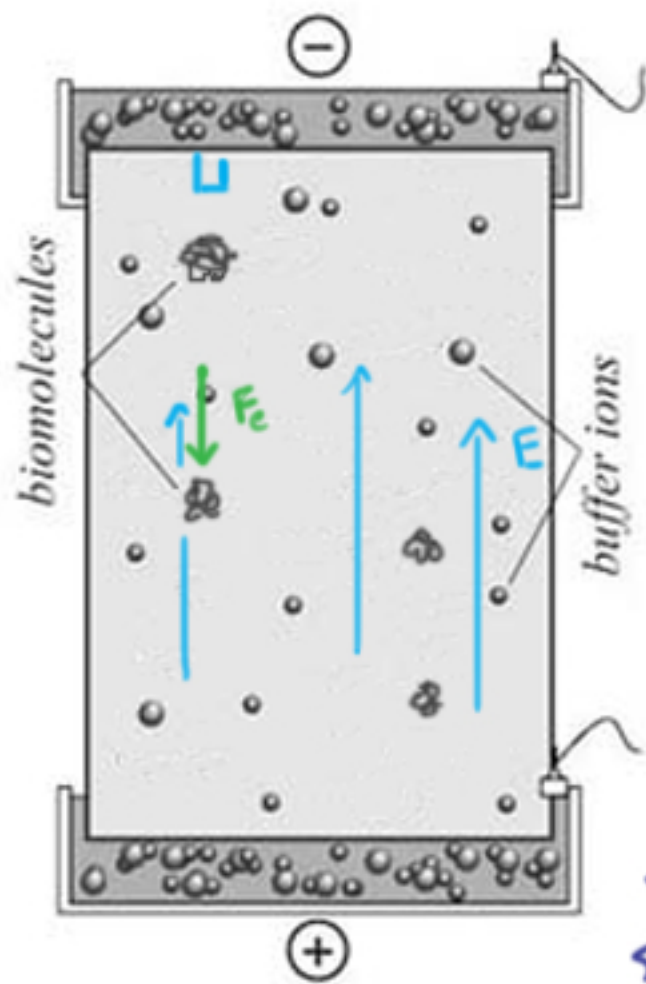
$$\begin{aligned}
 & \frac{10\text{ N}}{20\text{ kg}} \\
 & F = ma \\
 & 10\text{ N} = (20\text{ kg})(a) \\
 & a = 0.5\text{ m/s}^2 \\
 & \Delta v = a \Delta t \\
 & = (0.5\text{ m/s}^2)(4\text{ s}) \\
 & = 2\text{ m/s}
 \end{aligned}$$

${}^4_2\text{He}^{2+}$ and ${}^3_2\text{He}^{2+}$ are released from rest near the \oplus plate
Which strikes the far plate 1st?



$$F = Eq \quad \text{same force}$$

$$F = ma \quad \text{larger mass has lower } a.$$



SDS-PAGE polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
 Sodium dodecyl sulfate (detergent)



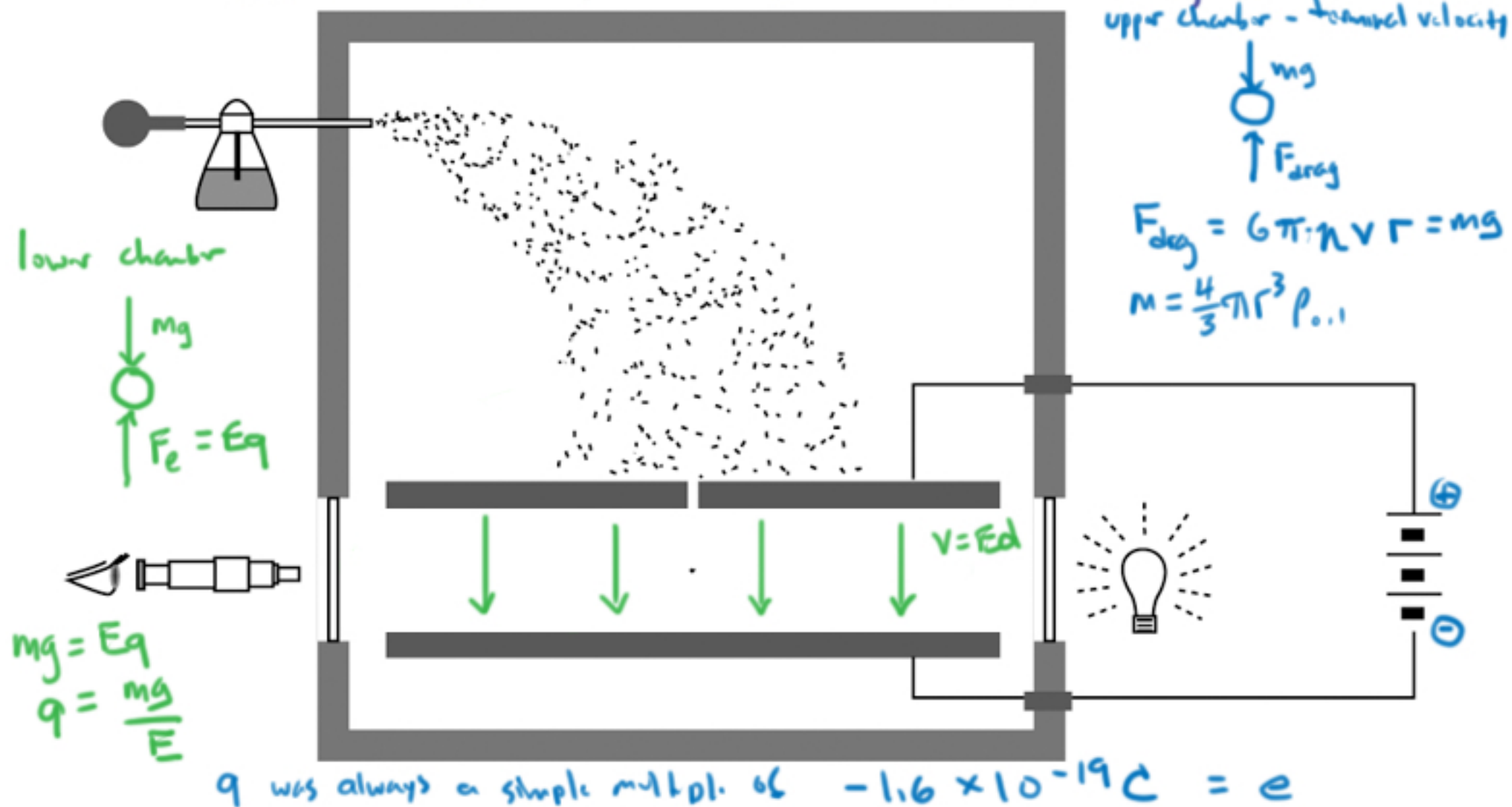
SDS coats proteins and gives them a uniform q/m ratio.



protein reaches a constant mobility
 This happens at a gel matrix
 Slower speed for bigger proteins.



Millikan Oil Drop - Determined e - charge of an electron



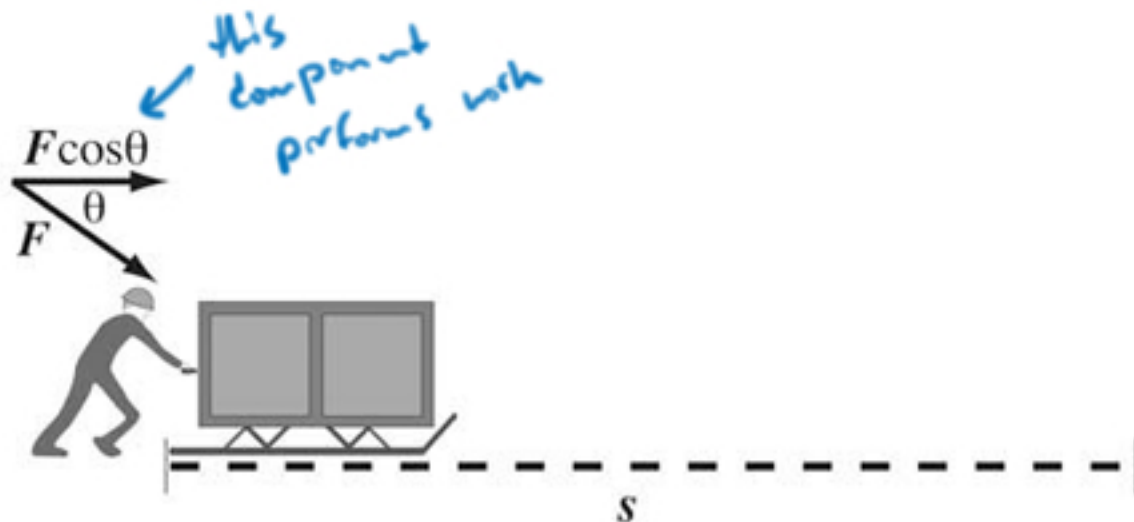
$$1 \text{ J} = \text{N} \cdot \text{m}$$

Mechanical Work

$$\text{Work} = \text{force} \cdot \text{distance}$$

$$W = (F \cos \theta)s$$

Work equals force parallel to the displacement times the displacement.



Kinetic Energy

$$\text{Work} = \Delta KE$$

$$K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

K = kinetic energy

m = mass

v = speed

KE is the work
invested in the motion
or the work required
to bring to rest.



*A jet with quadruple the mass
moving at half the speed of the
smaller jet possesses an equal
amount of kinetic energy.*

Potential Energy

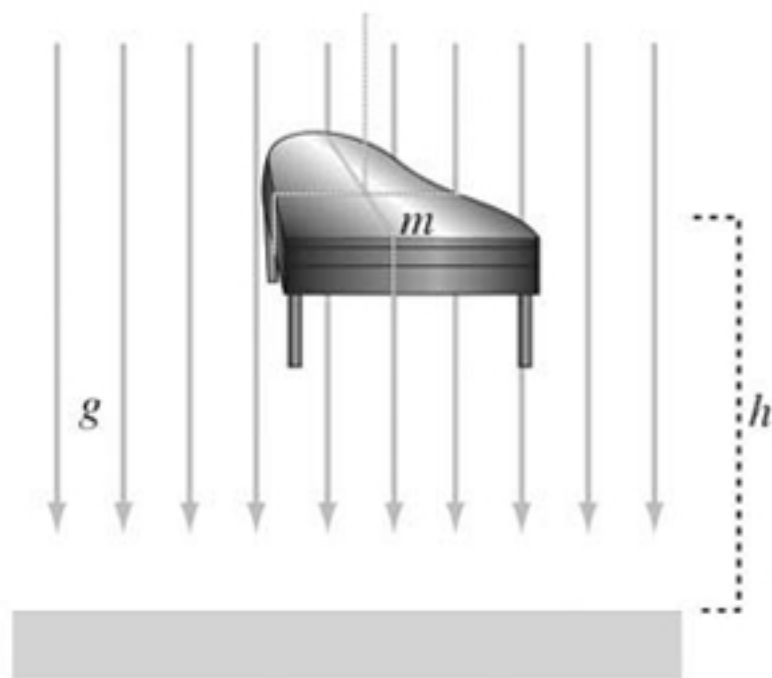
$$U = mgh$$

U = potential energy

m = mass

g = acceleration due to gravity (9.8 m/s²)

h = height



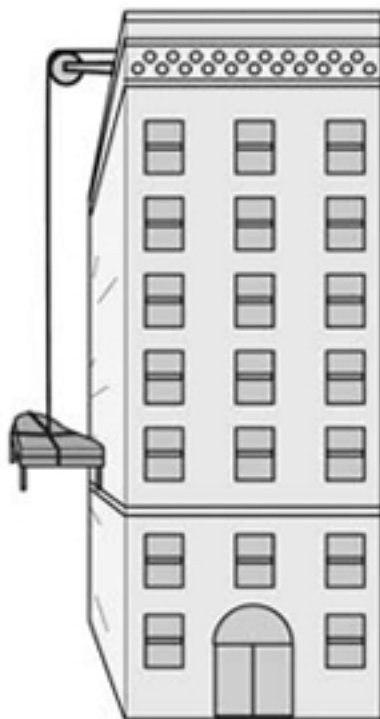
What is the minimum work required to raise a 500 kg piano from street level to a window at 20m elevation?

a. 10,000 J

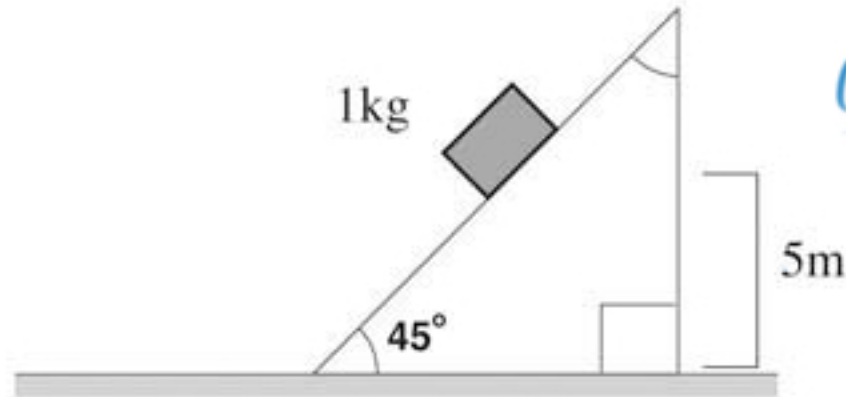
b. 25000 J

☒ c. 100,000 J

d. 2.0×10^5 J



A 1kg block is released from a vertical height of 5m to begin sliding down a frictionless 45° inclined plane. What is the speed of the block when it reaches the base of the plane?



$$PE_i = KE_f$$

$$(1\text{kg})(10\text{ m/s}^2)(5\text{m}) = \frac{1}{2}(1\text{kg})v^2$$

$$v^2 = 100\text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$$

$$v = 10\text{ m/s}$$

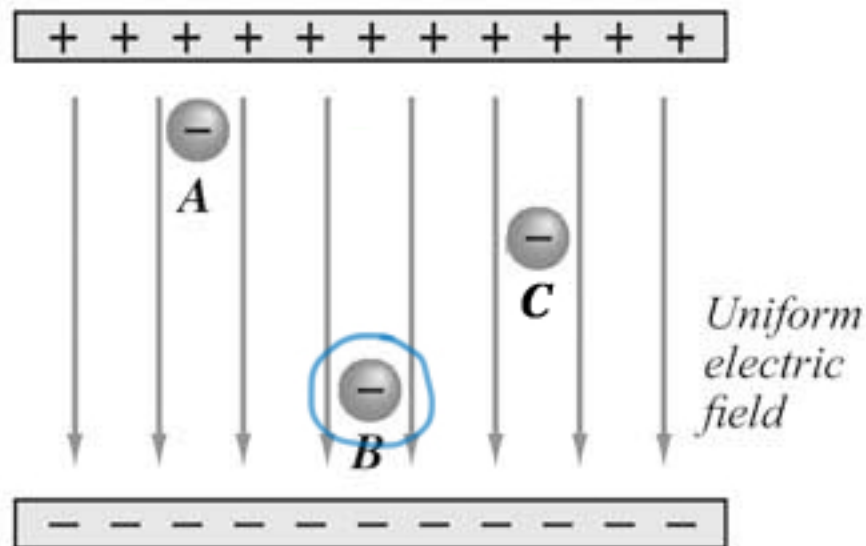
a. 1.7 m/s

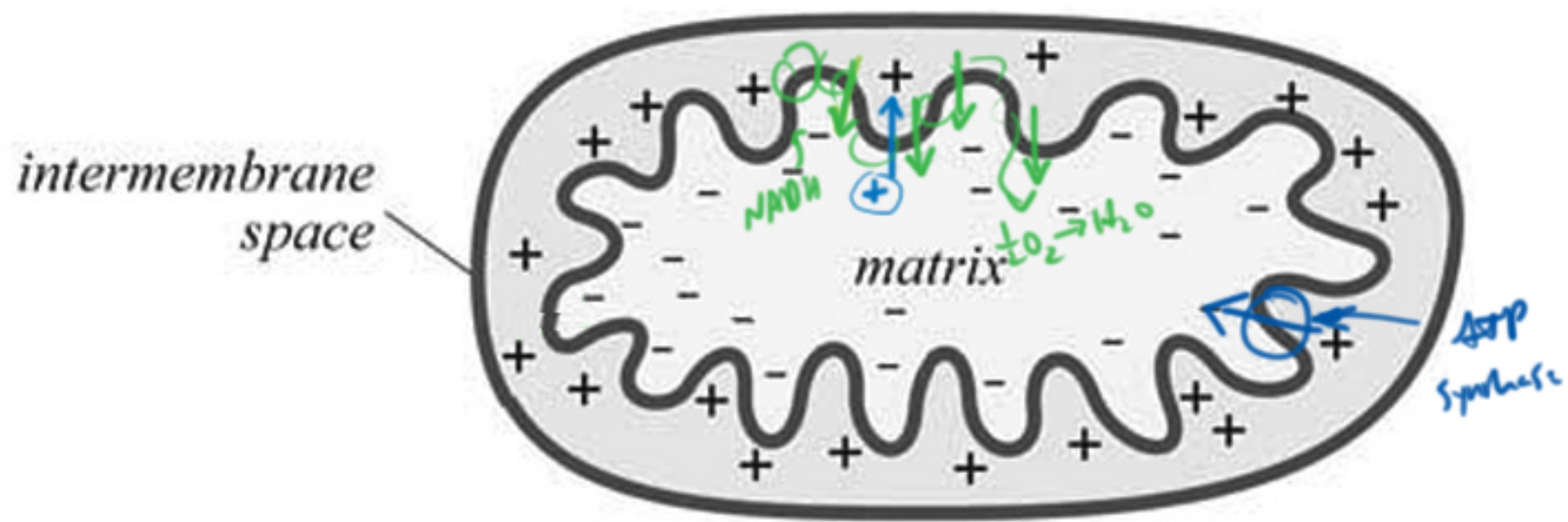
b. $(5)(\sqrt{2})$ m/s

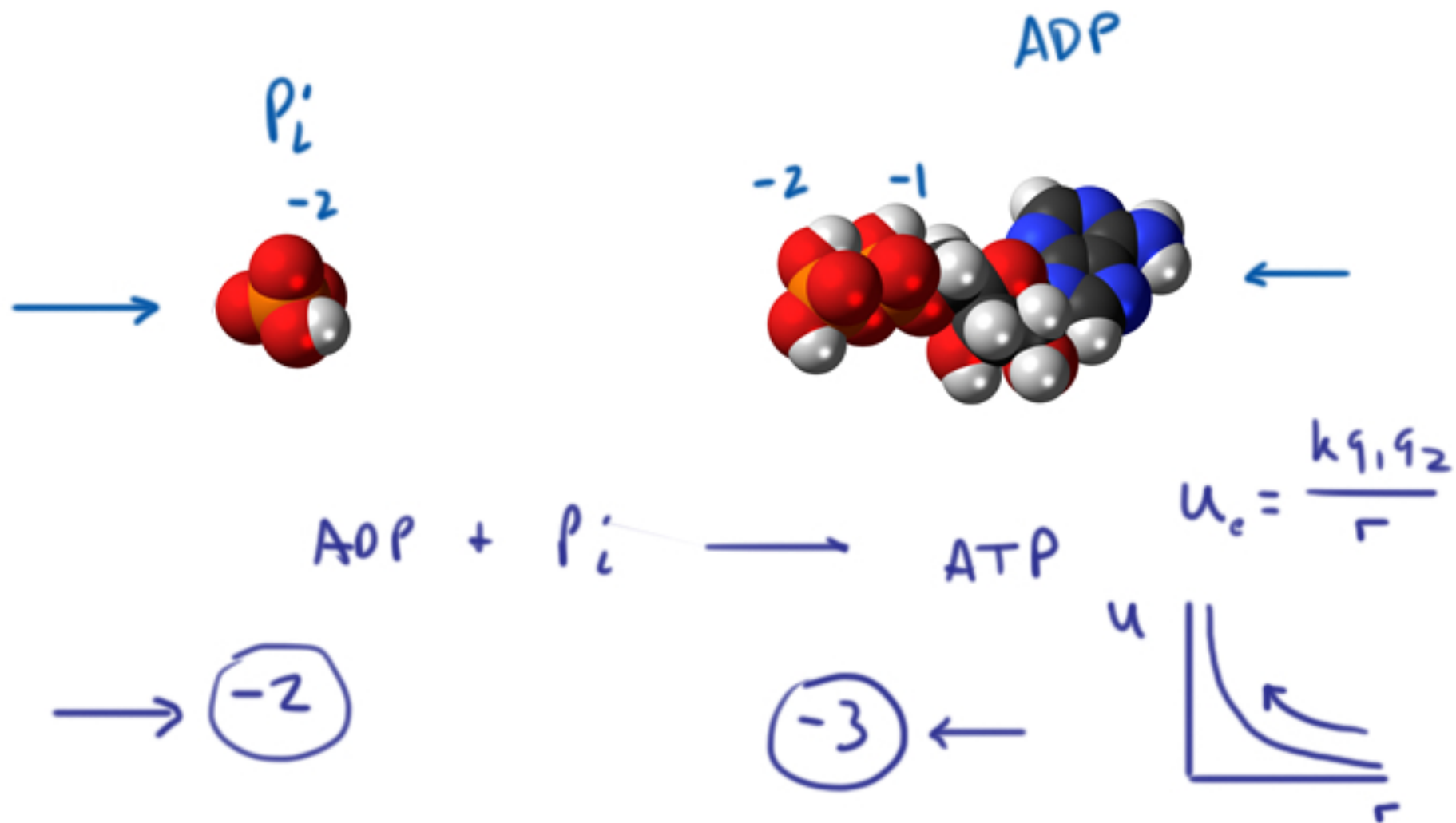
☒ c. 10 m/s

d. 45 m/s

Shown below are the locations of three electrons within the electric field between the plates of a parallel plate capacitor. If electric force from the plates is the only significant force on the particles, which electron has greater potential energy?







What is the kinetic energy of an electron entering the cathode ray tube shown below?

$$e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$$

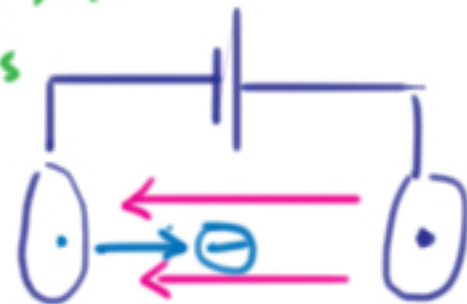
$$(2.5 \times 10^4 \text{ J/C})(1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}) = 4 \times 10^{-15} \text{ J}$$

We could also have said instead of $4 \times 10^{-15} \text{ J}$

25,000 eV \leftarrow 1 eV - the work 1 V does on a single e^-

$$1 \text{ V} = \text{J/C}$$

25,000 V \leftarrow means $25,000 \text{ J/C}$



25,000 V



$$1 \text{ eV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

$$q_A = q_B$$

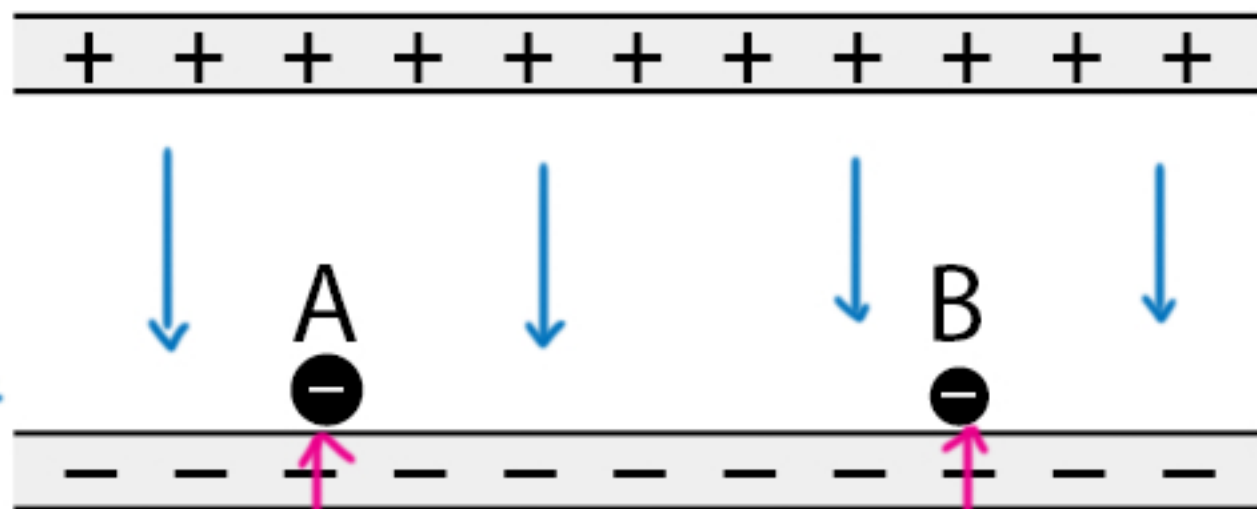
$$M_A = 4M_B$$

$$\frac{1}{2} M_A V_A^2 = \frac{1}{2} M_B V_B^2$$

$$KE = \frac{1}{2} m v^2$$

$$\frac{V_A}{V_B} = \sqrt{\frac{M_B}{M_A}}$$

Four times the
mass means
half the speed.



F_e

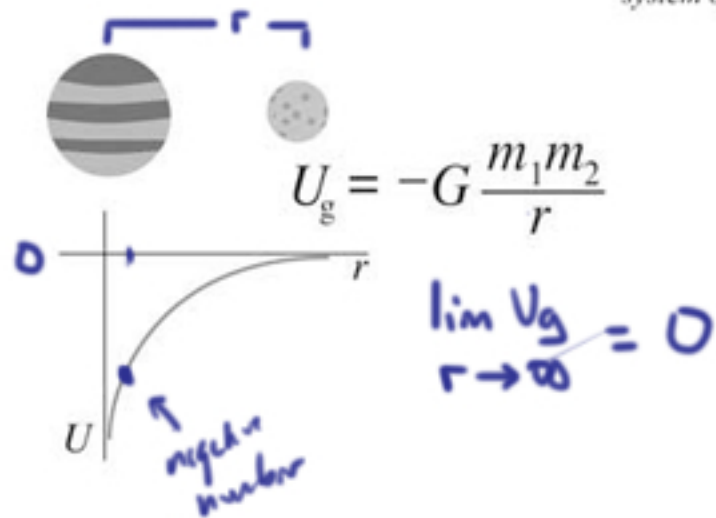
$F = Eq$
same force
same work

$$\Delta KE = \text{work}$$

Which strikes with greater
kinetic energy? or is
it the same?

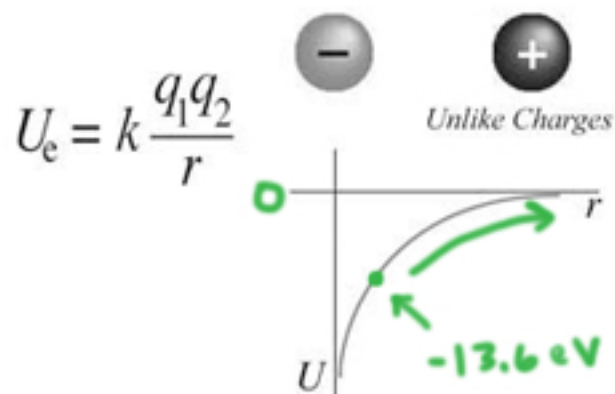
Gravitational and Electrostatic Potential Energy

system of two masses or two point charges

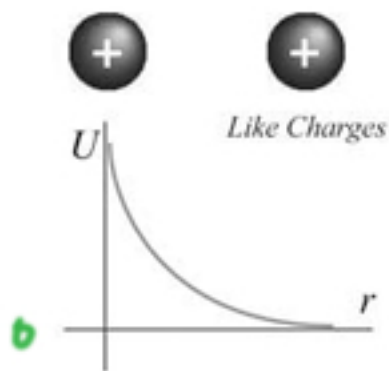


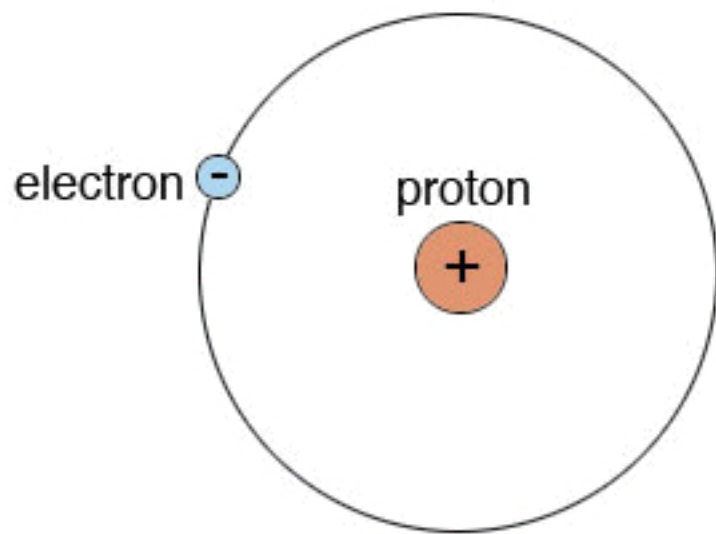
$$\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} U_g = 0$$

the well of gravitational binding energy.



Modeling ionization of hydrogen

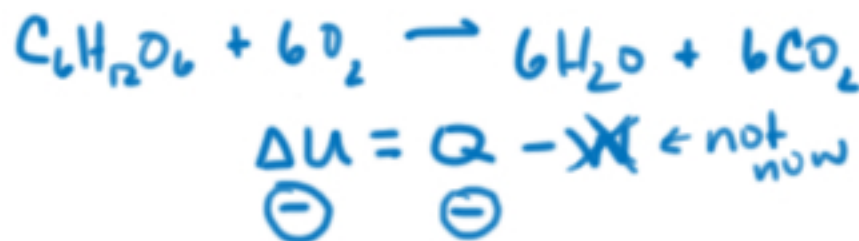




While classical physics
is a crucial heuristic
for chemistry, remember
that the atom is
a quantum
electrodynamics system

Which of the following occurs with an increase in electrostatic potential energy?

- ☒ A. A gaseous sodium ion captures an electron.
- ☒ B. Negative charges introduced at a point on a neutral metal sphere spreads over its surface area with uniform distribution.
- ☒ C. One glucose molecule reacts with six molecules of oxygen to form six molecules of carbon dioxide and six molecules of water.
- ☒ D. A globular polypeptide unfolds from its native configuration in high temperature conditions.



Fluid Mechanics

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V}$$

ρ = density

m = mass

V = volume

*Density is the mass
per unit volume*

Density

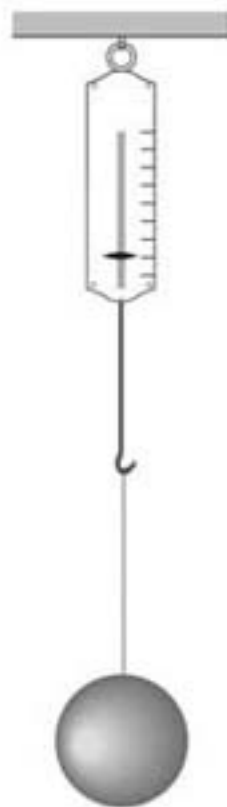
SI units - $\frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3}$

$$\rho_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = \frac{1000 \text{ kg}}{\text{m}^3}$$

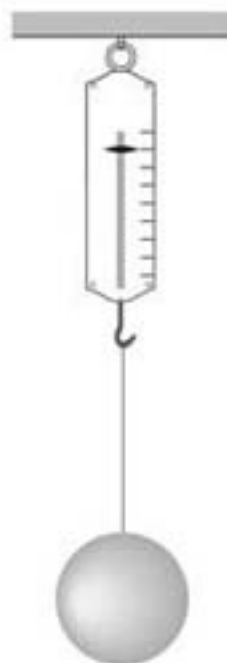
$$= \frac{1 \text{ g}}{\text{cm}^3} = \frac{1 \text{ g}}{\text{cc}}$$

$$= \frac{1 \text{ g}}{\text{mL}}$$

$$= \frac{1 \text{ kg}}{\text{L}}$$



higher density



lower density

*specific gravity - ratio of an
object's density to the density
of water.*

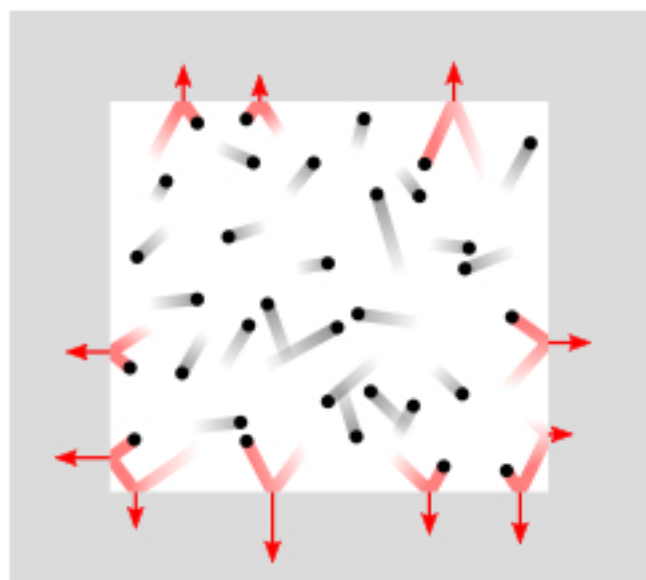
Pressure

$$P = \frac{F}{A}$$

P = pressure

F = force

A = area



$$1 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}^2} = 1 \text{ Pascal}$$

$$1 \text{ atm} = 101,000 \text{ Pa}$$
$$1 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}$$

← exactly
1 bar

$$= 760 \text{ mm Hg}$$

$$= 760 \text{ torr}$$

Pressure Increases with Depth

$$P = P_a + \rho gh$$

density

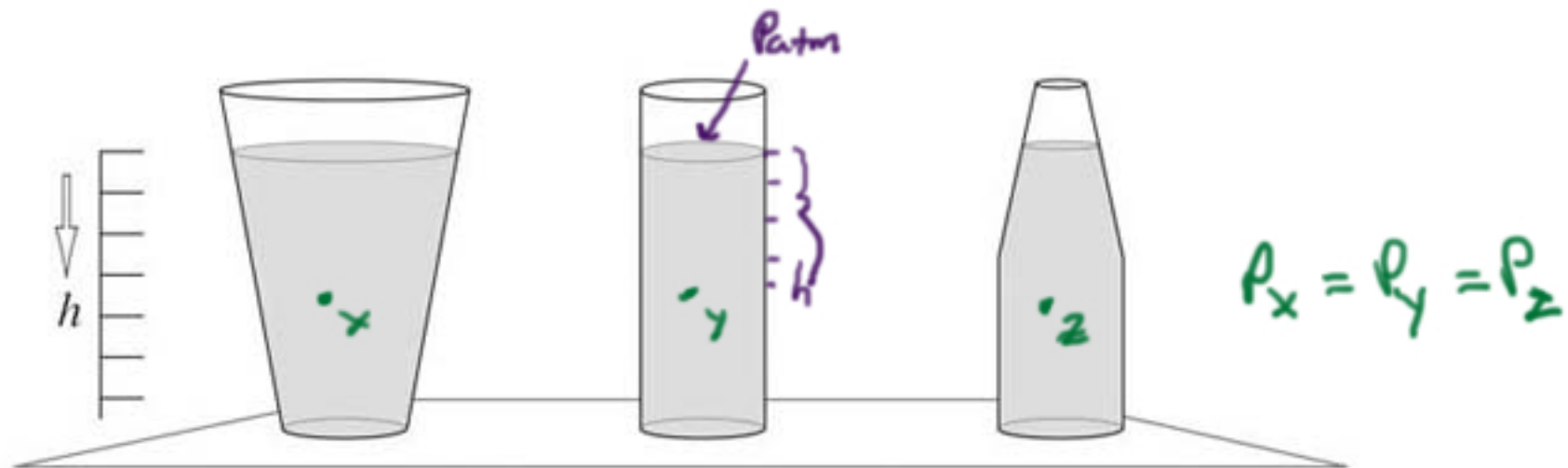
P = pressure

P_a = atmospheric pressure

ρ = density

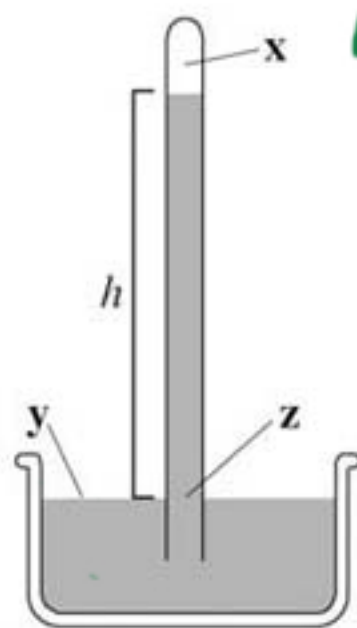
g = acceleration due to gravity (10m/s^2)

h = depth



Pressure is independent of the shape and size of the container.

With the common mercury barometer pictured at right, the atmospheric pressure is equal to the product of ρgh (ρ is the density of mercury). Which of the following is not always true with regard to this device when it is accurately measuring atmospheric pressure?



$P_x \sim \text{vacuum}$

$$P_z = P_y$$

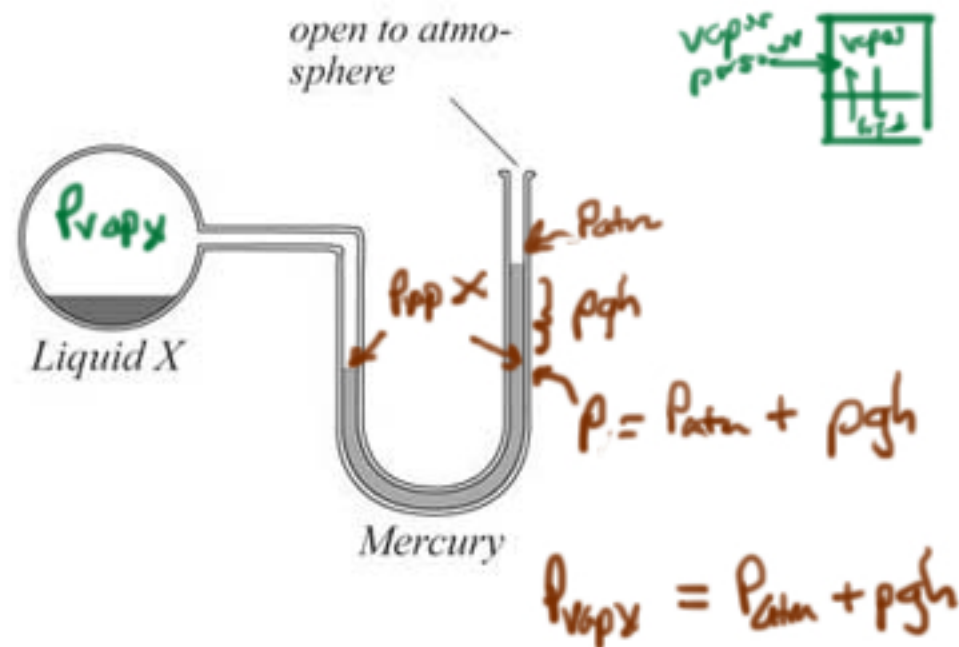
$$P_y = P_{\text{atm}}$$

$$P_z = \rho g h$$

$$P_{\text{atm}} = \rho g h$$

- ☒ a. P_x is very nearly a vacuum
- ☒ b. $P_y = P_z$
- ☒ c. $P_y = P_{\text{atm}}$
- ☐ d. $P_y = 760 \text{ torr}$

After adding a 50 ml sample of *Liquid X* to the vacuum bulb at right, it was observed to boil within the bulb. After a time, the system reached the state shown at right, the boiling having ceased. Assume that the vapor pressure of mercury at this temperature is nearly zero (pressure of the gaseous phase above its liquid phase) what can we conclude from the experiment?



- The density of *Liquid X* is greater than the density of mercury.
- Liquid X* possesses implausible properties.
- ☒ The vapor pressure of *Liquid X* at room temperature is higher than atmospheric pressure.
- The bouyancy of *Liquid X* is greater than the bouyancy of mercury.

Pascal's Law

$$\frac{F_a}{A_a} = \frac{F_b}{A_b}$$

F = force
 A = area

simple machines multiply
force but not work

(at 95%)

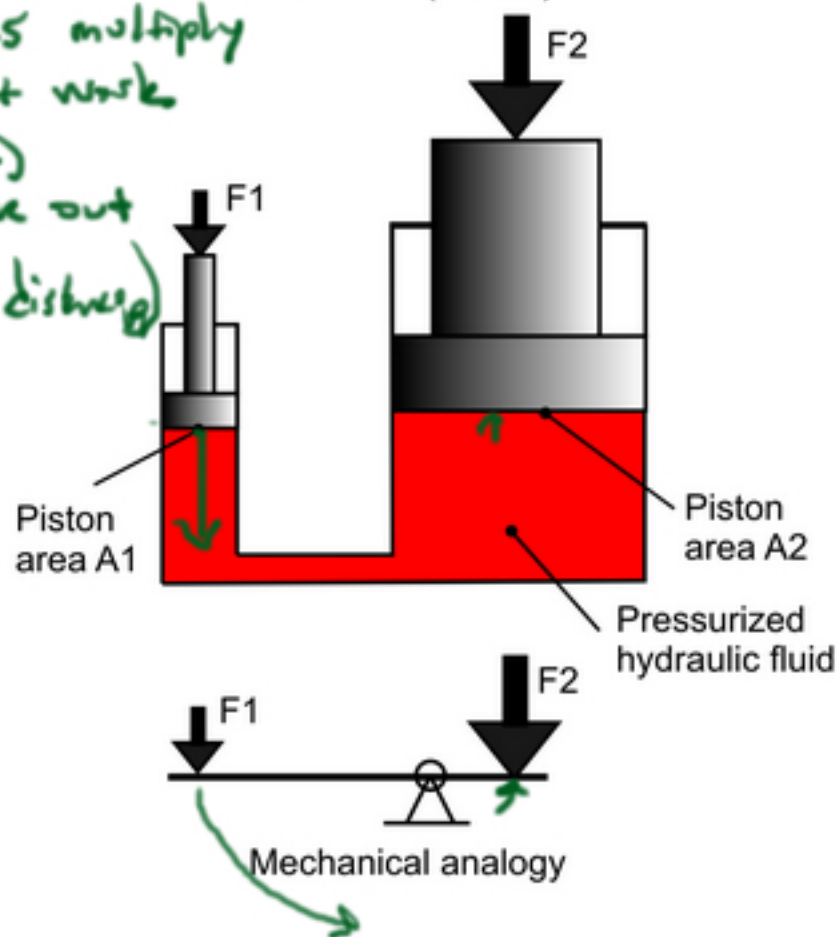
work in = work out

(force_A)(distance_A) = (force_B)(distance_B)

Pascal's Law states that an increase in the pressure on one of the surfaces enclosing a fluid will be transmitted as an undiminished increase in pressure to all parts of the fluid. This means for our hydraulic press at right that one hundred newtons exerting over one square meter, can hold up four hundred newtons over four square meters.

Force increase with hydraulics

$$F_2 = F_1 \cdot (A_2/A_1)$$



Specific gravity = $\frac{W_{air}}{W_{air} - W_{submerged}}$

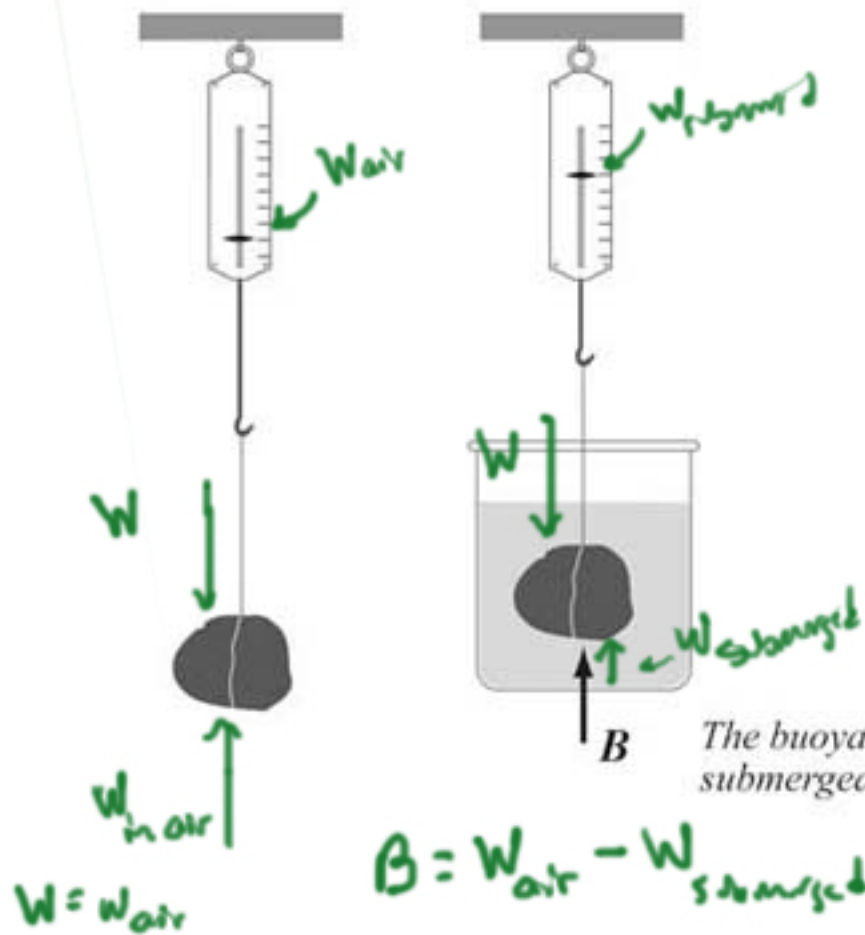
Archimedes' Principle

$$B = W_{\text{fluid displaced}}$$

B = Buoyant Force

$W_{\text{fluid displaced}}$ = weight of fluid displaced

- Submerged object -
volume of object \rightarrow volume of water
 \rightarrow mass of water \rightarrow weight = B
- floating object
start with force equilibrium



A bar of lead has the dimensions $2 \times 3 \times 5 \text{ cm}^3$ and mass 330 g. What is the specific gravity of lead?

- A. 1
- B. 10
- ☒ C. 11
- D. cannot be determined from given information

$\rho?$

$$\frac{330 \text{ g}}{30 \text{ cm}^3} = 11 \text{ g/cm}^3$$

If the bar of lead were submerged in water, what would be the apparent loss of weight on the bar?

- A. 300 N
- B. 1 N
- ☒ C. 0.3 N
- D. 1/11 N

apparent loss of weight
means buoyant force.

displaces $30 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ H}_2\text{O}$
 $= 30 \text{ g H}_2\text{O} = 0.03 \text{ kg}$

$$W = mg = 0.3 \text{ N}$$

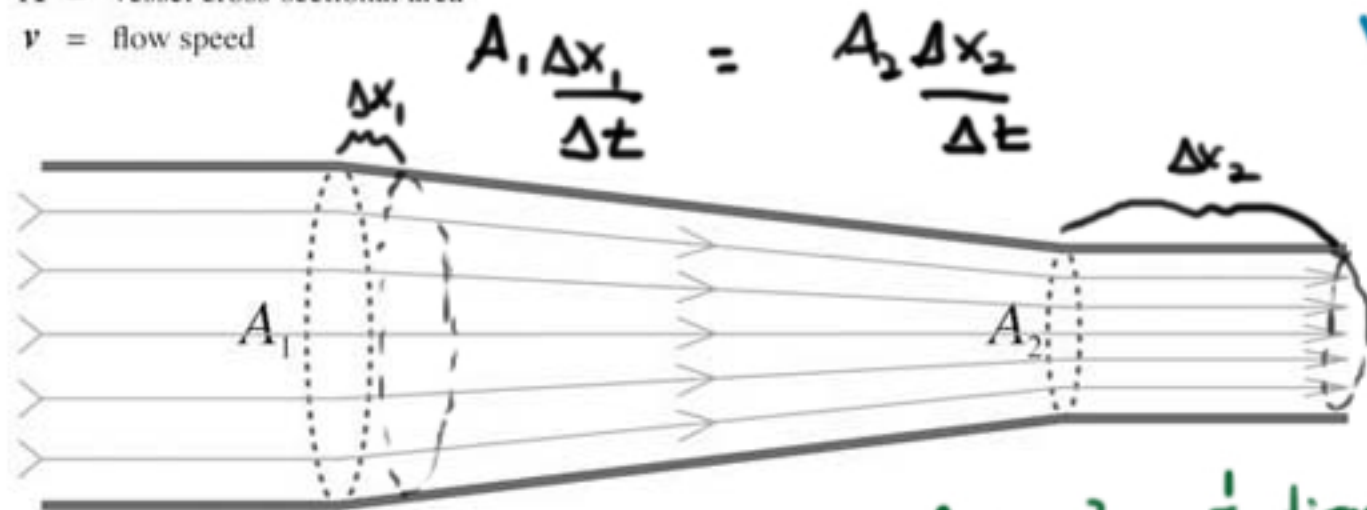
Continuity of Volume Flux

$$A_1 v_1 = A_2 v_2 = \text{constant}$$

↑ flow speed

A = vessel cross-sectional area

v = flow speed



Ideal Fluid

- incompressible
- only laminar flow
- no viscosity

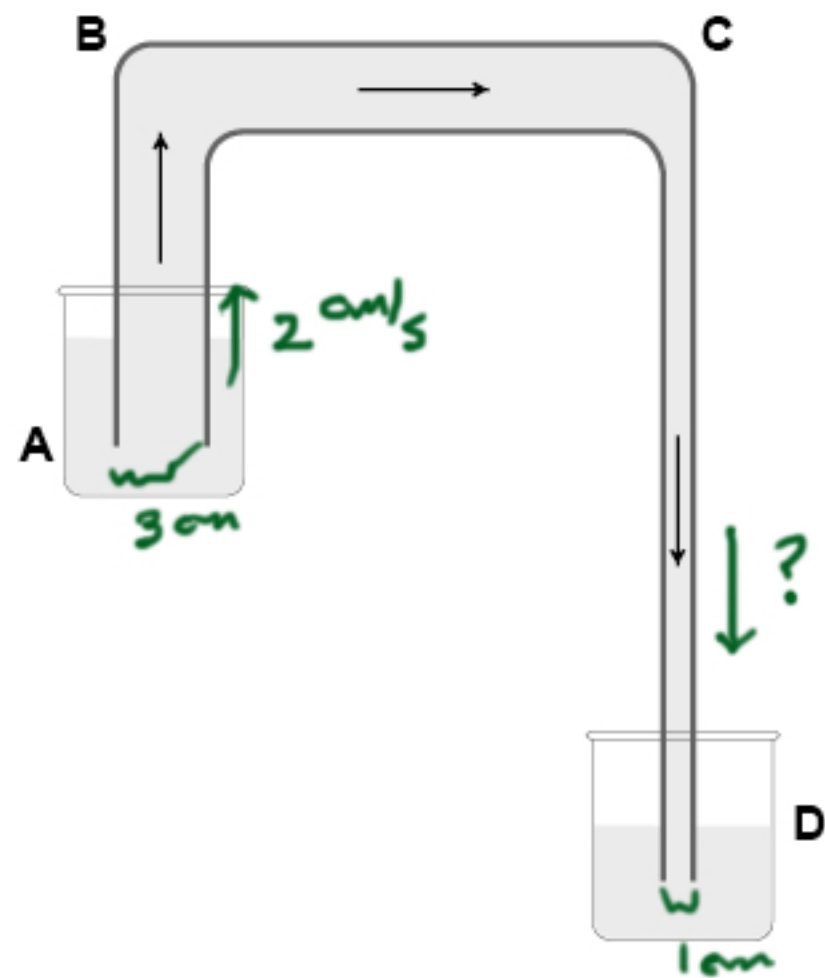
Volume Flux = $\frac{\text{volume}}{\text{time}}$

$$\frac{\text{gal}}{\text{s}} \quad \frac{\text{m}^3}{\text{s}}$$

$$\text{Volume Flux} = Q = Av$$

$$A = \pi r^2 \quad \frac{1}{2} \text{ diameter} = 4 \text{ times flow speed}$$

In the flow of an ideal fluid, the rate at which fluid volume moves through the vessel (volume flux) is the same everywhere along the pipe. Where vessel diameter is narrowest, the flow speed is greatest.



The diameter of tube segment AB is 3 cm. The diameter of tube segment CD is 1 cm. When the flow speed through AB is 2 cm/s, what will the flow speed be through CD?

- A. 6 cm/s
- ☒ B. 18 cm/s
- C. 9 cm/s
- D. 15 cm/s

$$A_1 v_1 = A_2 v_2$$

$$A = \pi r^2$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{3}r\right)^2 = \frac{1}{9}r^2$$

$$\frac{1}{3} \text{ radius} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{9} \text{ area}$$

conservation of
energy / volume element Bernoulli's Equation

$$P + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 + \rho g y = \text{constant}$$

↑
pressure

P = pressure

ρ = density

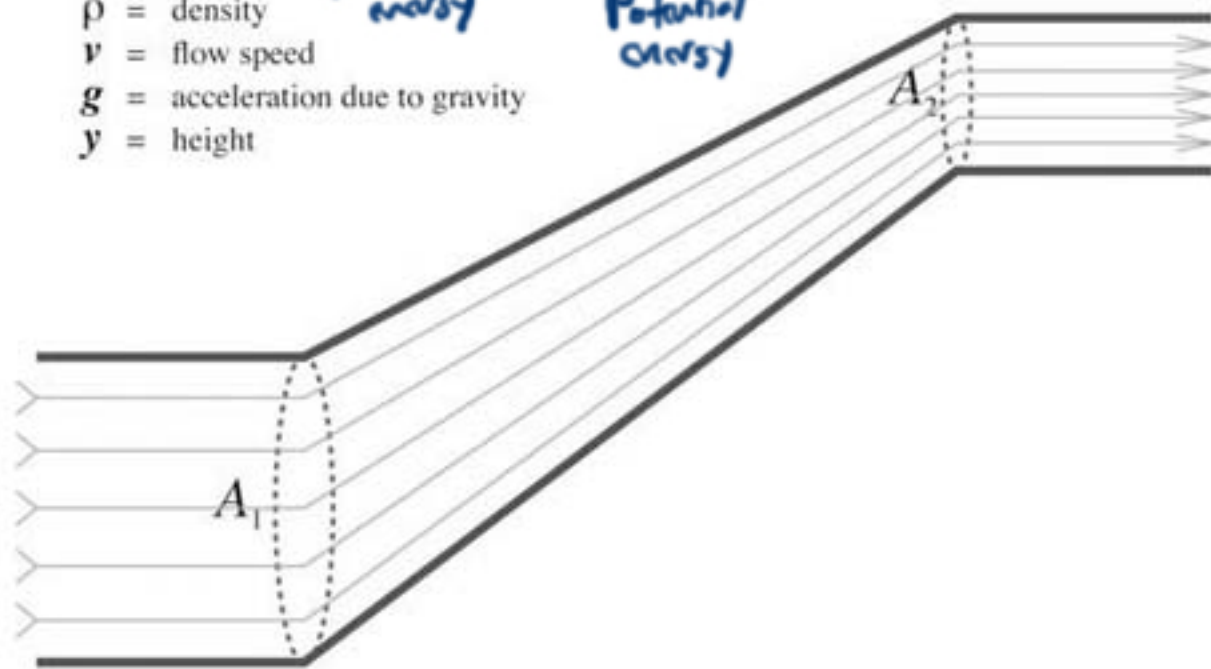
v = flow speed

g = acceleration due to gravity

y = height

↑
Kinetic
energy

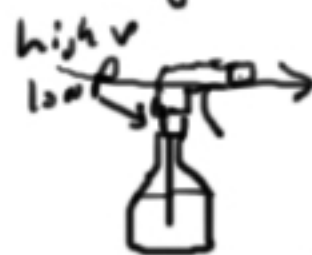
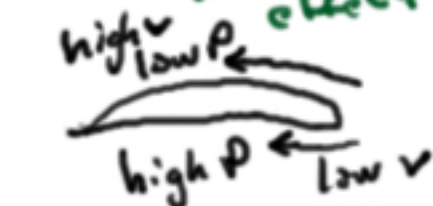
↑
Potential
energy



By far the most common
problem - level flow
where interchange between
 P and $\frac{1}{2}\rho v^2$

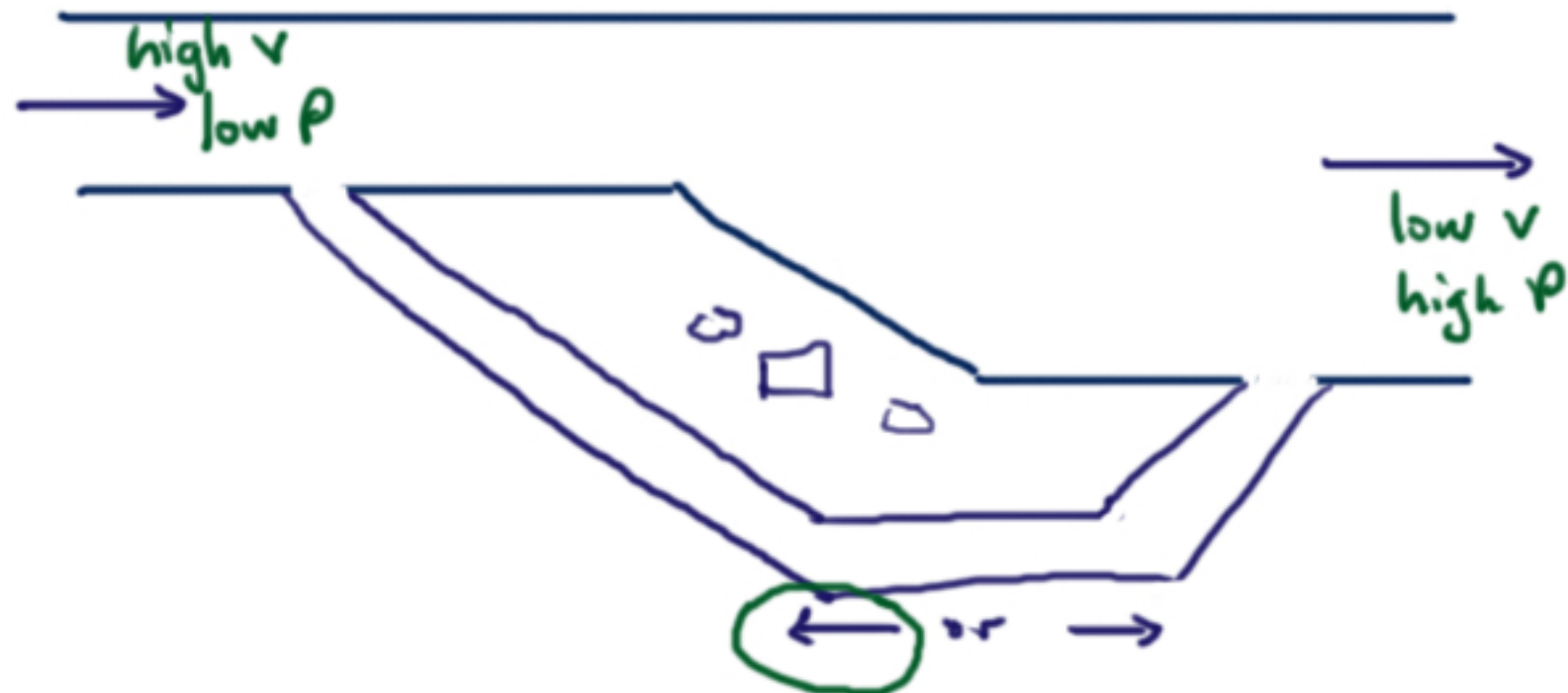
Where flow speed is
high, pressure is low

↑ Venturi
effect



$$A_1 v_1 = A_2 v_2$$

$$P + \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 + \rho g y = \text{constant}$$



canals - uniform depth
bird's eye view

An aneurysm is caused by the weakening of the arterial wall where a bulge occurs and the cross-section of a vessel increases considerably. At the cross-section of an aneurysm



- A. flow velocity will be reduced and the pressure will be reduced
- B. flow velocity will be reduced and the pressure will increase**
- C. flow velocity will increase and the pressure will be reduced
- D. flow velocity will increase and the pressure will increase

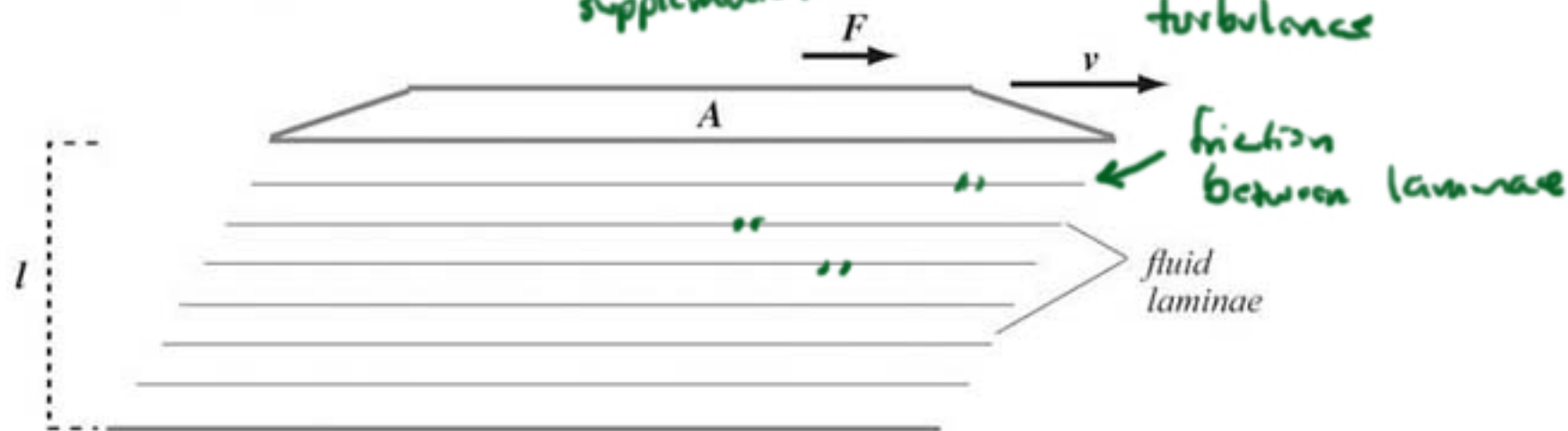
Real Fluids

Viscosity

η = viscosity
 F = shearing force
 A = sheared area
 v = sliding speed
 l = fluid thickness

$$\eta = \frac{F/A}{v/l}$$

↑
supplemental



• Viscosity leads to resistance to flow
(Poiseuille's Law)

• Viscosity opposes turbulence

The figure above shows laminae, or layers of liquid, between two surfaces. The more viscous the fluid, the larger the shearing force required for the top surface to slide past the bottom surface at a given speed. Viscosity reflects friction between the laminae, or fluid layers.



The Causes of Turbulent Flow

$$RN = \frac{\rho v d}{\eta}$$

RN = Reynolds number

ρ = fluid density

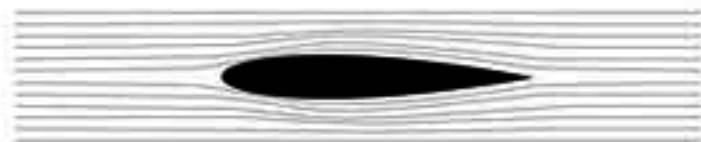
v = flow speed

d = geometrical property of the flow
(diameter of obstruction, pipe width)

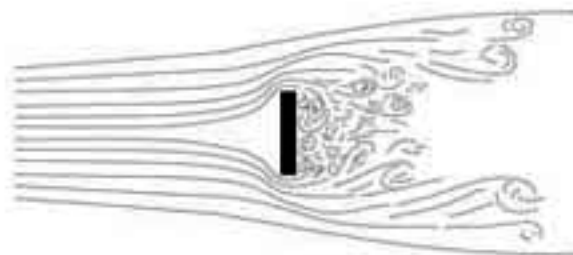
η = viscosity

$RN > 3000$

turbulence is
likely

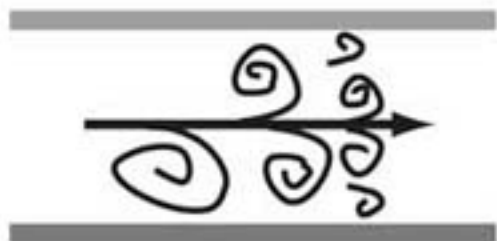


laminar (streamline) flow
(low Reynolds number)



turbulent flow
(high Reynolds number)

Most blood flow is remarkably free of turbulence, although, under both normal or abnormal conditions, turbulence may occur in certain areas of the circulatory system. Which of the following would be most likely to directly contribute to turbulence?



$$RN = \frac{\rho v d}{\eta}$$

$$A_1 v_1 = A_2 v_2 = Q$$

- ☒ a. decreased cardiac output
- ☒ b. increased blood viscosity
- ☒ c. localized narrowing of an arterial vessel
- ☐ d. decrease in blood density

Poiseuille's Law

$$Q = \frac{\Delta P \pi r^4}{8 \eta l}$$

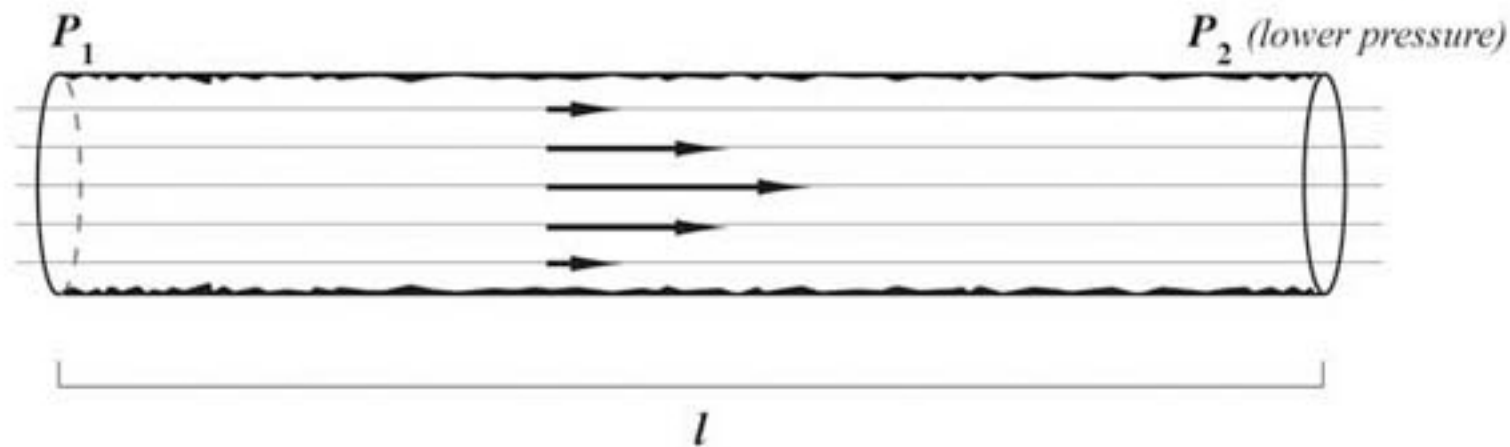
Q = volume flux
 ΔP = change in pressure
 r = pipe or vessel radius
 η = viscosity
 l = pipe or vessel length

ΔP is effort



2) What leads to a big ΔP ?
Viscous dissipation
small r , big η

ΔP as cause



2 ways
to look
at this

1) What leads to high Q (volume flux)
 $\frac{\Delta P}{l}$ big pressure gradient
 r^4 large vessel
 η low viscosity

With the plunger exerting the same negative pressure, the total time required to draw 10ml of blood through a syringe with a needle having half the length and half the diameter would be

- A. 1/2 as long
- B. the same
- ☒ C. 8 times longer
- D. 32 times longer

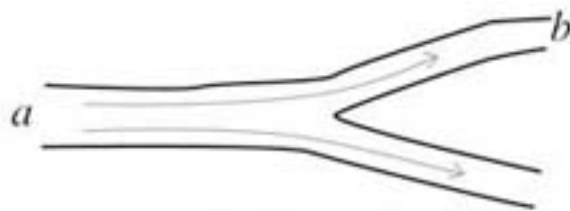
$$Q = \frac{\Delta P \pi r^4}{8 \eta l}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} l \Rightarrow 2 \times Q$$

$$\frac{1}{2} r \Rightarrow \frac{1}{16} \times Q$$

$$\frac{1}{8} Q$$

A large artery branches into two smaller arteries, each with 50% of the radius of the larger. Since all blood flowing into the junction enters the smaller arteries, the volume flux within the larger must be twice the volume flux through either of the smaller.



$$Q = \frac{\Delta P \pi r^4}{8 \eta l}$$

$$r_b = \frac{1}{2} r_a$$

Thus, from Poiseuille's Law:

$$\frac{\Delta P_a r_a^4}{l_a} = \frac{2 \Delta P_b r_b^4}{l_b}$$

$$\frac{\Delta P_a}{l_a} = \frac{1}{8} \frac{\Delta P_b}{l_b} \frac{Q}{\Delta P}$$

Poiseuille's Law

Q = volume flux
 ΔP = change in pressure
 r = vessel radius
 η = viscosity
 l = vessel length

$$\frac{\Delta P}{l}$$

Which follows from this relationship?

- a. Pressure drop per unit length is much greater in a small artery than in the large.
- b. Pressure drop per unit length is double in the large artery vs. the small.
- c. Total flow speed in the small arteries equals total flow speed in the large.
- d. Pressure drop per unit length is double in the small artery vs. the large.

The answer is **a**

Because of the extreme effect of the decreasing radius on viscous dissipation as described by Poiseuille's Law, decreasing the radius causes a very large increase in the pressure drop per unit length.

In our example, if we substitute $(0.5)r_a$ for r_b :

$$\frac{\Delta P_a r_a^4}{l_a} = \frac{2\Delta P_b r_b^4}{l_b}$$

$$\frac{\Delta P_a r_a^4}{l_a} = \frac{2\Delta P_b (0.5 r_a)^4}{l_b}$$

$$\frac{\Delta P_a}{l_a} = \frac{1}{8} \frac{\Delta P_b}{l_b}$$

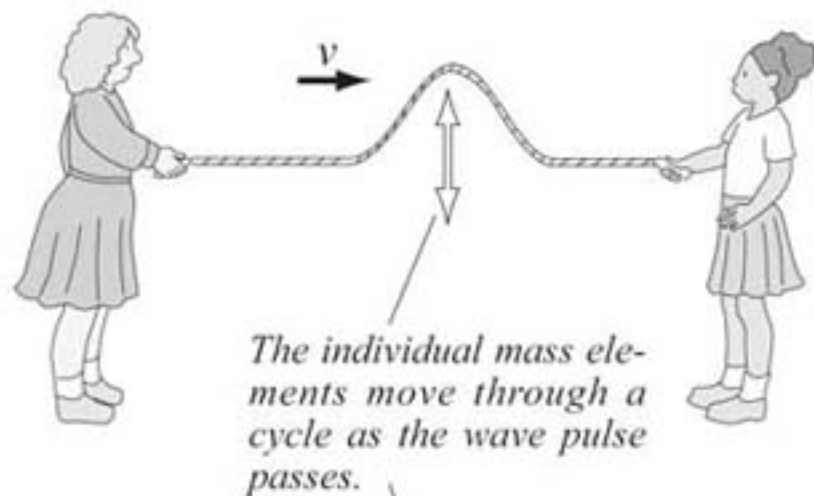
A MAJOR CONSEQUENCE OF POISEUILLE'S LAW IS THAT IN THE CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM, THE NARROW VESSELS ARE MUCH SHORTER. IF NOT, THERE WOULDN'T BE PRESSURE REMAINING AFTER BLOOD FLOWS THROUGH THE CAPILLARIES FOR IT TO RETURN TO THE HEART.



Waves

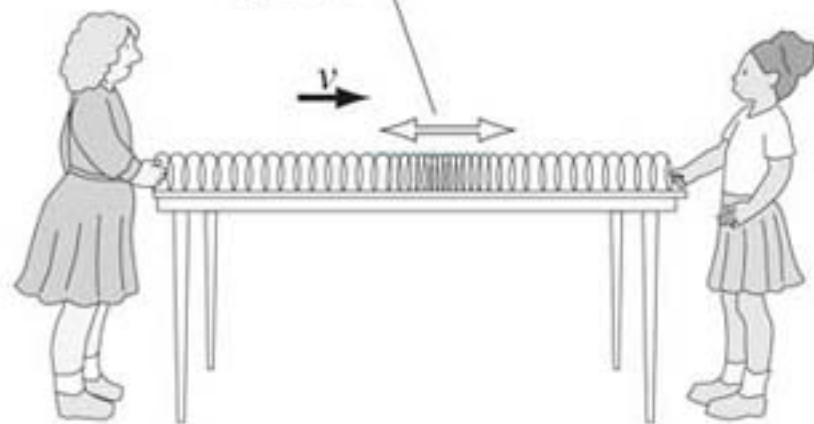


Transverse and Longitudinal Waves



A transverse pulse. If the displacements associated with wave disturbances move in a direction perpendicular to wave motion, the wave is transverse.

electromagnetic waves



A longitudinal pulse. If the displacements associated with wave disturbances move in a direction parallel to wave velocity, the wave is longitudinal.

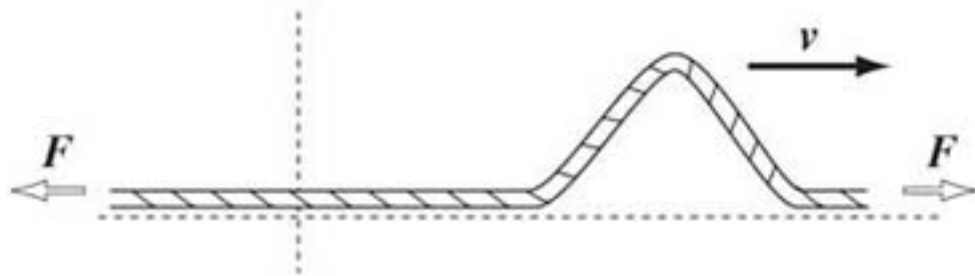
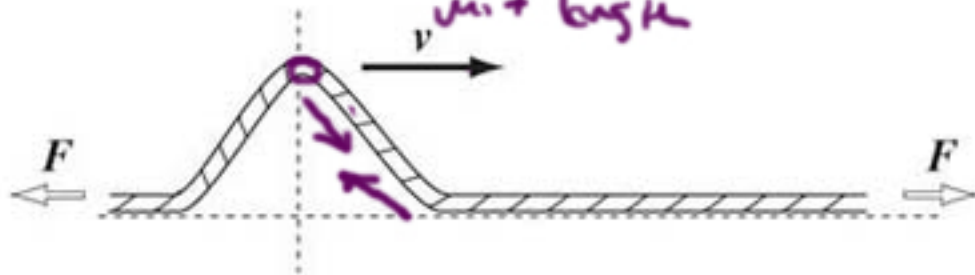
sound waves

Speed of a Wave on a Stretched String

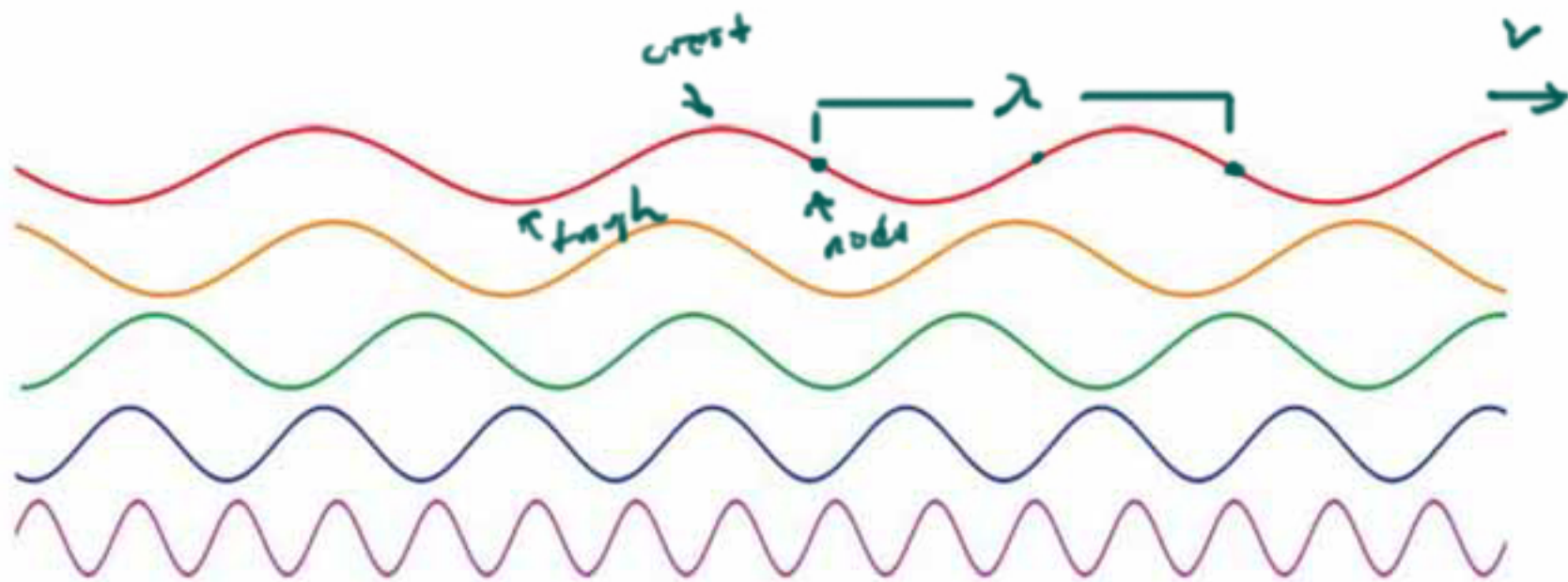
$$v = \sqrt{\frac{F}{\mu}}$$

tension (pointing to F)
mass/unit length (pointing to μ)

v = wave speed
 F = tension
 μ = mass per unit length



Harmonic Waves Repeat Themselves



$$\lambda = m, \frac{m}{\text{cycle}}$$

$$k = m^{-1}, \frac{\text{cycle}}{m}$$

$$T = s, \frac{s}{\text{cycle}}$$

$$f = s^{-1}, \frac{\text{cycle}}{s}, \text{Hz}$$

Harmonic Waves

$$v = \lambda f$$

$$\lambda = \frac{v}{f}$$

$$f = \frac{v}{\lambda}$$

$$T = \frac{1}{f}$$

v = wave speed

λ = wavelength

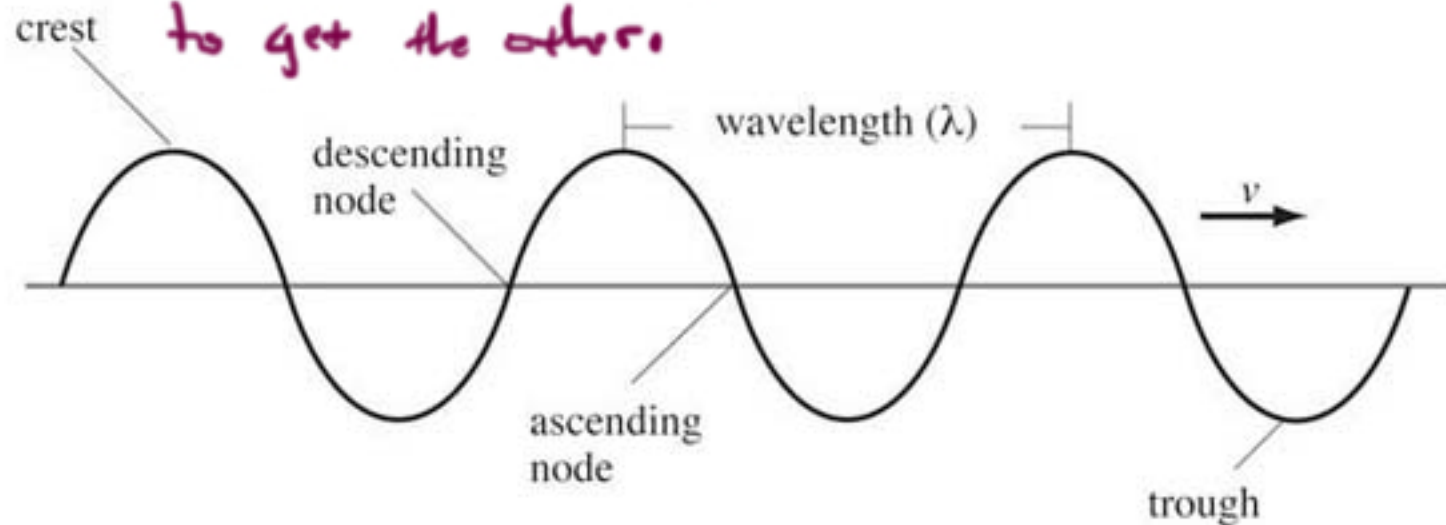
f = frequency

T = period

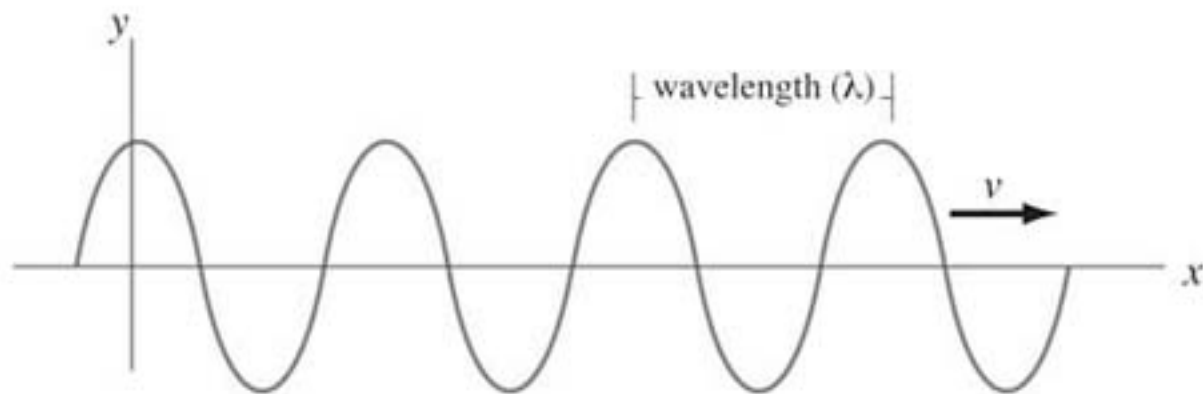
$$\left(\frac{\text{m}}{\text{cycle}}\right)\left(\frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{s}}\right) = \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$$

$$(\lambda)(f) = v$$

Divide either λ or f into v
to get the other.



The wavelength of a harmonic wave divided by its speed of propagation is equal to:



$$\frac{\text{m/cycle}}{\text{m/s}} = \text{s/cycle}$$

- a. the frequency
- b. the angular frequency
- c. the wave number
- ☒ d. the period

A tuning fork produces an E note (frequency = 660 Hz). The wavelength is 0.5 m. At what speed do sound waves move through the air of this room?

$$v = f\lambda$$



a. 132 m/s

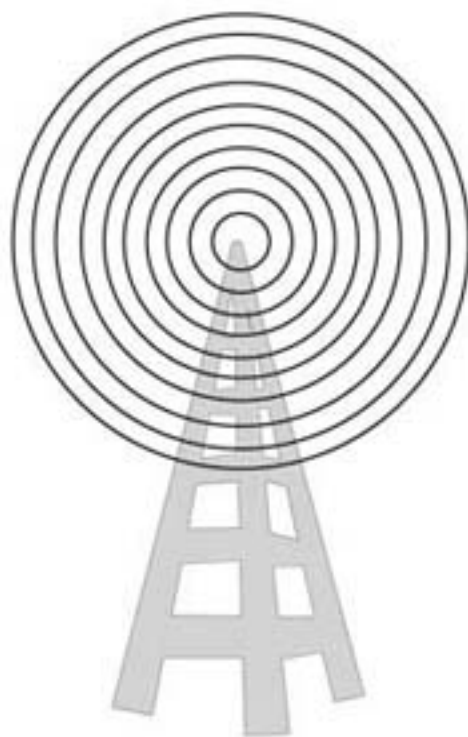
b. 165 m/s

☒ c. 330 m/s

d. 1320 m/s

An FM radio station broadcasts at 100MHz on the dial. What is the wavelength of its signal?

- a. $1.0 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}$
- b. 0.33 m
- ☒ c. 3 m
- d. 100 m



$$\lambda = \frac{v}{f}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}{1 \times 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}}$$

$$= 3 \text{ m}$$

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{F}{\mu}}$$

analogous

Sound Waves

Bulk Modulus (stiffness)

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{B}{\rho}}$$

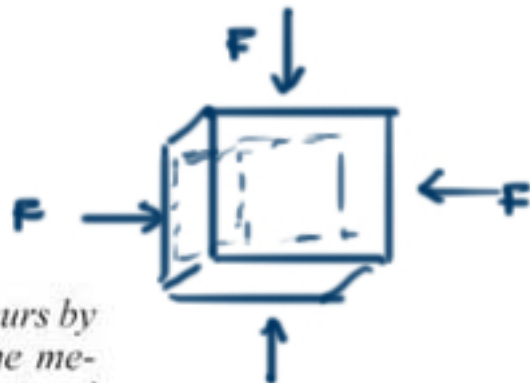
inertia

v = speed of sound

B = bulk modulus

ρ = density

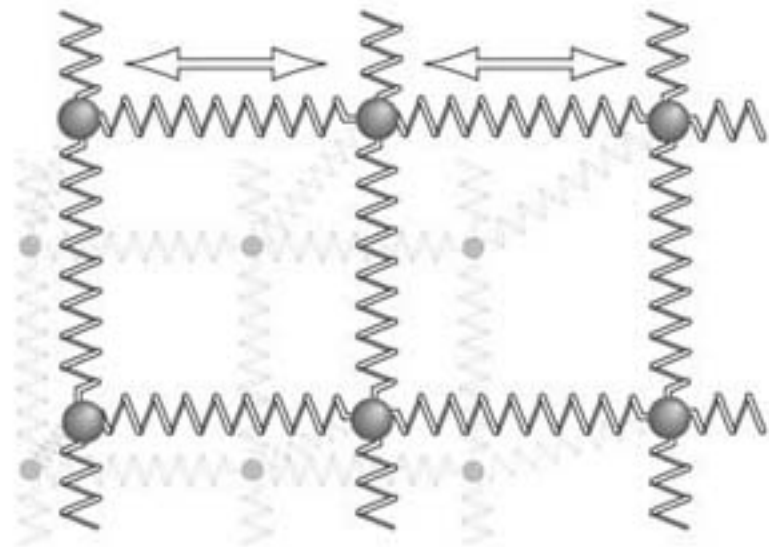
$$\beta = \frac{F/A}{-\Delta V/V_0}$$



Sound wave propagation occurs by means of the elasticity of the medium. Imagine a three dimensional matrix in which mass elements are connected by springs. Increasing the strength of the springs (bulk modulus) would increase the speed of waves through the medium. Increasing the mass of the elements (density) would slow the waves down.

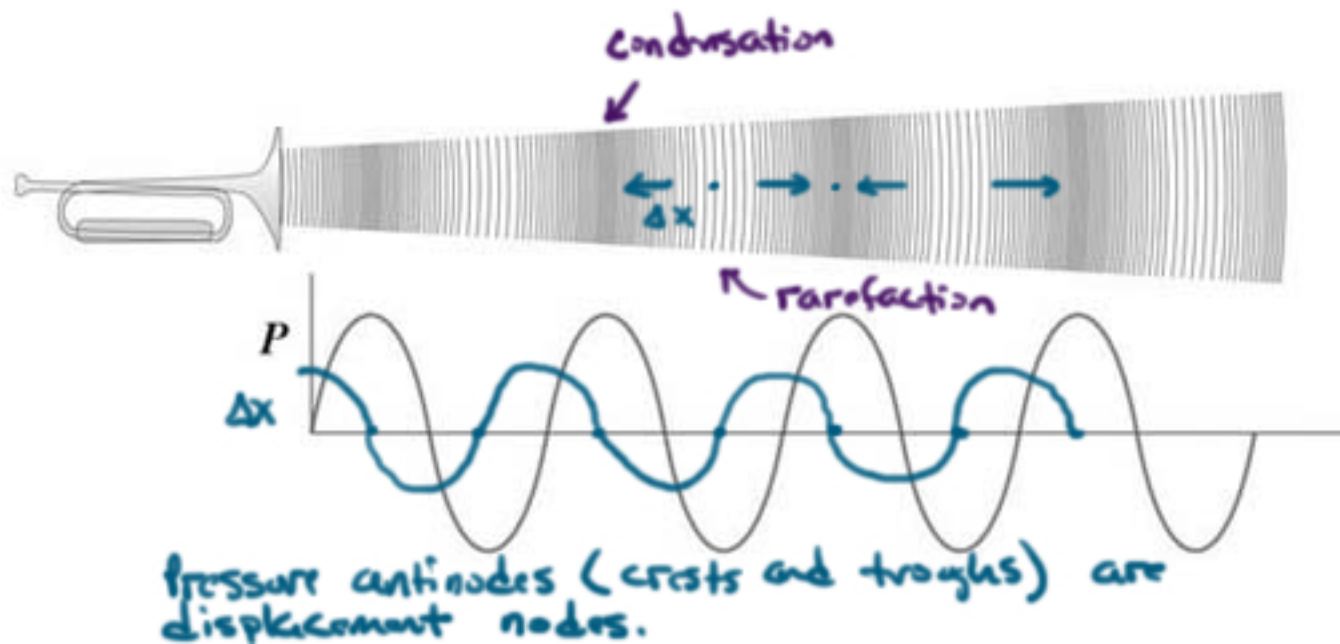
elastic modulus = $\frac{\text{stress}}{\text{strain}}$

$$k = \frac{-F}{\Delta x}$$

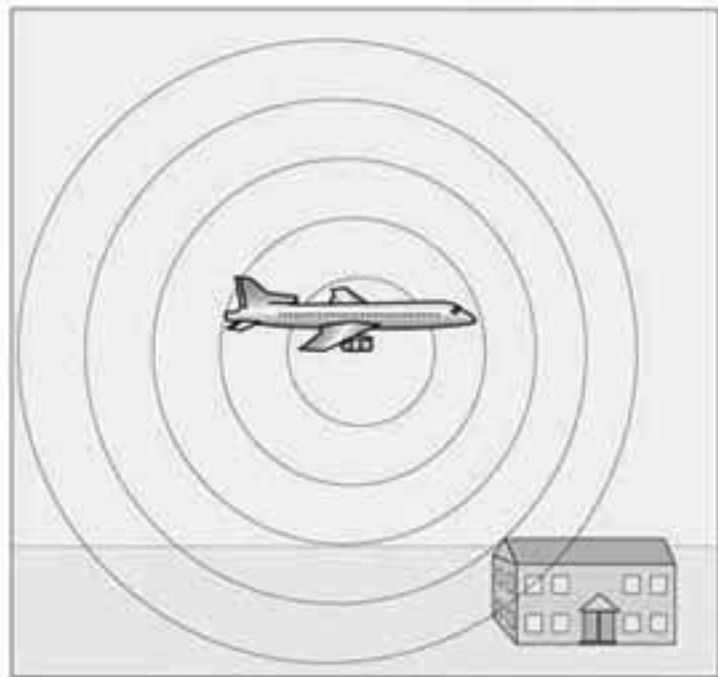


Which of the following is a true statement concerning sound waves?

- a. Sound waves can pass through a vacuum.
- b. The speed of sound does not depend on the medium of propagation.
- ☒ c. Sound waves are longitudinal waves.
- d. Sound waves cannot be reflected.



Loudness



original $10 \log (I/I_0)$
 multiply intensity by A
 new = $10 \log A (I/I_0)$
 $= 10 \log A + 10 \log I/I_0$

$$\beta = 10 \log \left(\frac{I}{I_0} \right)$$

Multiply I $10 \times$
 add 10 dB

Multiply I $100 \times$
 add 20 dB

Multiply I $1000 \times$
 add 30 dB

β = loudness in decibels

I = intensity

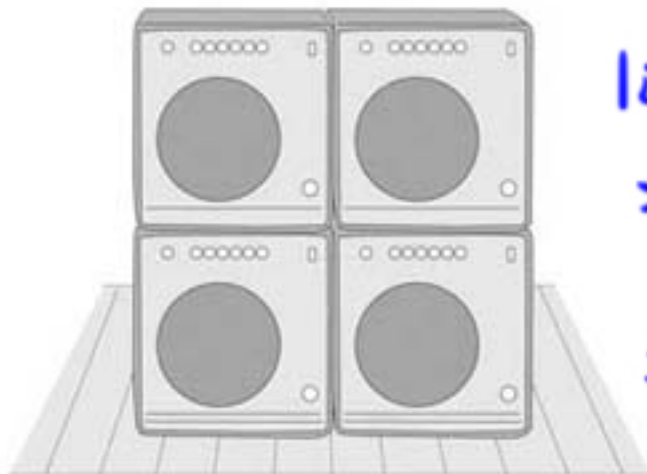
$$I_0 = 10^{-12} \text{ W/m}^2$$

Intensity - W/m^2



After judging a value of 120 dB a few meters in front of the stage to be insufficiently loud enough, a rock-and-roll band doubled the number of amplifiers in its stack. What was the loudness after the addition of the new amplifiers?

- a. 123 dB
- b. 130 dB
- c. 144 dB
- d. 240 dB



$$10 \log \frac{I}{I_0}$$

new

$$10 \log \frac{2I}{I_0}$$

$$= 10 \log \frac{I}{I_0} + 10 \log 2$$

$$= 120 \text{ dB} + 3$$

$$= 123 \text{ dB}$$

Use the signs
that make sense

Doppler Effect

$$f' = f \left(\frac{v \pm v_o}{v \mp v_s} \right)$$

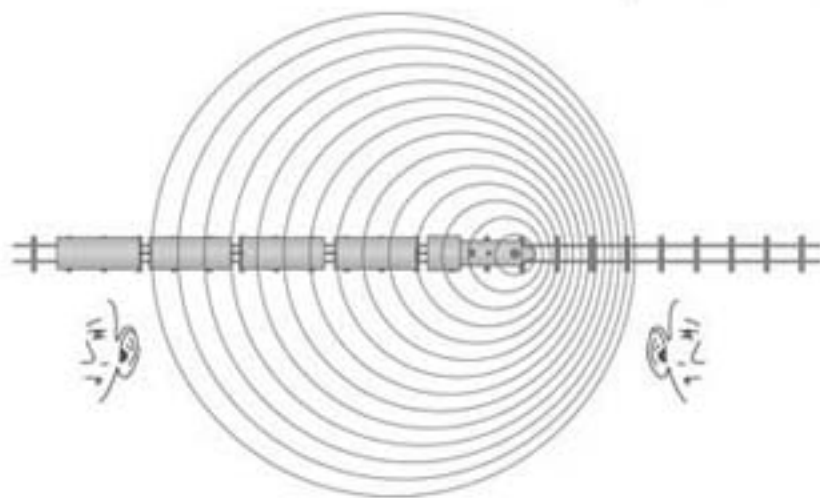
f' = observed frequency

f = source frequency

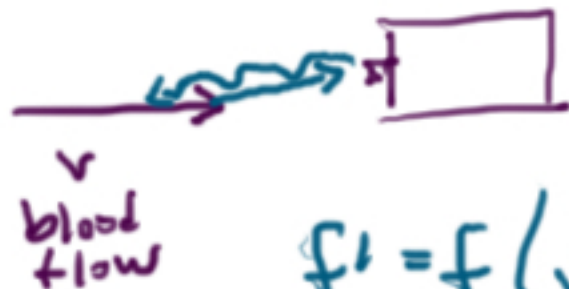
v = wave speed

v_o = speed of observer

v_s = speed of source



Doppler
sonography

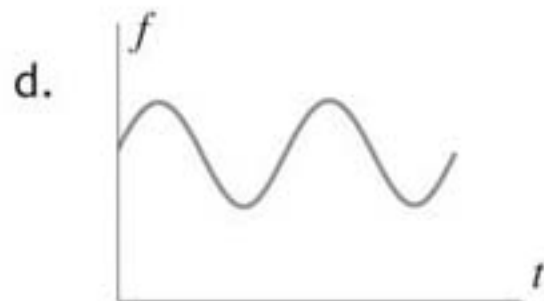
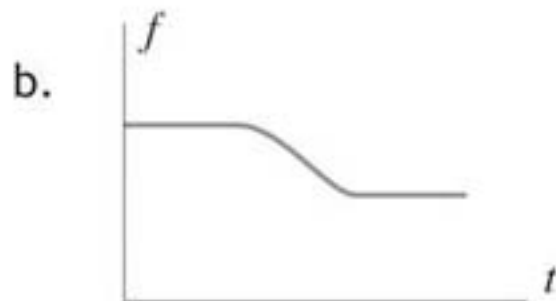
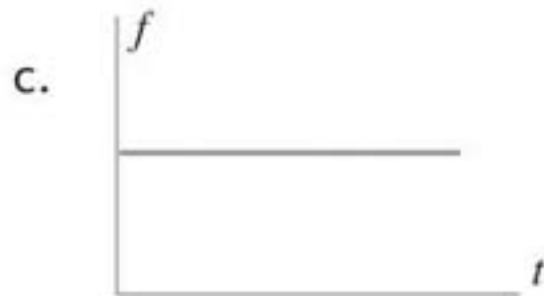
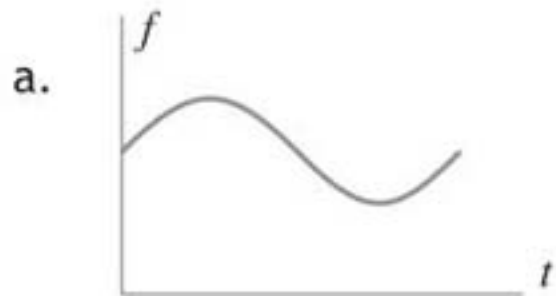


$$f' = f \left(\frac{v}{v \mp v_s} \right)$$

$$2t = v \Delta t$$

Because of the Doppler effect, the measured frequency of sound is greater for the observer the train is approaching than for the observer the train is leaving.

An astronomer discovers a planet orbiting a distant star, revolving once every 10 days. If her line of observation is within the orbital plane of the planet, which of the following curves best represents the observed frequency of the light from the planet as it undergoes one complete revolution around the star?



Standing Waves on a Stretched String

standing waves which are possible have nodes at the pegs

$$\lambda_n = 2L, L, \frac{2L}{3}, \dots, \frac{2L}{n}$$

The wavelengths of the normal modes correspond to the possible waves with nodes at the fixed ends.

$$f = \frac{v}{\lambda_n} = \frac{n}{2L}v$$

It's a simple matter to move from wavelengths to frequency if you know the wave speed (deriving from the tension, F , and the mass per unit length, μ , of the string):

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{F}{\mu}}$$

λ_n = wavelengths of normal modes

L = length of string

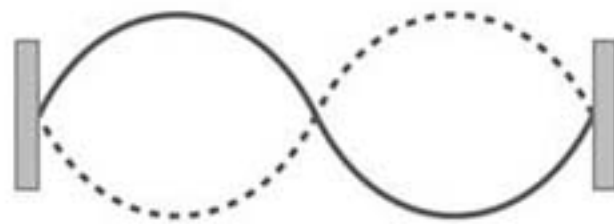
n = 1, 2, 3, ...

f = frequencies of normal modes

v = wave speed

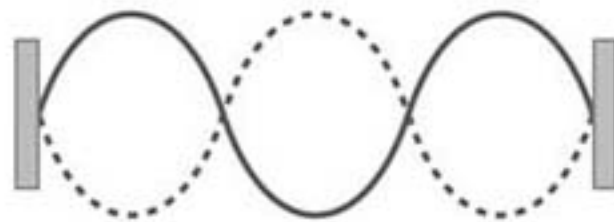


$$\lambda = 2L$$



$$\lambda = \frac{2L}{n}$$

$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$



Standing Waves in Air Columns

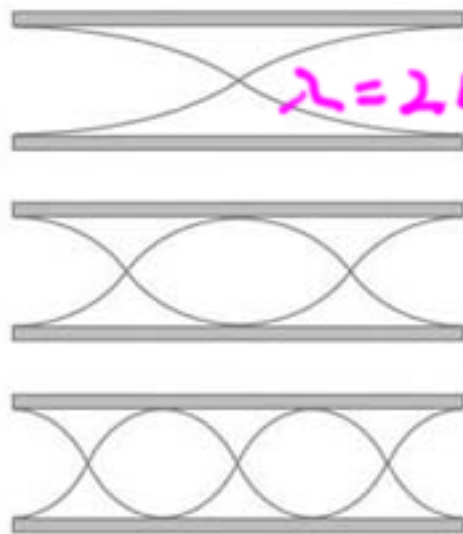
Pipe Open at Both Ends

$$\lambda_n = 2L, L, \frac{2L}{3}, \dots \frac{2L}{n}$$

$$f = \frac{v}{\lambda_n} = \frac{n}{2L}v$$

($n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$)

just like
shred string



$$\lambda = 2L$$

λ_n = wavelengths of normal modes

L = length of pipe

f = frequencies of normal modes

v = wave speed

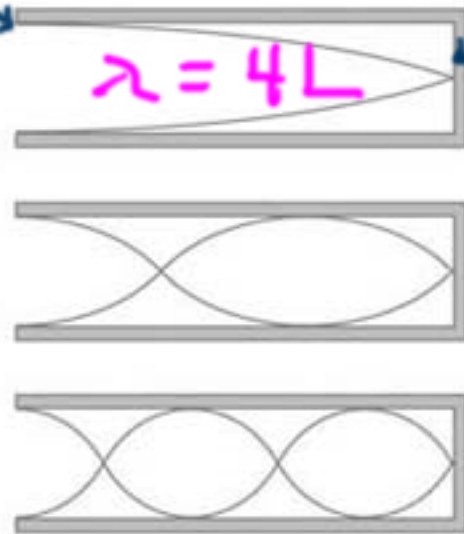
Pipe Closed at One End

$$\lambda_n = 4L, \frac{4L}{3}, \frac{4L}{5}, \dots \frac{4L}{n}$$

$$f = \frac{v}{\lambda_n} = \frac{n}{4L}v$$

($n = 1, 3, 5, \dots$)

displacement antinode



displacement node
& pressure antinode

$$\lambda = 4L$$

$$\lambda = \frac{4L}{n}$$

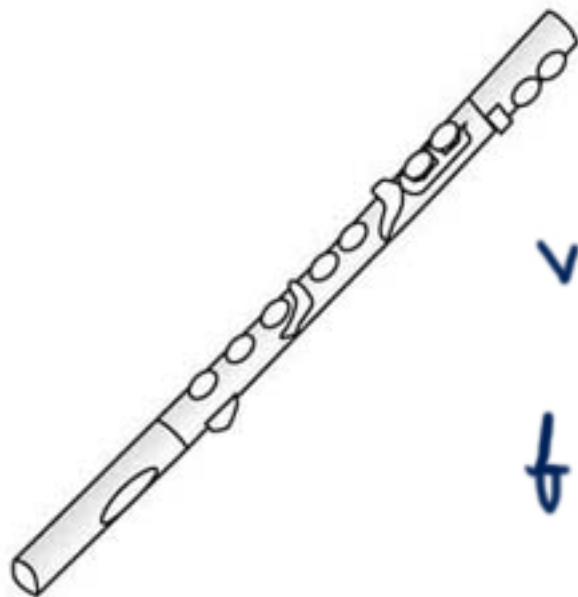
$n = 1, 3, 5, \dots$



Sound waves are represented as displacement waves

A flute is an example of a musical instrument that functions as a pipe closed at one end. What is the lowest musical note produced by a 0.75m long flute (the speed of sound in this particular air is 330 m/s).

- a. A (110 Hz)
- b. B (248 Hz)
- c. A (220 Hz)
- d. E (660 Hz)



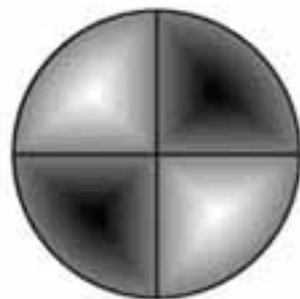
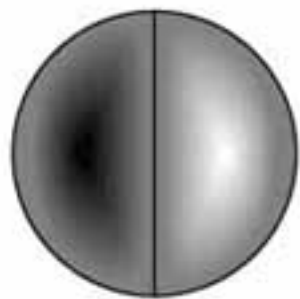
$$\lambda = 4 (0.75\text{m})$$

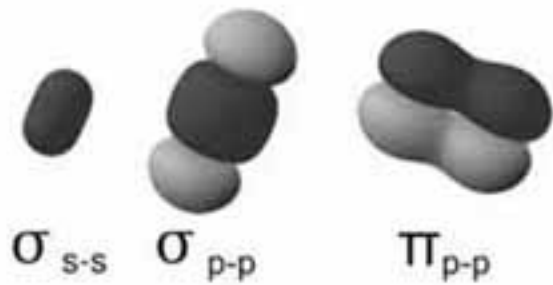
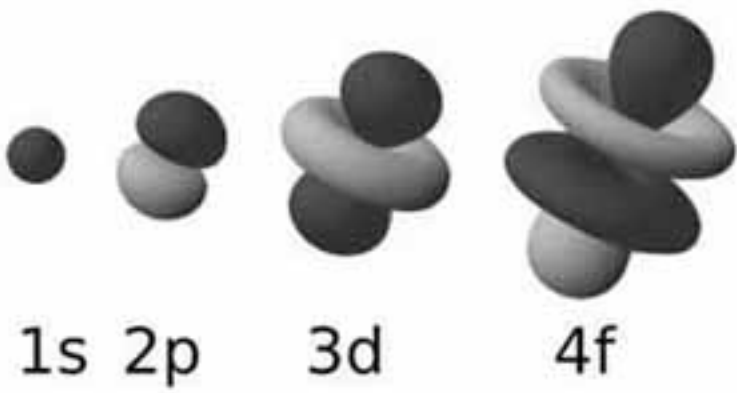
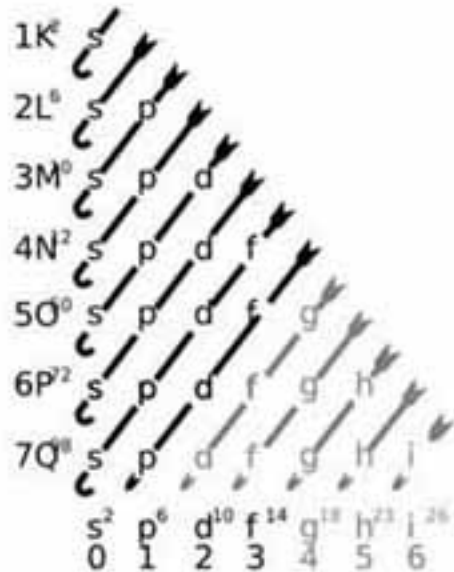
$$= 3\text{m}$$

$$v = 330\text{ m/s}$$

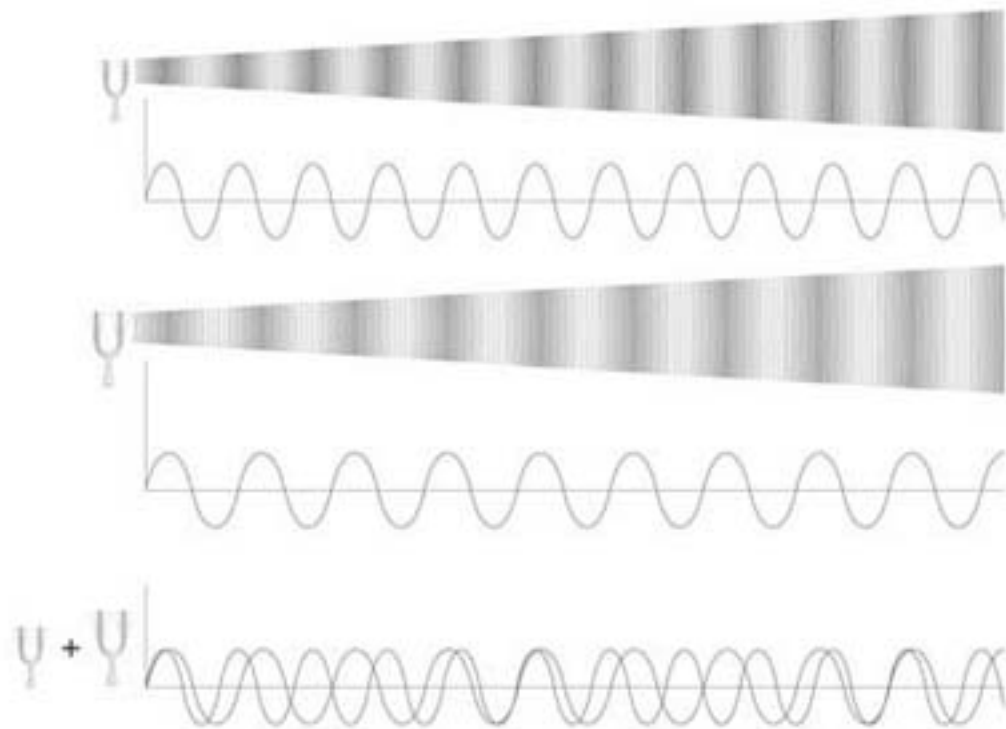
$$f = \frac{330\text{ m/s}}{3\text{m}}$$

$$= 110\text{ Hz}$$





Beats



$$f_b = f_1 - f_2$$

f_b = beat frequency

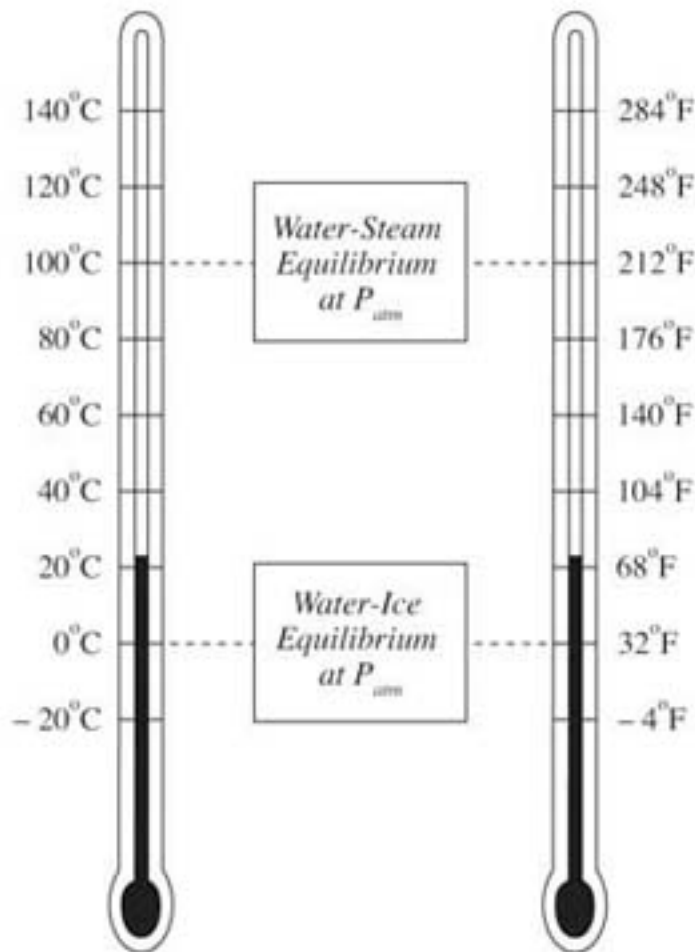
Beats are fluctuations in sound intensity produced when two tones nearly equal in frequency are sounded simultaneously.

Converting Celsius and Fahrenheit

$$T_c = \frac{5}{9} (T_f - 32)$$

$$T_f = \frac{9}{5} T_c + 32$$

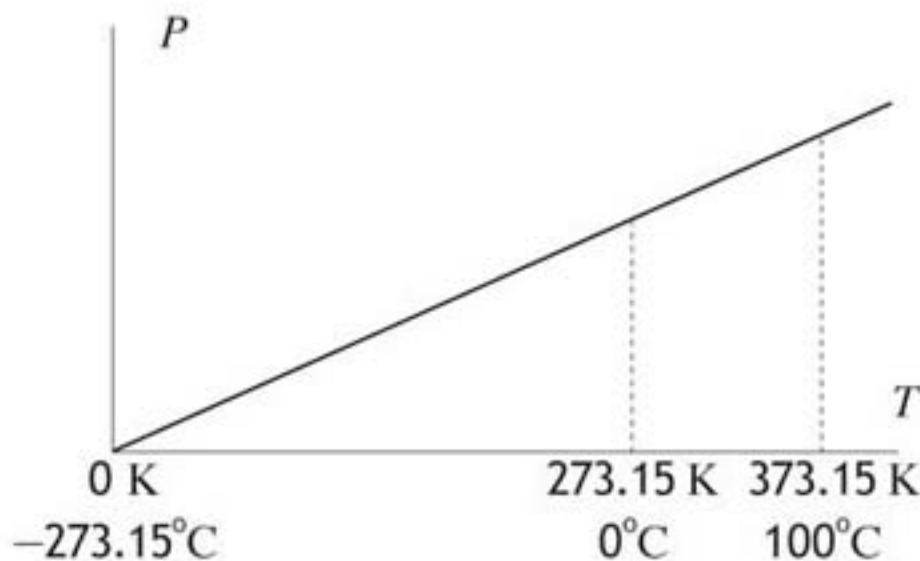
not in MCAT anymore



Kelvin Temperature

$$T = T_c + 273$$

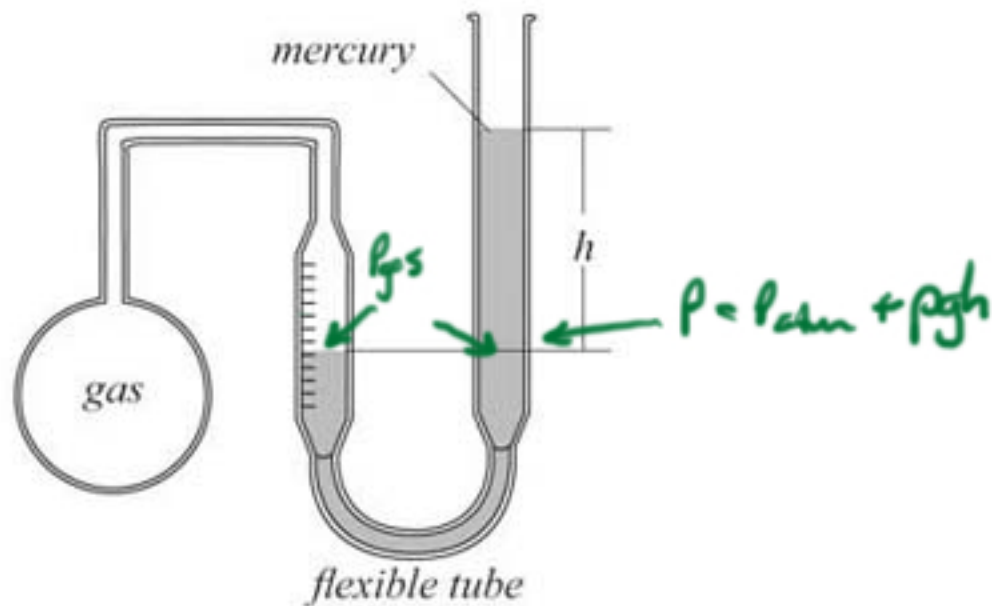
convert to Kelvin!



Pressure-Temperature Graph for a Constant Volume Gas Thermometer

How does the constant volume gas thermometer pictured at right measure temperature?

- a. It measures the pressure of the gas.
- b. It measures changes in the volume of the mercury.
- c. It measures the thermal expansion of the gas.
- d. It measures the ratio of the density of the mercury to the density of the gas.



$$\frac{\text{cal}}{\text{g}^\circ\text{C}} \text{ or } \frac{\text{J}}{\text{g}^\circ\text{C}}$$

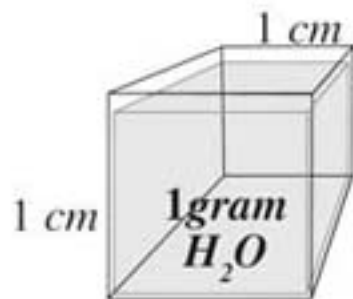
Specific Heat

Molar Heat Capacity

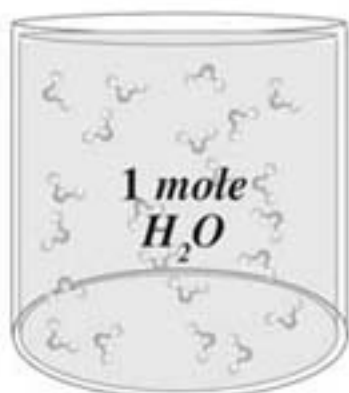
$$\frac{\text{cal}}{\text{mol}^\circ\text{C}}$$

$$\frac{\text{J}}{\text{mol}^\circ\text{C}}$$

$$c_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = \frac{1 \text{ cal}}{\text{g}^\circ\text{C}} = \frac{4.18 \text{ J}}{\text{g}^\circ\text{C}}$$



Heat per gram per degree Celsius



6.02×10^{23} molecules

Heat per mole per degree Celsius



$$1 \text{ cal} = 4.18 \text{ J}$$

$$Q = m c \Delta T$$

Q = heat flow
 m = mass
 c = specific heat
 ΔT = temperature change

$$Q = n C \Delta T$$

Q = heat flow
 n = number of moles
 C = molar heat capacity
 ΔT = temperature change

According to the *rule of Dulong and Petit* the molar heat capacity of metals with atomic weight above 35 is relatively constant (about $26 \text{ J / mole} \cdot ^\circ\text{C}$). From the information presented, which of the metals in the table below has the lowest specific heat?

Element	Atomic Weight	Molar Heat Capacity at STP
Ni	58.70	26.0 $\text{J / mole} \cdot ^\circ\text{C}$
Ag	107.868	25.5
Cd	112.40	26.0
Pb	207.2	26.8

a. Ni

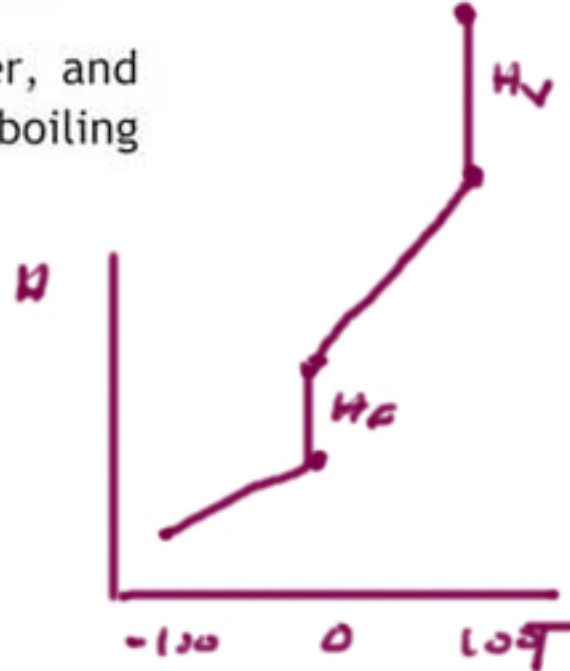
c. Cd

b. Ag

d. Pb

The table below gives the heat capacities of ice, liquid water, and steam as well as the heats of transformation for melting and boiling water ($P = 1\text{atm}$).

C_{ice} (cal/g \cdot $^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Latent Heat of Fusion (cal/g)	C_{water} (cal/g \cdot $^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Latent Heat of Vaporization (cal/g)	C_{steam} (cal/g \cdot $^{\circ}\text{C}$)
0.5	80	1	540	0.48



How much heat must be added to transform 1g of ice at -100°C into steam?

$$Q = mc\Delta T$$

a. 48 cal

c. 621.5 cal

b. 580 cal

d. 770 cal

The easiest path has four steps: 1) heating the ice from -100°C to 0°C ; 2) melting the ice; 3) heating the liquid water from 0°C to 100°C ; and finally, 4) boiling the water. The amount of heat which must be added for temperature change equals the product of the mass, specific heat and temperature change. For the phase changes, the amount of heat equals the product of the mass and the heat of transformation. Here are the computations for each of the four steps:

$$Q_{-100^{\circ}\text{C} \rightarrow 0^{\circ}\text{C}} = (1 \text{ g}) \left(.50 \frac{\text{cal}}{\text{g}^{\circ}\text{C}} \right) (100^{\circ}\text{C}) = 50 \text{ cal}$$

$$Q_{\text{fusion}} = (1 \text{ g}) \left(80 \frac{\text{cal}}{\text{g}} \right) = 80 \text{ cal}$$

$$Q_{0^{\circ}\text{C} \rightarrow 100^{\circ}\text{C}} = (1 \text{ g}) \left(1 \frac{\text{cal}}{\text{g}^{\circ}\text{C}} \right) (100^{\circ}\text{C}) = 100 \text{ cal}$$

$$Q_{\text{vaporization}} = (1 \text{ g}) \left(540 \frac{\text{cal}}{\text{g}} \right) = \underline{540 \text{ cal}}$$

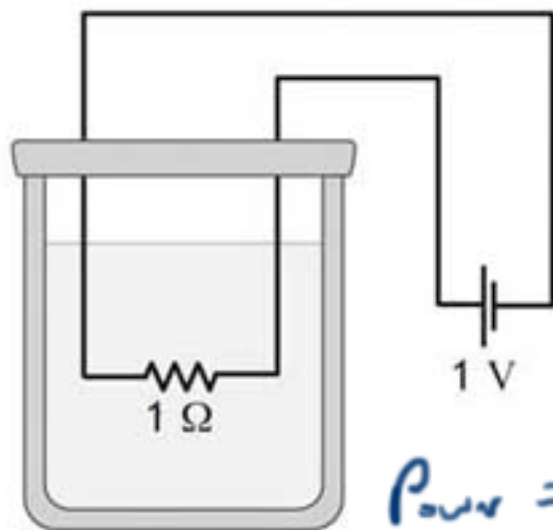
$$\text{sum} = 770 \text{ cal}$$

THIS IS A VERY COMMONLY OCCURRING TYPE OF PROBLEM. (ALTHOUGH THE COMPUTATIONS HERE ARE SUPPOSED TO BE EASY ENOUGH TO DO IN YOUR HEAD, IT'S A GOOD IDEA IN A TEST ENVIRONMENT TO WRITE THE COMPUTATIONS DOWN TO AVOID MISTAKES.



The Dewar flask at right contains 100ml of water at 25°C.

After a 1 volt (1 joule per coulomb) battery begins to deliver 1 ampere (1 coulomb per second) of current through the resistance immersed in the water, approximately how long does it take the water temperature to reach 35°C?



$$C_{H_2O} = \frac{1\text{ cal}}{g^{\circ}C}$$
$$Q = (100g) \left(\frac{1\text{ cal}}{g^{\circ}C} \right) (10^{\circ}C)$$
$$= 1000\text{ cal}$$

$$P_{\text{power}} = 1\text{ J/s}$$

$$P = VI$$

$$1000\text{ cal} = 4200\text{ J}$$

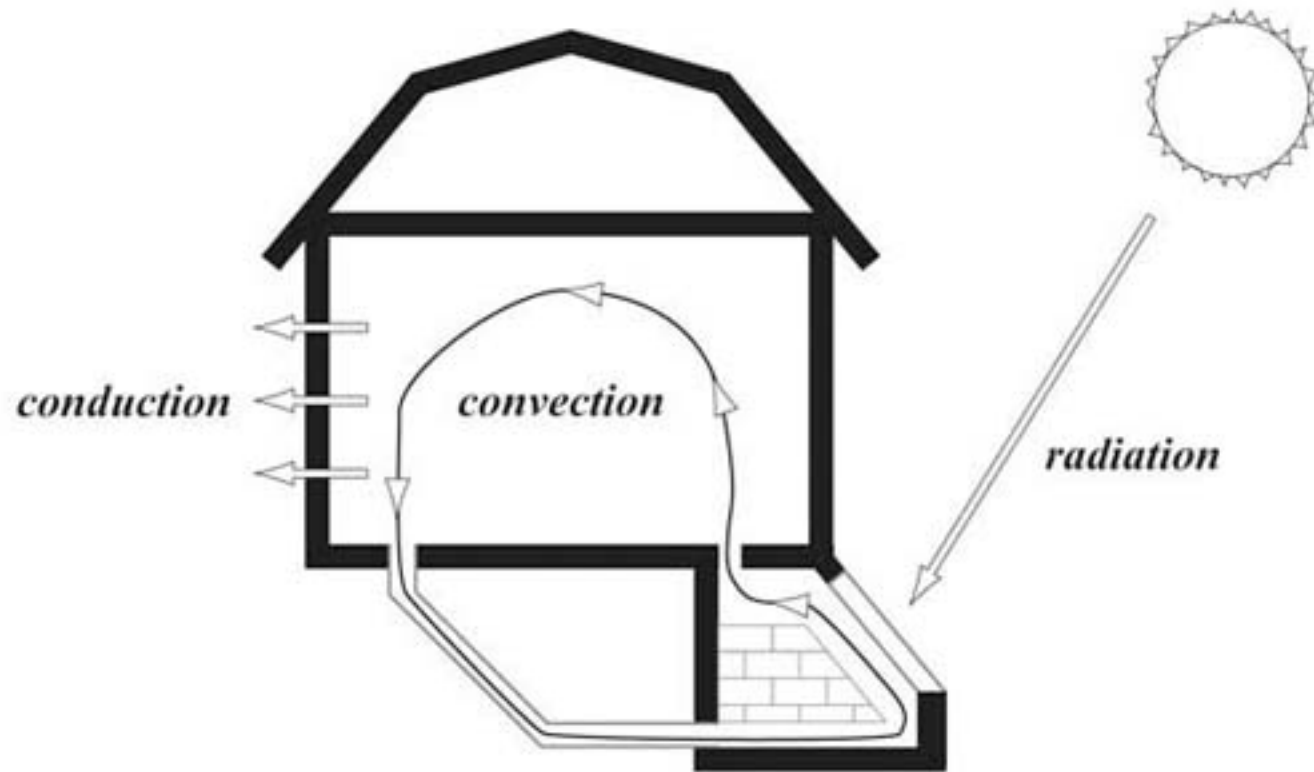
a. 10 seconds

b. 32 seconds

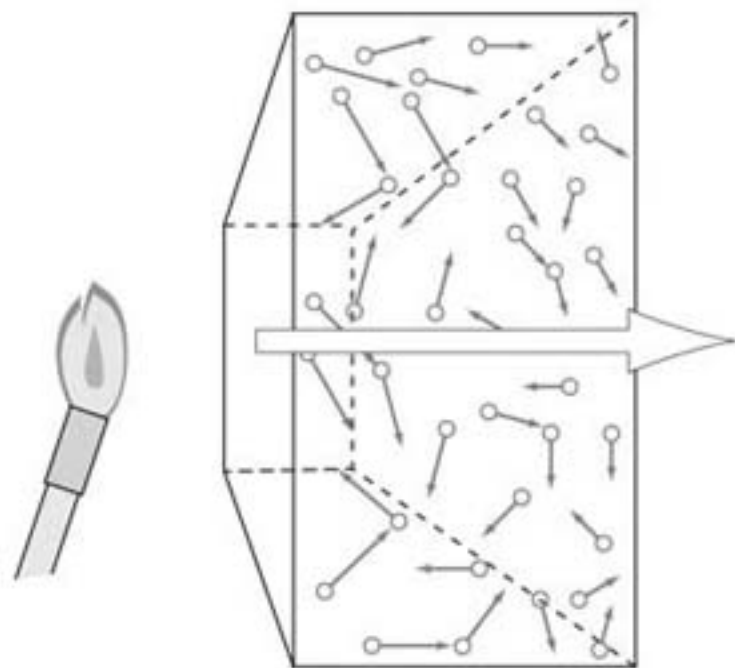
c. 1000 seconds

☒ d. 4200 seconds

Three Modes of Heat Transmission



Transmission of Heat by Conduction



$$\frac{Q}{t} = K A \frac{\Delta T}{\Delta x}$$

Q = heat flow

t = time

K = thermal conductivity of material

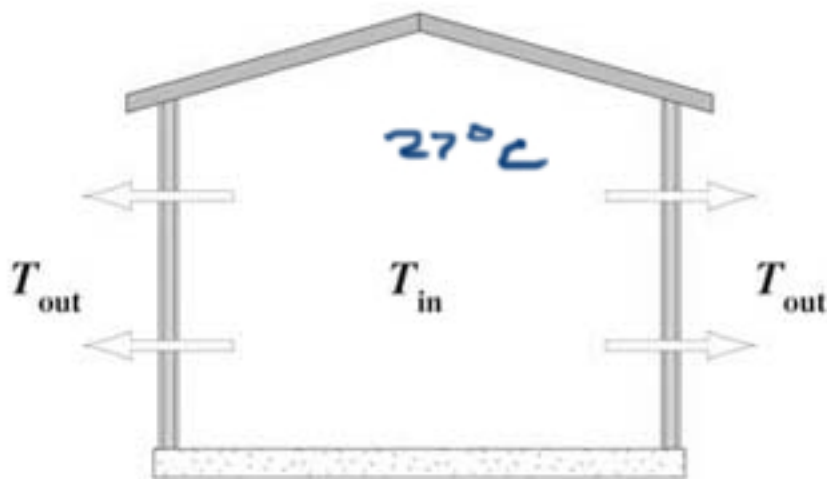
A = cross-sectional area

ΔT = temperature difference across the conductor
($T_2 - T_1$)

Δx = conductor thickness

When warmer (faster) molecules collide with cooler (slower) molecules, the warmer molecules transfer part of their energy to the cooler molecules. Conduction of heat is occurring.

Night or day, the interior of a house is maintained at a constant temperature of 27°C . During the day, the outside temperature is 17°C . At night, the outside temperature is 7°C . What is the approximate percentage increase in the rate of heat lost by conduction through the walls of a house at night versus the day?



17°C day
 7°C night

$$\frac{Q}{t} = k A \frac{\Delta T}{\Delta x}$$

a. 3%

b. 9%

c. 50%

☒ d. 100%

Transmission of Heat by Radiation - Stefan's Law



The tungsten filament ($\epsilon = 0.4$) of a typical 100W bulb has a surface area of 40mm^2 and an operating temperature of about 3200K .

$$\frac{Q}{t} = A\epsilon\sigma T^4$$

Handwritten notes:
A green arrow points from the text "4th power! use Kelvin!" to the T^4 term.
A blue arrow points from the text "emissivity" to the ϵ term.

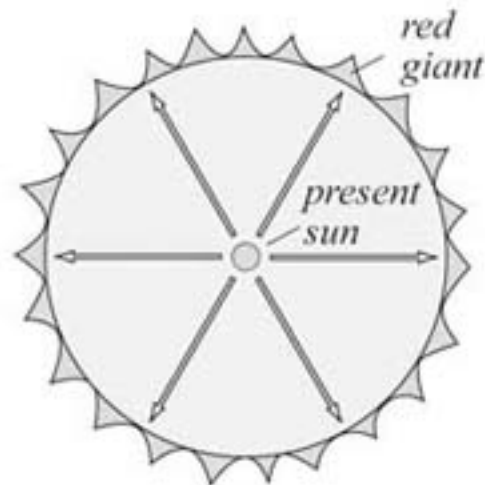
- Q = heat (light) emitted
- t = time
- A = surface area of emitter
- ϵ = emissivity
- σ = Stefan-Boltzmann constant
($5.7 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2 \cdot \text{K}^2$)
- T = emitter absolute temperature

A good absorber is a good emitter

A good reflector is a poor emitter.

*$\epsilon = 1$ for a perfect blackbody
only absorbs and emits*

Scientists predict that in approximately five billion years the energy from a changing hydrogen fusion dynamic within our sun will push the outermost layers of the star outward. Expanding and cooling, the sun will become a red giant, perhaps even engulfing the earth. If its temperature decreases from 6000K to 3000K and its radius undergoes a 40 fold increase, what will be the resulting change in the luminosity of the Sun? (luminosity is the rate of total light emission)



Growth of the sun into a red giant will occur in approximately five billion years.

- a. 16 fold decrease
- b. 80 fold decrease

- c. 20 fold increase
- ☒ d. 100 fold increase

$$A = 4\pi r^2$$

$$\frac{Q}{t} = A \epsilon \sigma T^4$$

$$\frac{1}{2} T \rightarrow \frac{1}{16} \times \text{change}$$

$$40r \rightarrow 1600 \times \text{change}$$

Engineers designed the Apollo capsule/command module to be constructed with a silvered exterior to control heat exchange with the environment during space travel. Which of the following were among the effects of this design feature on heat exchange?



- a. Maximizing the absorption of energy from the surroundings
- ☒ b. Minimizing the radiation of energy to the surroundings
- ☒ c. Minimizing convection currents within the vehicle
- ☒ d. Maximizing conductive diffusion of heat along the vehicle

Macrostate Functions

Pressure =

$$F/A \quad N/m^2 = 1 \text{ Pascal}$$

$$1 \text{ atm} = 101,000 \text{ Pa}$$

$$1 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}$$

$$= 760 \text{ torr}$$

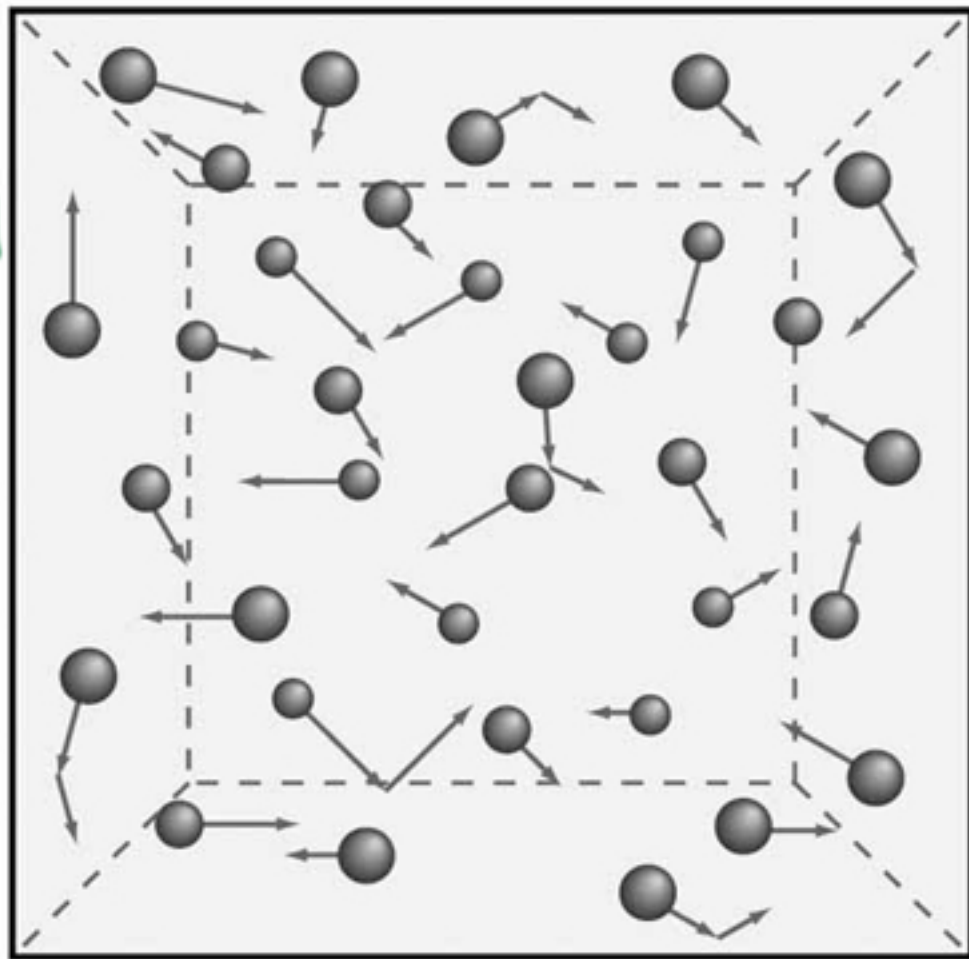
Volume =

$$m^3 = 1000 \text{ L}$$

$$L = 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3$$

Temperature

$$\frac{1}{2} m \bar{v}^2 = \frac{3}{2} kT$$



Ideal Gas

! Kinetic Theory

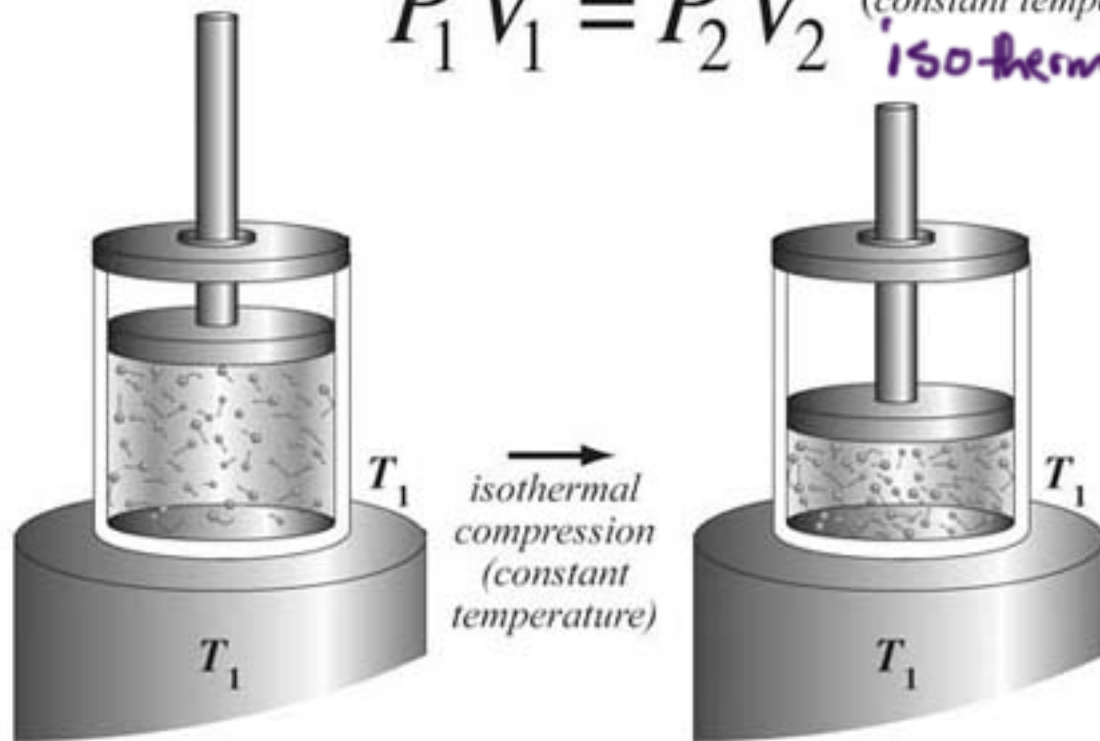
+ 1st law of
thermodynamics

- point masses
- elastic collisions
- no action-at-a-distance forces

Boyle's Law

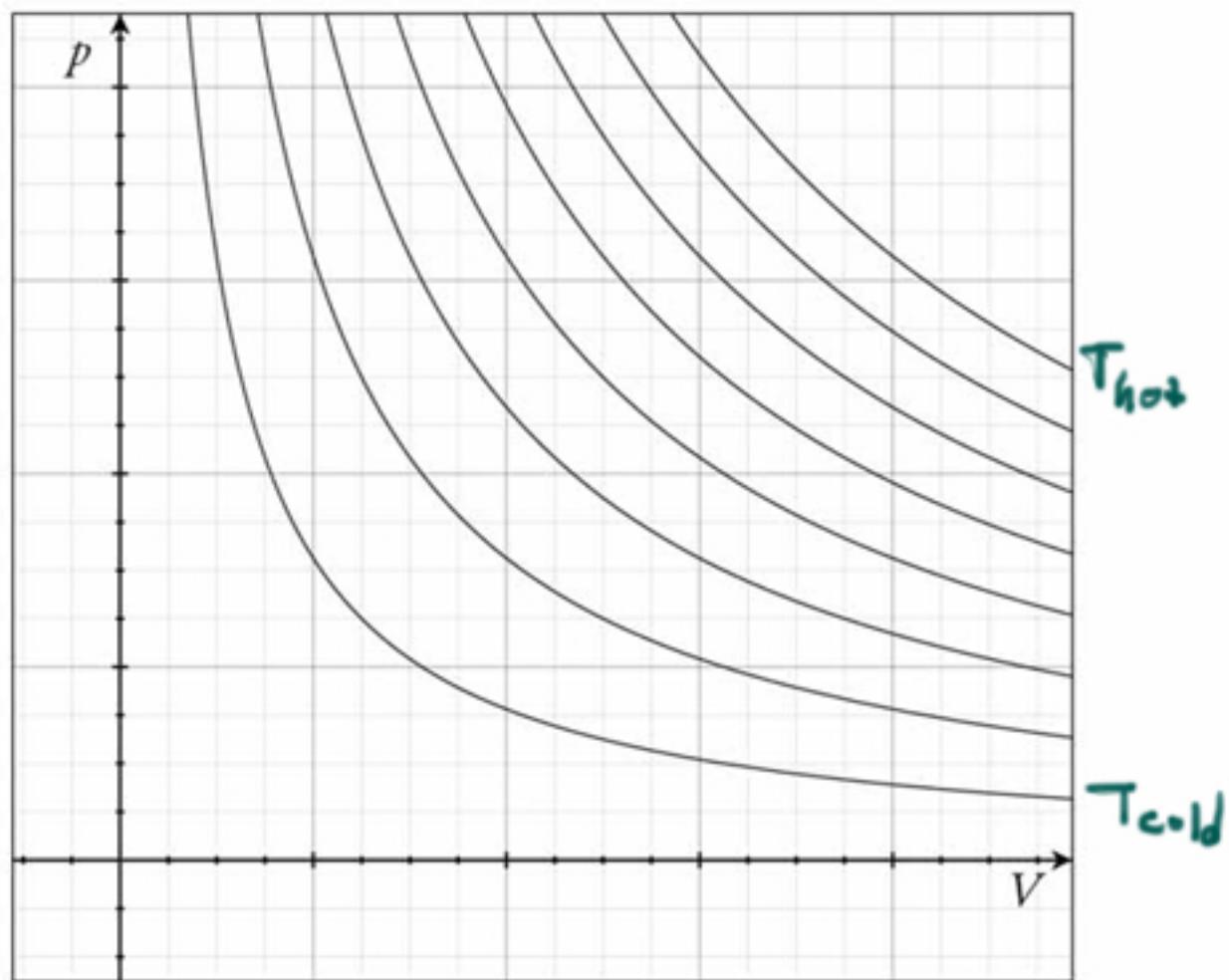
$$P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2 \quad (\text{constant temperature})$$

iso-thermal



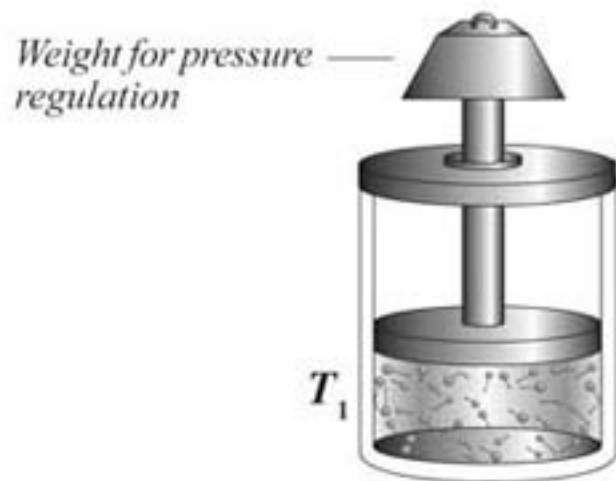
Thermal equilibrium with the heat sink allows the gas to be compressed at constant temperature, isothermally. With constant temperature, Boyle's Law applies. The pressure and volume are inversely proportional (PV is constant). Pressure increases as volume decreases.

isotherms

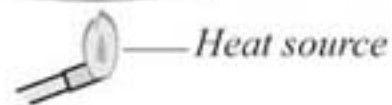


Charles' Law

$$\frac{V_1}{T_1} = \frac{V_2}{T_2} \quad (\text{constant pressure}) \quad \text{isobaric}$$



isobaric
expansion
(constant
pressure)



$$\frac{P_1 V_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2 V_2}{T_2}$$

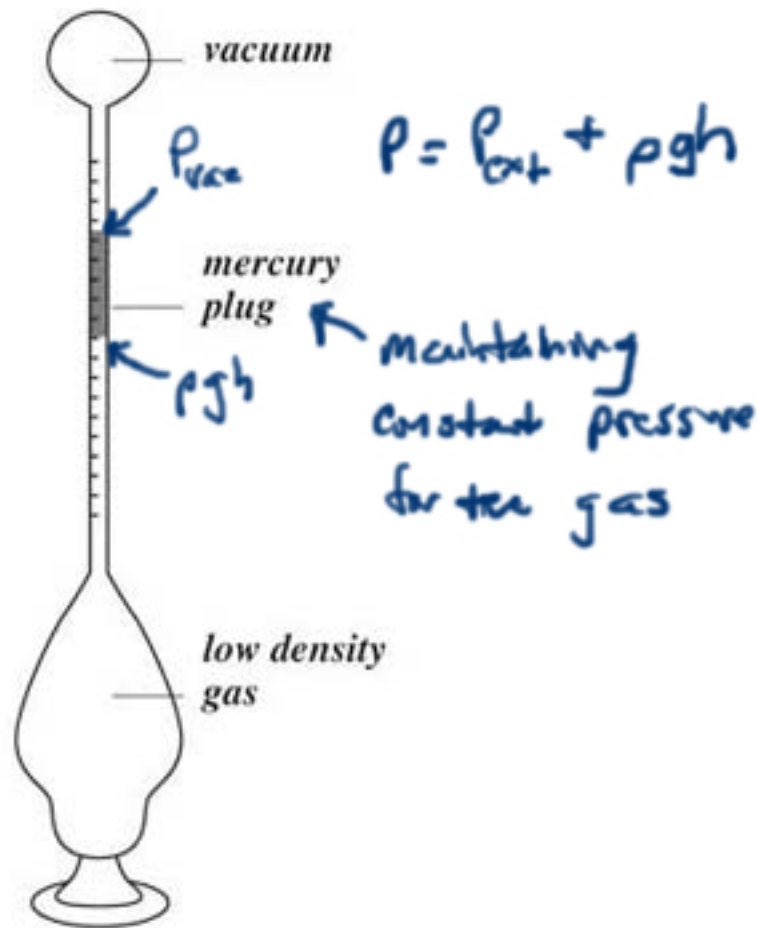
combined gas
law

Heating a gas makes its particles move faster. Collisions are stronger. Therefore, to exert the same pressure, the particles must be more spread out. The volume must have increased.

Constant P

How does the thermometer at right measure temperature?

- a. It measures the pressure of the gas.
- b. It measures changes in the volume of the mercury.
- c. It measures the volume of the gas.
- d. It measures the ratio of the density of the mercury to the density of the gas.



Charles' Law thermometer

Any two of
 P, V, T
specify the
state of a gas

The Ideal Gas Law • state equation of an ideal gas

$$PV = nRT$$

P = pressure

V = volume

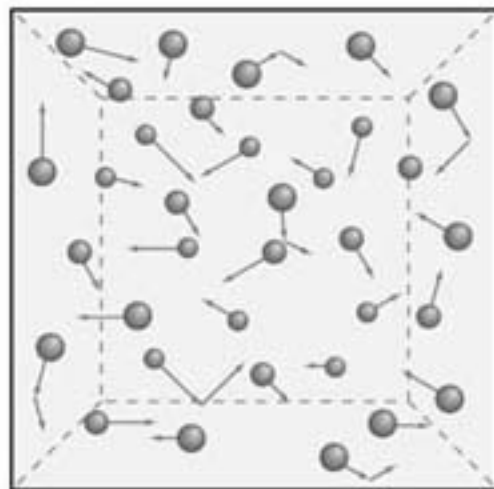
T = temperature

n = # of moles of gas

R = ideal gas constant

[8.31 J/mole · K]

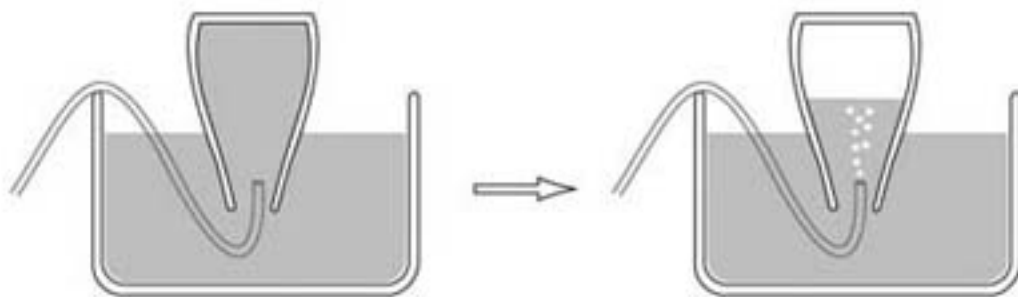
[0.082 liter · atm/mole · K]



1 mole of an ideal gas occupies 22.4 liters at STP.

Standard T
↓
STP - 273 K
298 K - standard state T
1 atm P

To serve as an apparatus for collecting gaseous substances a flask is completely filled with water and inverted with its mouth submerged within a larger container of water.



$$PV = nRT$$

$$V = \frac{n}{P}RT$$

Student A collects methane gas (CH_4) in this manner, and student B collects propane gas (C_3H_8). After each has collected one gram of substance:

- a. the gaseous phase in student A's flask has greater volume
- b. the gaseous phase in student B's flask has greater volume
- c. the volume of the gaseous phases of both flasks are equal
- d. the gaseous phase in student B's flask has greater pressure

The Temperature of an Ideal Gas Depends on the Average Translational Kinetic Energy of the Particles

$$\frac{1}{2}m\overline{v^2} = \frac{3}{2}kT$$

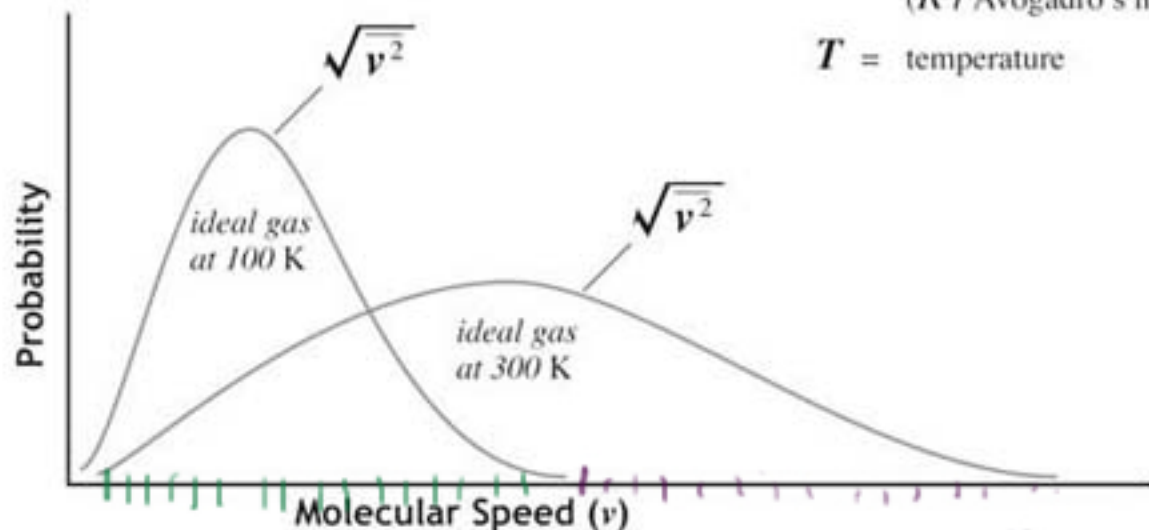
m = mass

$\overline{v^2}$ = average square speed

k = Boltzmann's constant

(R / Avogadro's number)

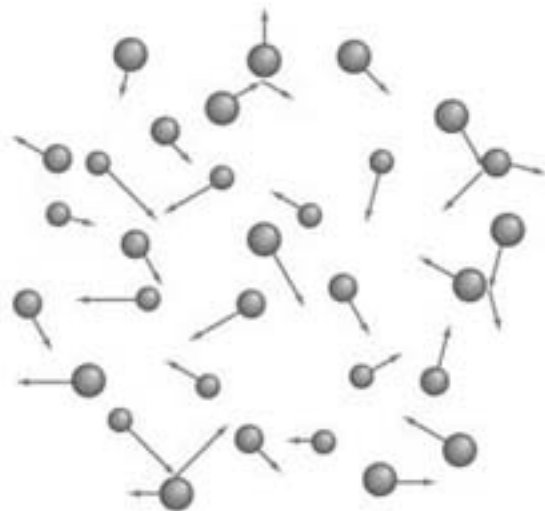
T = temperature



Maxwell Boltzmann Distribution

The difference in the velocity distribution curves for ideal gas particles at 100 K and 300 K shows the dependence of the average translational kinetic energy of the particles on temperature.

The Internal Energy of an Ideal Gas Depends on Temperature



$$\frac{U}{N} = \frac{3}{2}kT$$

$$\frac{1}{2}m\bar{v}^2 = \frac{3}{2}kT$$

$$U = \frac{3}{2}NkT$$

U = internal energy
 N = number of molecules
 k = Boltzmann's constant
= R / Avogadro's number
 T = temperature

$$U = \frac{3}{2}nRT$$

n = moles of gas
 R = ideal gas constant

**RMS Particle Speed Is Inversely Proportional
to the Square Root of Particle Mass** *(for a given temperature)*

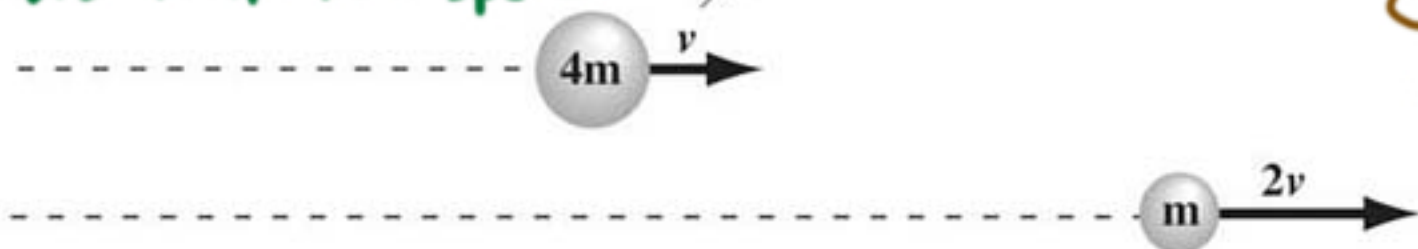
$$\frac{\overline{v}_A}{\overline{v}_B} = \frac{\sqrt{m_B}}{\sqrt{m_A}}$$

m = mass
 \overline{v} = root mean square speed
(square root of average
square speed)

$$\frac{1}{2} M_A \overline{v}_A^2 = \frac{1}{2} M_B \overline{v}_B^2$$

Four times the mass
means half the speed.

root mean square speed for a gas sample



Graham's Law
of effusion

'Average' (root mean square) speed is inversely proportional to the square root of molecular mass. For two samples of ideal gas at the same temperature, if the molecules of one gas are four times larger, the root mean square speed is half as great.



1st Law of Thermodynamics

- Conservation of energy

SURROUNDINGS

heat flow
↓

$$\Delta U = Q - W$$

↑
thermodynamic
work

$$P\Delta V$$

SYSTEM

BOUNDARY

The Universe

Universe = System +
Surroundings

The First Law of Thermodynamics

$$\Delta U = Q - W$$
$$= Q - P^* \Delta V$$

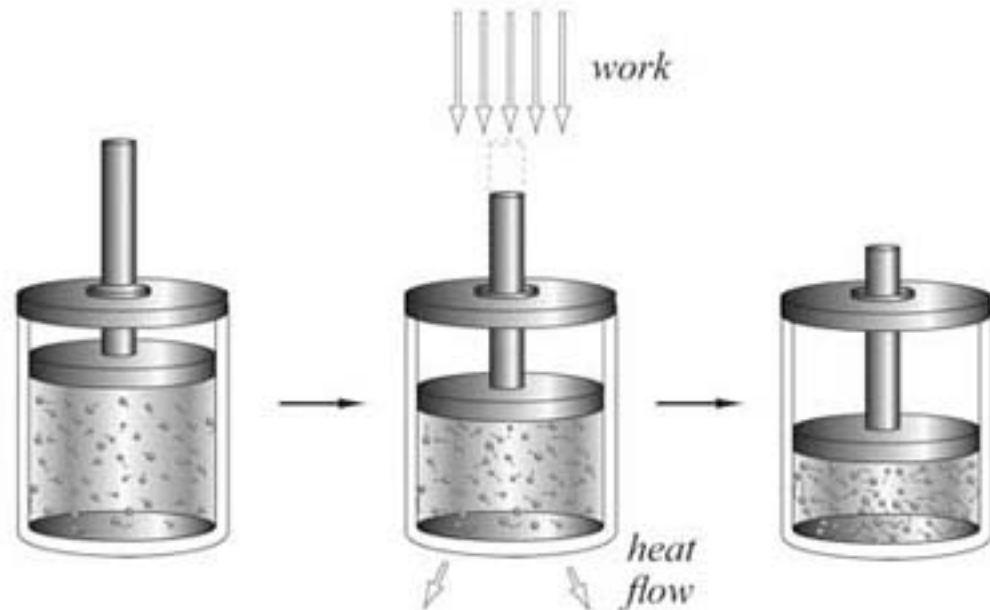
ΔU = internal energy change

Q = heat flow

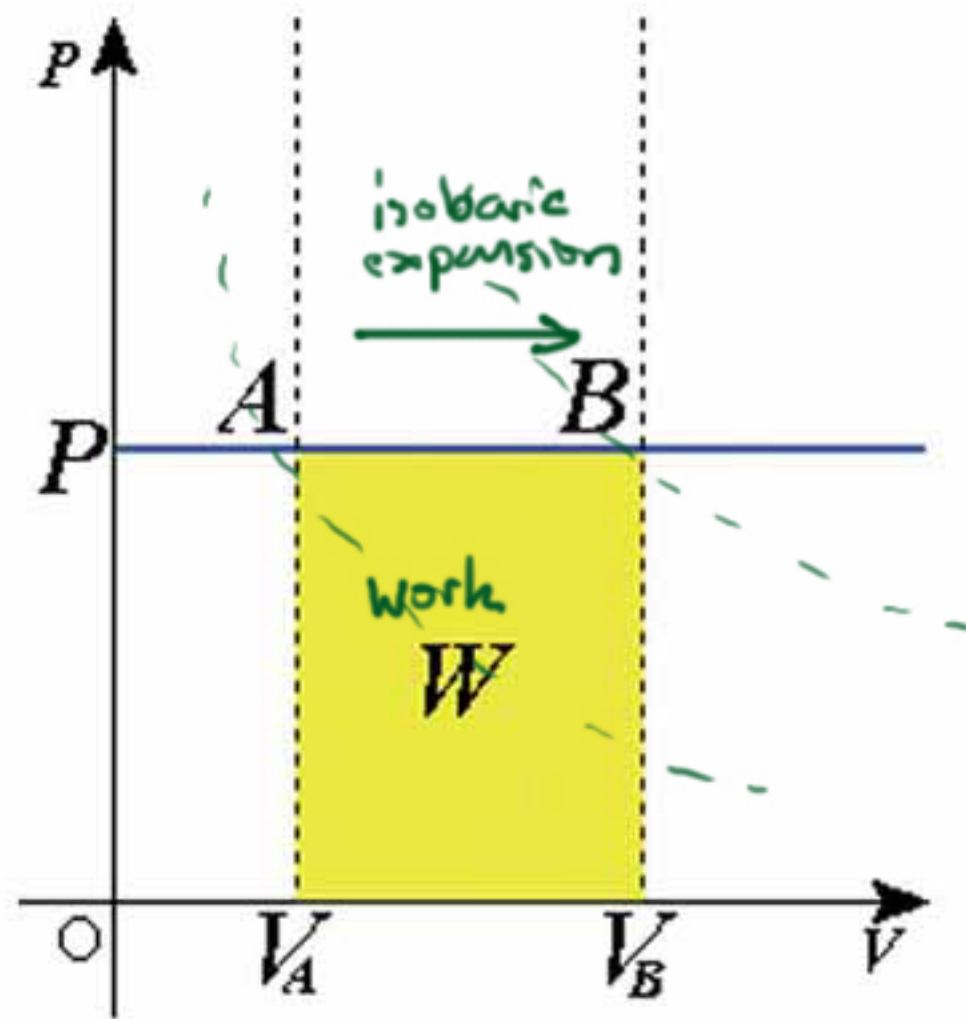
W = macroscopic work

P^* = constant pressure

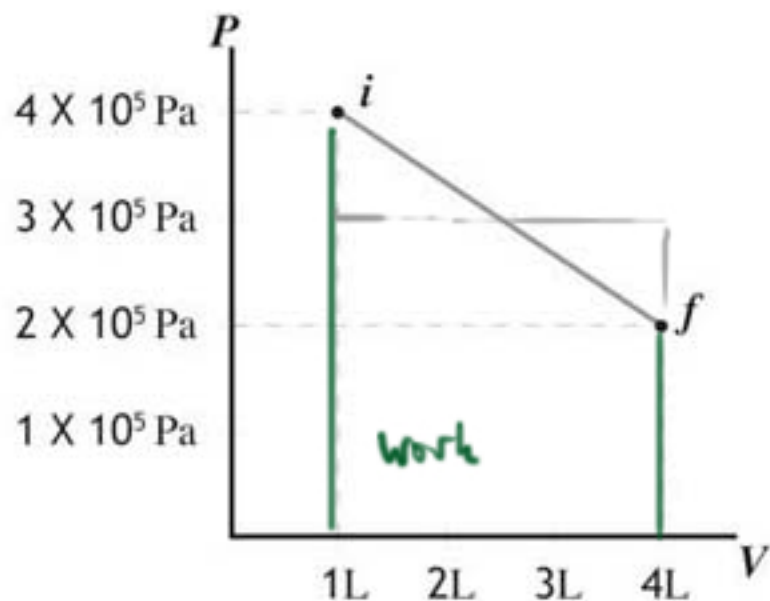
ΔV = volume change



Internal energy change results from the combination of heat flow and work between the system and its surroundings. In this example, the internal energy of our ideal gas system became greater (the particles are moving faster in the final state) because more energy entered the system through work than departed the system as heat flow.

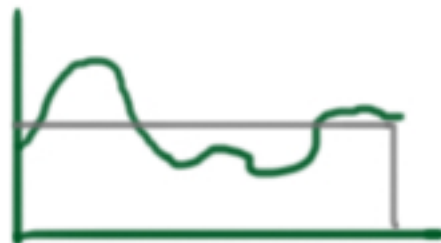


The straight line on the graph shows the path between the initial and final states in the expansion of a gas. How much work is performed by the gas during the expansion?

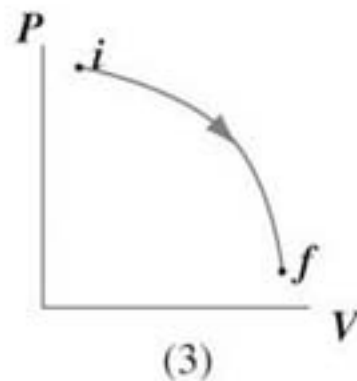
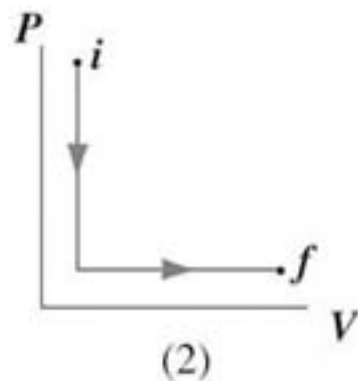
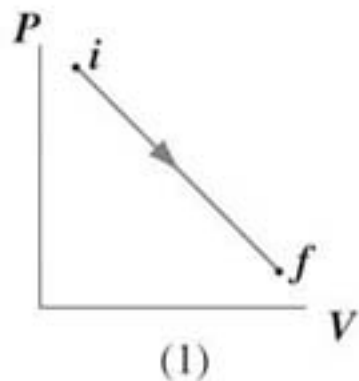


$$(3 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa})(3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3)$$

- a. 900 J
- b. 1150 J
- c. 90,000 J
- d. $9 \times 10^5 \text{ J}$



An ideal gas is taken from the same initial state and same final state by the three alternative pathways:



Which of the following are equal for all three pathways.

- ☒ I. work done by the gas
- ☒ II. heat flow between the gas and the surroundings
- ☒ III. internal energy change
- ☒ IV. temperature change

$$u = \frac{3}{2} nRT$$

state functions

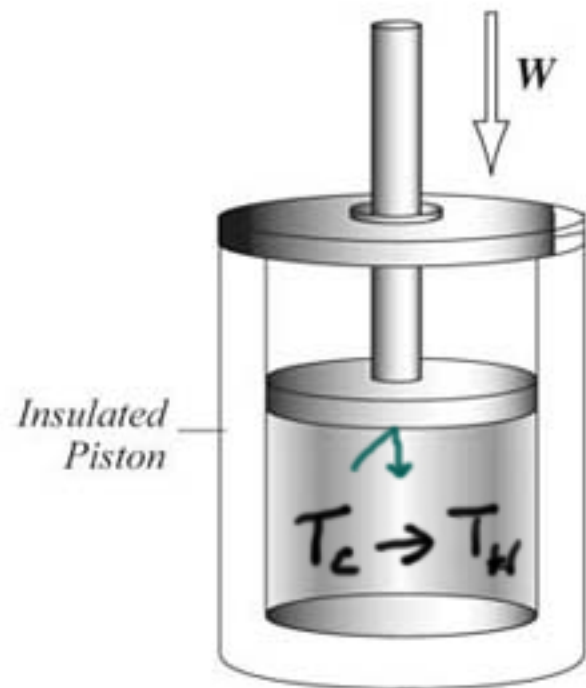
- a. II only
- b. II and IV
- c. III and IV
- d. I, II, III, and IV

$$\Delta u = Q - W$$

↑ ↑ ↑
same different different

Adiabatic Process

↖ no heat flow



No Heat Flow

$$Q = 0$$

$$\Delta U = -W$$

First law of thermodynamics
for an adiabatic process

Q = heat flow

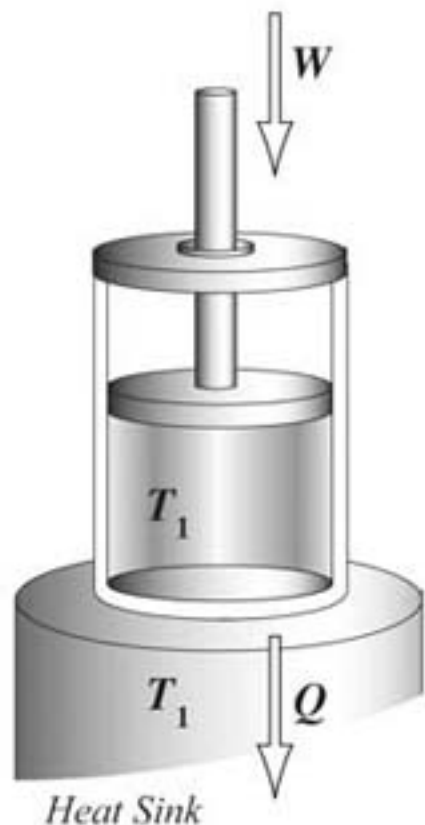
ΔU = internal energy change

W = macroscopic work

In an adiabatic process, no heat flow occurs, so internal energy change directly corresponds to the work performed.

Isothermal Process

↖ constant T



$$\Delta U = 0$$

$$Q = W$$

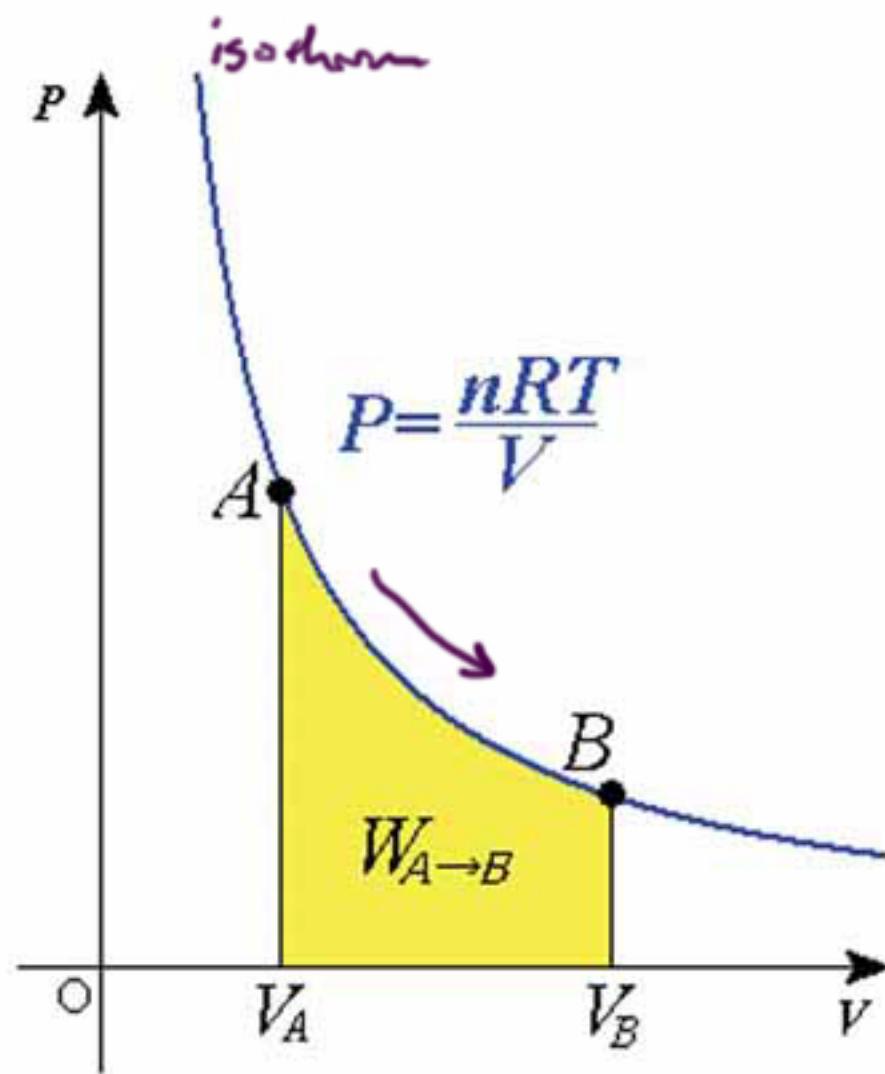
*First law of thermodynamics
for an isothermal process*

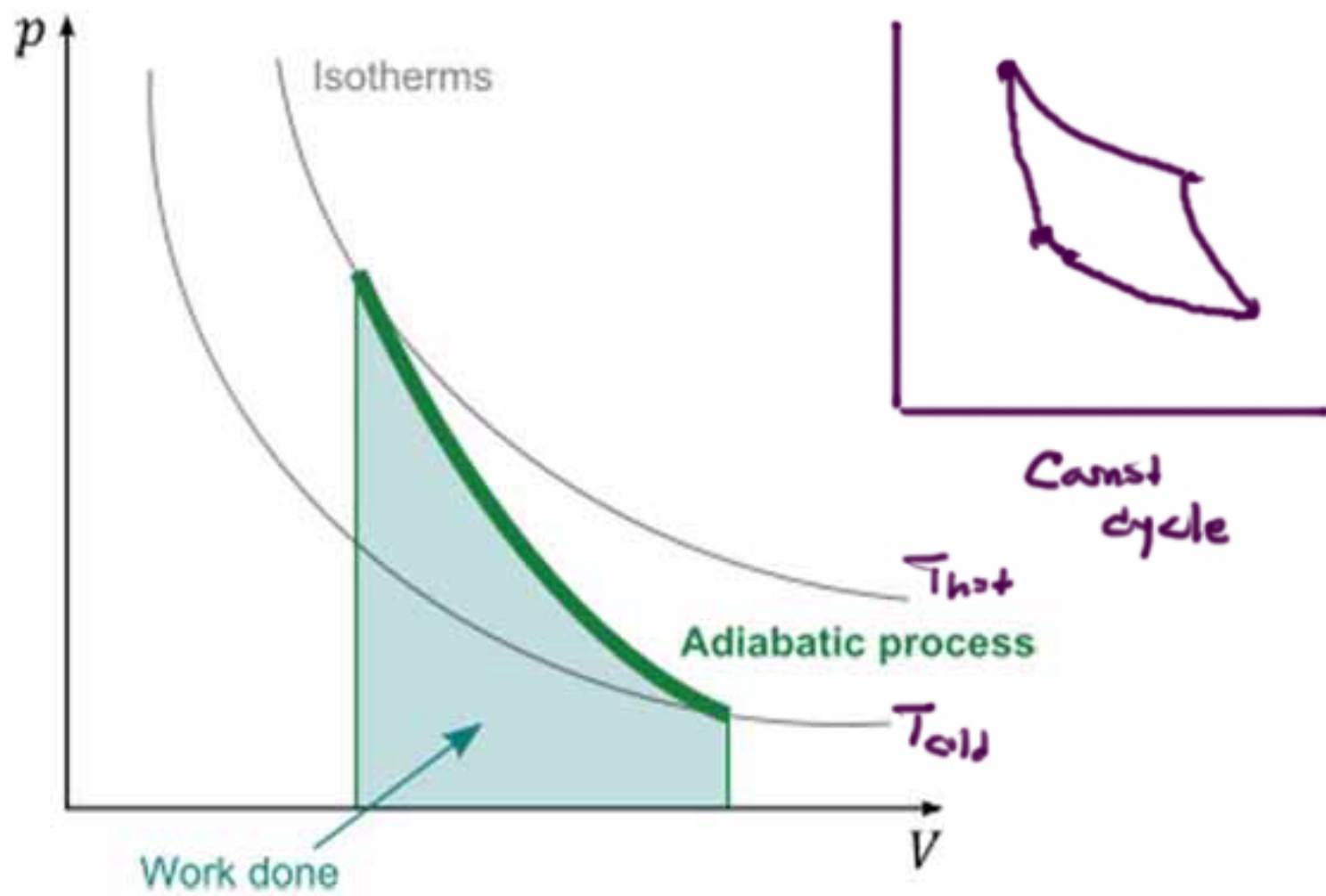
ΔU = internal energy change

Q = heat flow

W = macroscopic work

In an isothermal process on an ideal gas, the temperature is constant. Because temperature is constant, internal energy must be constant. If internal energy is constant, any work that occurs must be balanced by heat flow.





Isovolumetric Process

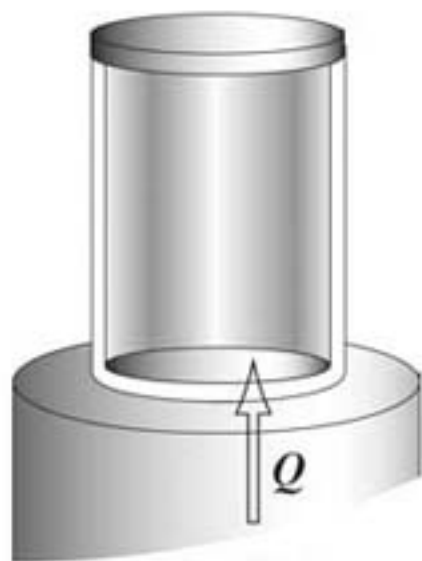
isochore

work $P\Delta V$
 $\Delta V = 0$
no work

$$W = 0$$

$$\Delta U = Q$$

*First law of thermodynamics
for an isovolumetric process*

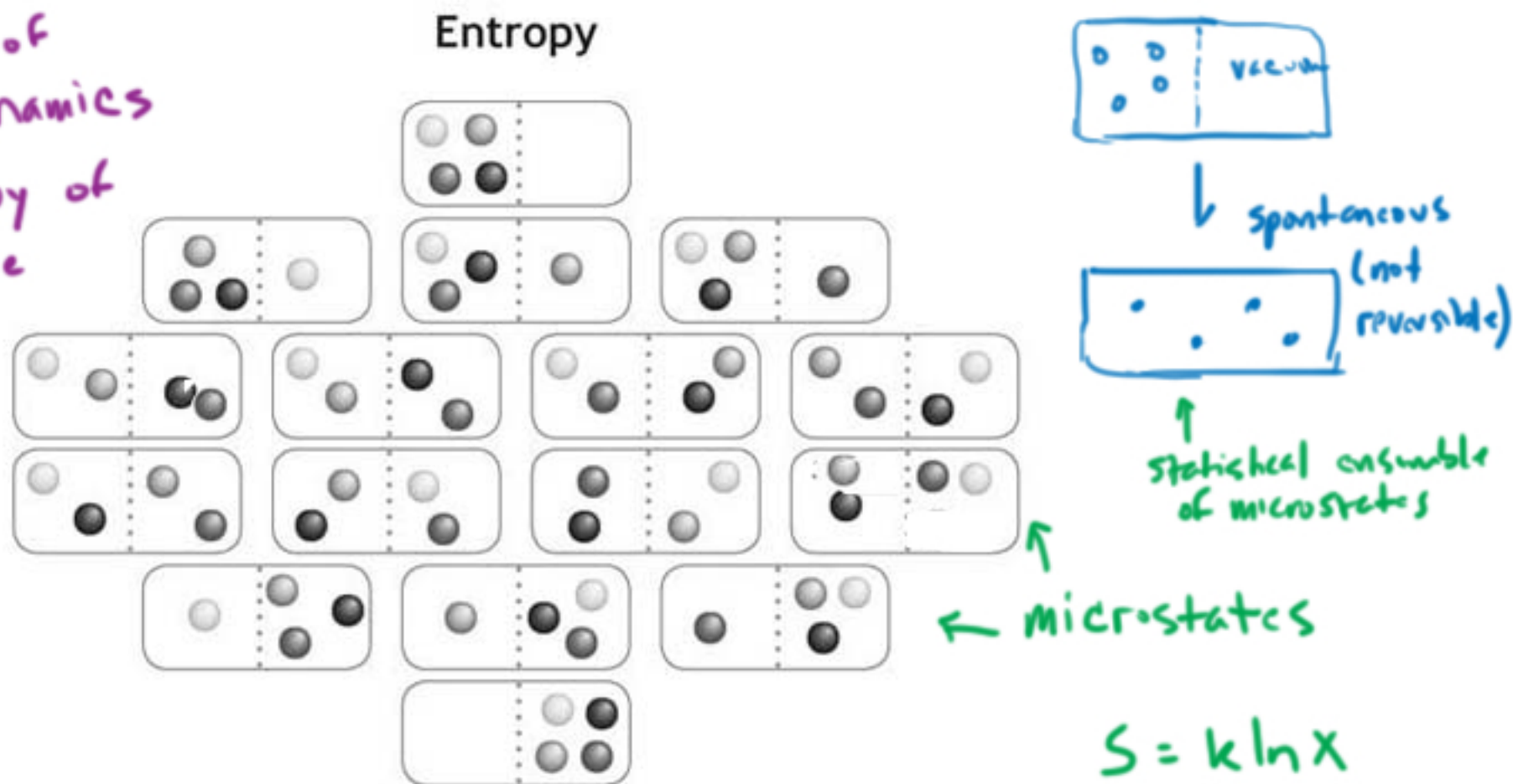


Heat Sink

W = macroscopic work
 ΔU = internal energy change
 Q = heat flow

In an isovolumetric process, no thermodynamic work occurs. The only way internal energy changes is through heat flow.

2nd Law of Thermodynamics
The entropy of the universe always increases.



An isolated system tends toward disorder (greater entropy) because disordered states are more probable. Possible disordered states outnumber ordered states.

- In the system below, two bulbs are connected by a tube and stopcock. In the initial state, all of the gas (N particles) is constrained to occupy a single bulb. When the stopcock is opened, the gas spontaneously moves to occupy both bulbs. In this example, with the stopcock opened, the probability of the second state is 2^N times that of the initial state.



adiabatic
free
expansion

- Entropy rises with the multiplicity of the system (the number of possible internal configurations that correspond to a particular macrostate).

$$S = k \ln X$$

S	= entropy
k	= Boltzmann's constant
X	= multiplicity

Free expansion is an irreversible process in which a gas expands into an insulated evacuated chamber. During a free expansion

- I. the temperature remains constant
- II. the entropy of the gas increases
- III. the internal energy of the gas remains constant

- A. I
- B. I and III
- C. II and III
- ☒ D. I, II, and III

Carbon monoxide is a linear molecule. The carbon and oxygen atoms are roughly the same size and the dipole moment of the molecule is relatively small. This means that at temperatures just below its freezing point (74K), the molecules of this substance can flip easily in the crystal and assume one of two orientations with equal probability. The probability of flipping vanishes at even lower temperatures, though, as the temperature approaches absolute zero, where motion ceases and only one quantum energy state is available to each molecule. At absolute zero, the theoretical entropy of pure carbon monoxide crystal would be:

a. zero



carbon monoxide



☒ b. a small positive value



c. a small negative value



d. absolute zero is impossible to attain

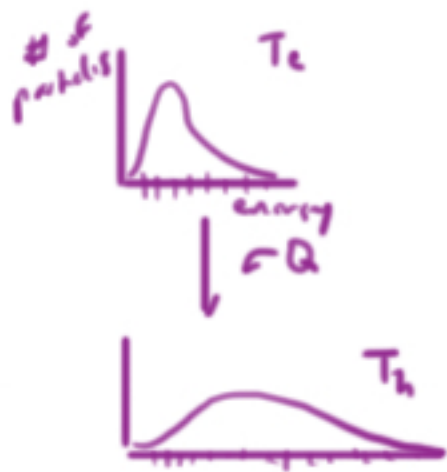
Entropy Change Due to Heat Flow

$$\Delta S = \frac{\Delta Q_r}{T}$$

ΔS = entropy change

$\frac{Q_r}{T}$ = heat flow (in reversible process)

T = temperature



entropy lost

$$\Delta S_H = \frac{Q}{T_H}$$

T_H

Spontaneous



T_c

entropy gained

$$\Delta S_c = \frac{Q}{T_c}$$



T_r



T_w

thermal equilibrium

- entropy gained by the cold body is greater than what was lost by the hot body.

- entropy of the universe increased.

$$\Delta S_{\text{universe}} \oplus$$

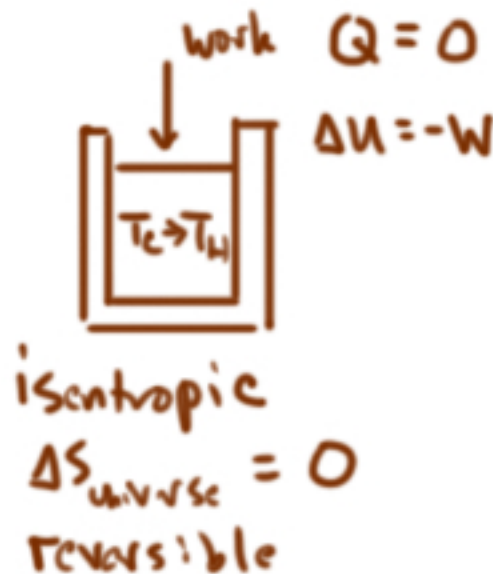
When a hot stone is dropped into a cool water bath and heat flows from the stone into the bath

- A. More entropy is lost in the stone than gained by the water.
- B. More entropy is gained by the stone than lost by the water.
- ☒ C. Less entropy is lost by the stone than gained by the water.
- D. The change in entropy in the stone is balanced by an equal and opposite change in entropy in the water.

$$\Delta U = Q - W$$

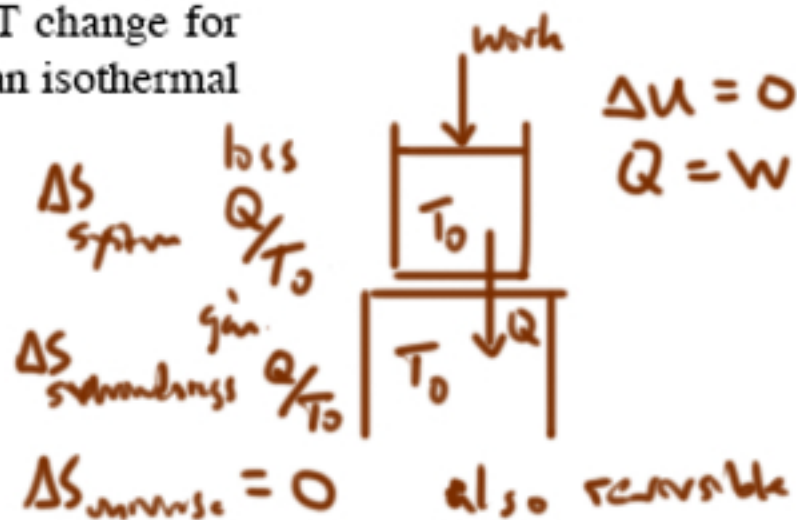
Which of the following does NOT change for a sample of ideal gas undergoing an adiabatic compression?

- ☒ A. entropy
- ☐ B. internal energy
- ☐ C. pressure
- ☐ D. volume



Which of the following does NOT change for a sample of ideal gas undergoing an isothermal compression?

- ☐ A. entropy
- ☒ B. internal energy
- ☐ C. pressure
- ☐ D. volume





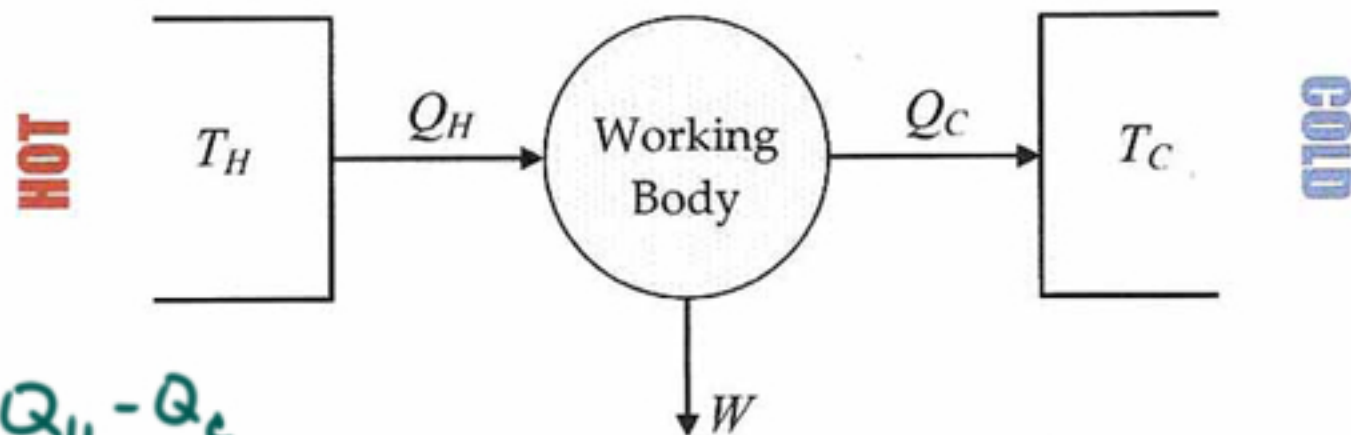
A sealed container holds 1-L of hydrogen gas (H_2) at STP. A second sealed container holds 1-L of helium gas (He) at STP. Both containers are heated isochorically to 100°C . Which gas experiences the greatest change in entropy?

• same # of moles

- ☒ A. the hydrogen gas
B. the helium gas
C. both have equal changes in entropy
D. the entropy of neither gas changes



- How much of Q_H can we turn into work? thermal efficiency $\frac{W}{Q_H}$
- We know that we can turn none into work. That's spontaneous. Q_H
- Can we turn all of it into work? $\Delta S_H = \frac{Q_H}{T_H} \leftarrow$ hot body lost entropy $\Delta S_{universe}$ would be \ominus impossible



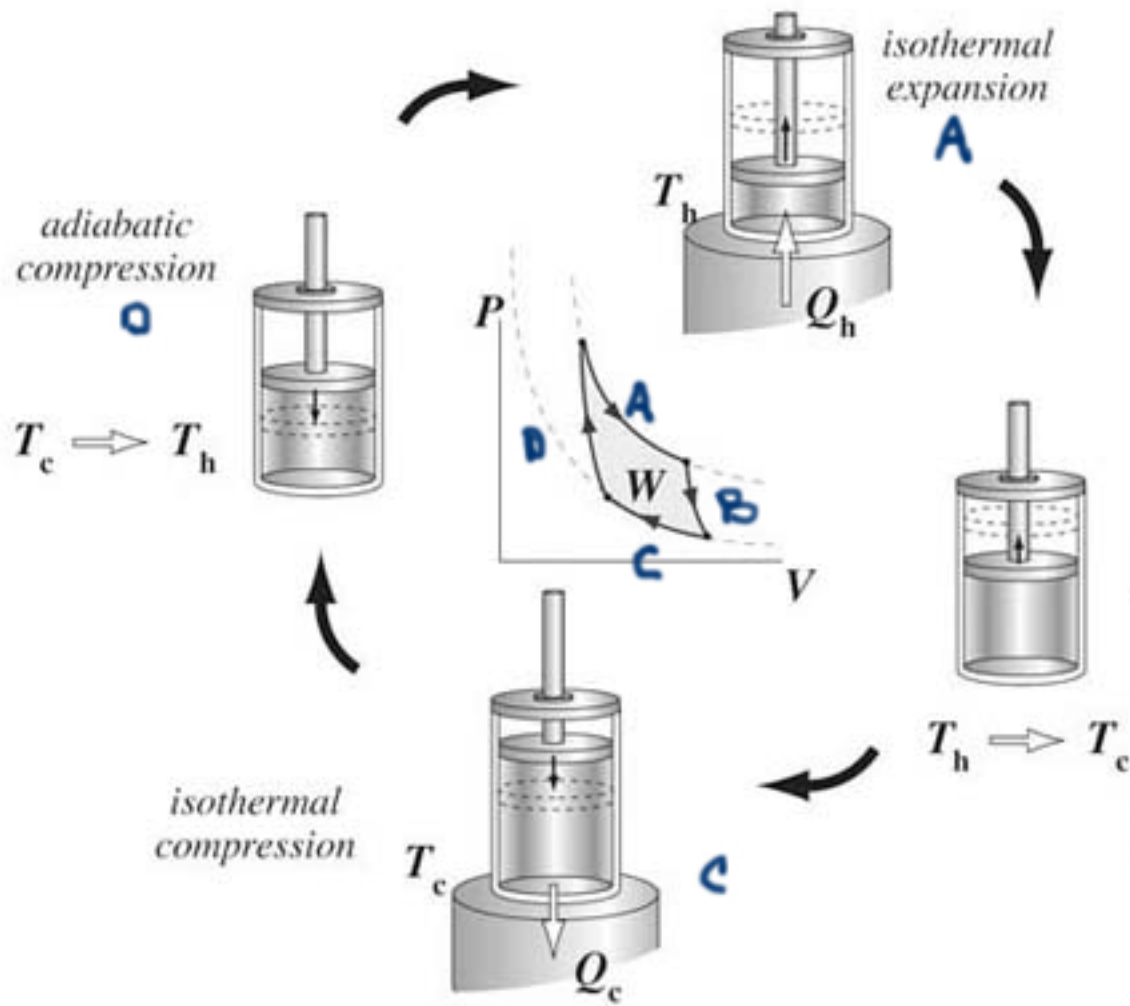
$$W = Q_H - Q_C$$

Best we can do is a reversible engine. $\frac{Q_H}{T_H} = \frac{Q_C}{T_C}$

combine equations: $\varepsilon = \frac{W}{Q_H} = 1 - \frac{T_C}{T_H}$

entropy lost = entropy gained
 $\Delta S_{universe} = 0$

The Carnot Cycle



A Reversible Engine

$\Delta S_{\text{system}} = 0$ It's a cycle!

$\Delta S_{\text{universe}} = 0$ all stages are reversible

$\Delta S_{\text{universe}} = \Delta S_{\text{system}} + \Delta S_{\text{surroundings}}$

$\Delta S_{\text{surroundings}} = 0$
 therefore $\frac{Q_h}{T_h} = \frac{Q_c}{T_c}$

because $W = Q_h - Q_c$

$\epsilon = \frac{W}{Q_h}$

$\epsilon = 1 - T_c/T_h$

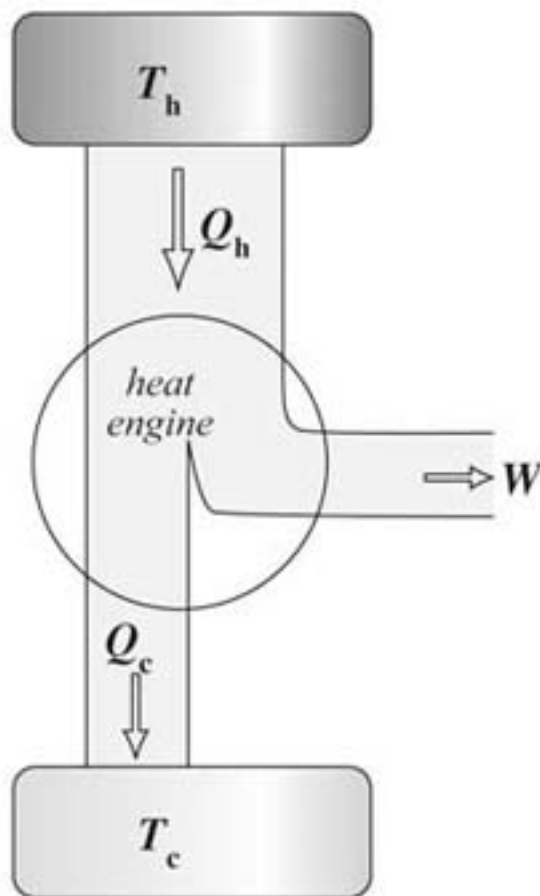
The Thermal Efficiency of a Heat Engine

$$\varepsilon = \frac{W}{Q_h} = \frac{Q_h - Q_c}{Q_h} = 1 - \frac{Q_c}{Q_h}$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{T_h - T_c}{T_h} = 1 - \frac{T_c}{T_h}$$

(with heat input and output occurring at fixed temperatures)

- ε = thermal efficiency
- W = net work
- Q_h = heat flow in
- Q_c = heat flow out
- T_h = hot sink temperature
- T_c = cold sink temperature



Which of the following would tend to increase the thermal efficiency of the single stroke steam engine at right?

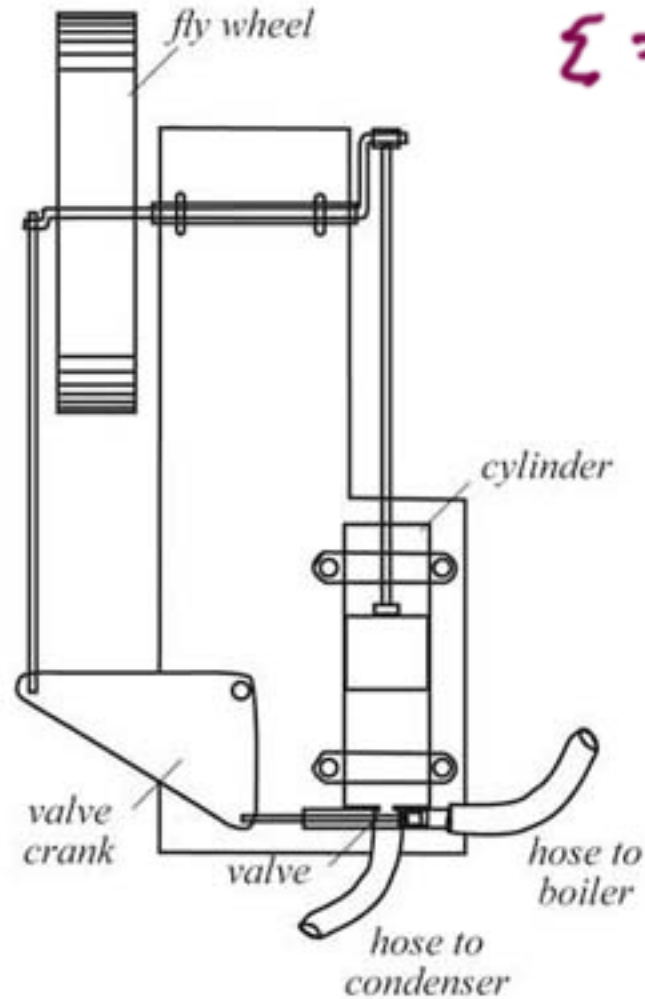
- I. Increasing boiler temperature
- II. Decreasing boiler temperature
- III. Increasing condenser temperature
- IV. Decreasing condenser temperature

a. I only

c. II only

b. I and IV

d. II and III



$$\epsilon = 1 - \frac{T_c}{T_h}$$

What is the maximum efficiency of an engine operating between 177 °C and 27 °C?

- A.** 33%
- B.** 85%
- C.** 50%
- D.** 15%

convert to Kelvin!

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon &= 1 - \frac{T_c}{T_H} \\ &= 1 - \frac{300\text{ K}}{450\text{ K}} \\ &= 33\%\end{aligned}$$

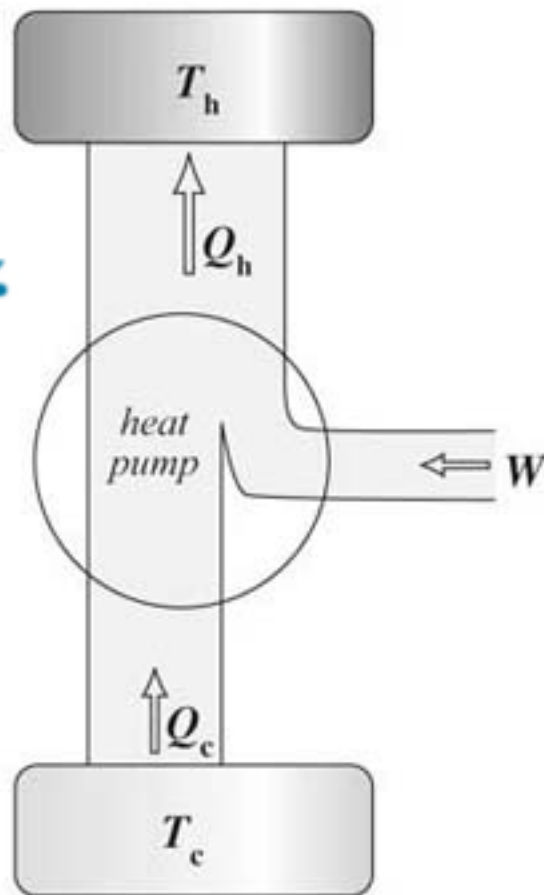
Coefficient of Performance

$$\text{COP} = \frac{Q_h}{W}$$
$$= \frac{T_h}{T_h - T_c}$$

$\frac{300 \text{ K}}{300 \text{ K} - 270 \text{ K}} = 10$

(with heat input and output occurring at fixed temperatures)

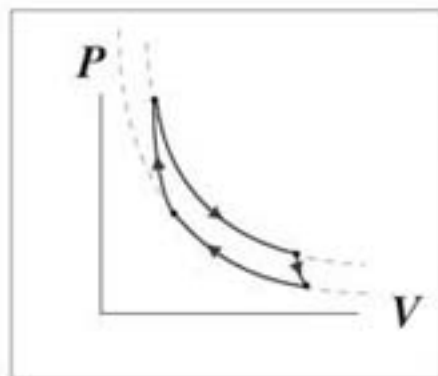
- ϵ = thermal efficiency
- W = net work
- Q_h = heat flow in
- Q_c = heat flow out
- T_h = hot sink temperature
- T_c = cold sink temperature



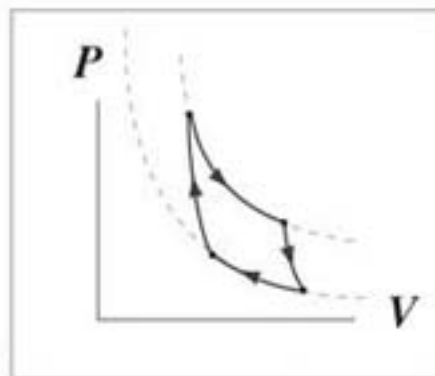
Which of the pressure-volume graphs below depicts the most efficient Carnot cycle?

$$\varepsilon = 1 - \frac{T_c}{T_h}$$

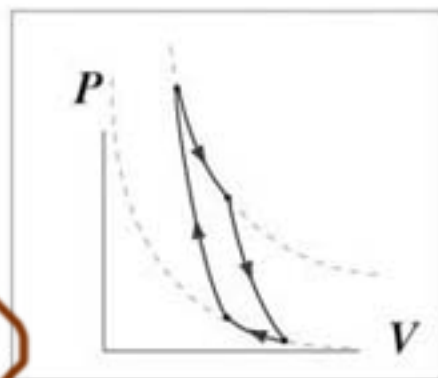
a.



c.



b.

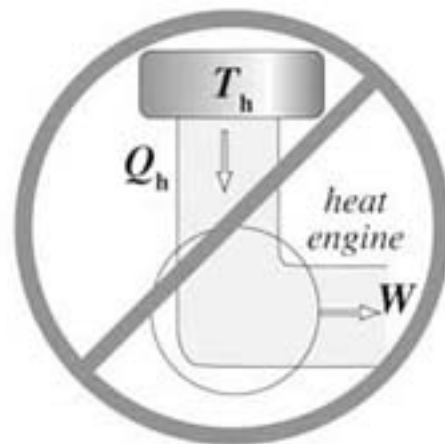


d. All three are equally efficient.

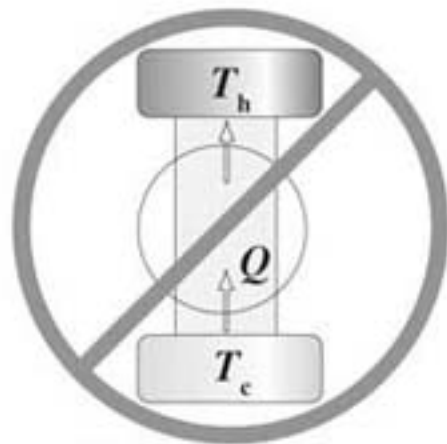
The Second Law of Thermodynamics

The entropy of the universe increases for all real processes.

No heat engine operating on a cycle can be 100% efficient (Kelvin's formulation).



Kelvin's formulation of the second law of thermodynamics



Clausius' formulation

An engine cannot transfer heat continuously from a colder to a hotter body and produce no other effects (Clausius' formulation).

DC Current

- current (I)

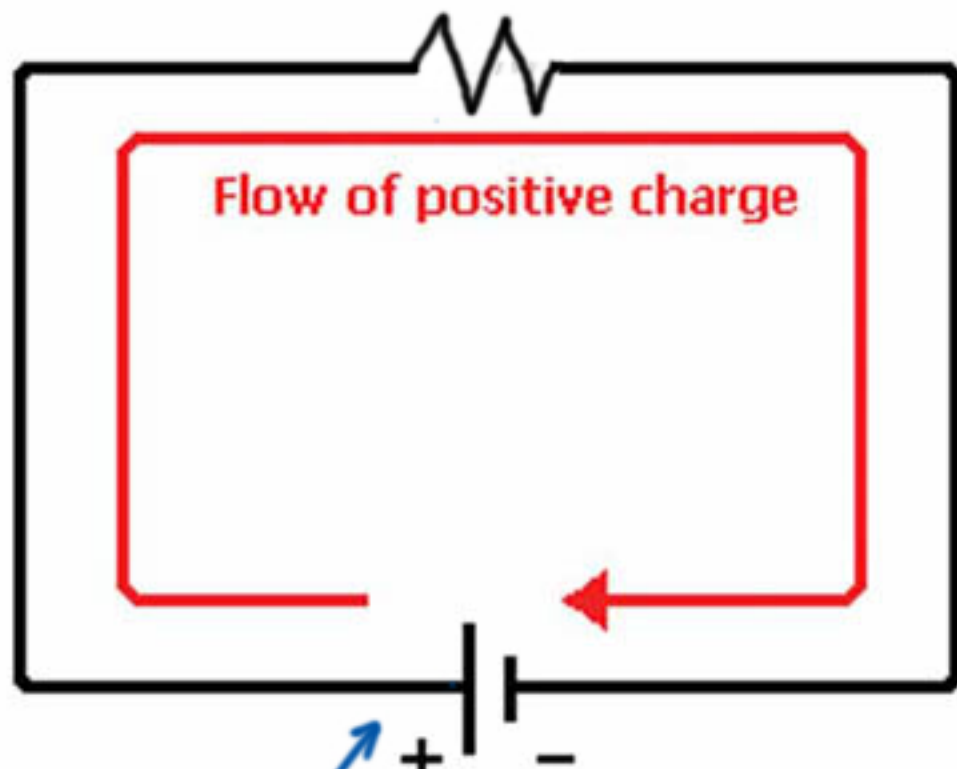
-ampere

$$1A = C/s$$

- Voltage (V)

$$1V = J/C$$

- resistance (Ω)



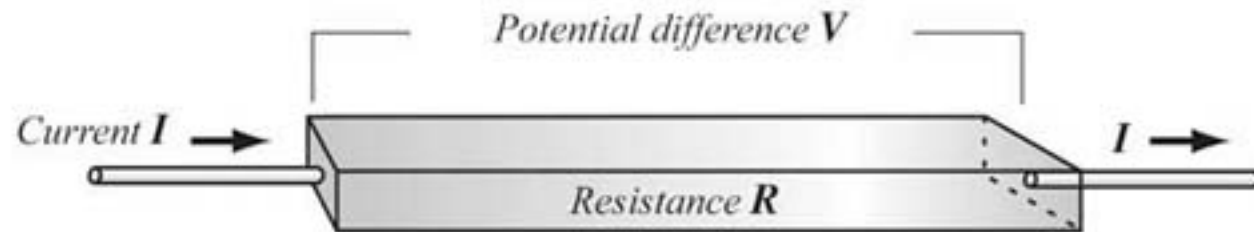
a coulomb
has 5 J more
energy here.

Ohm's Law

$$V = IR$$

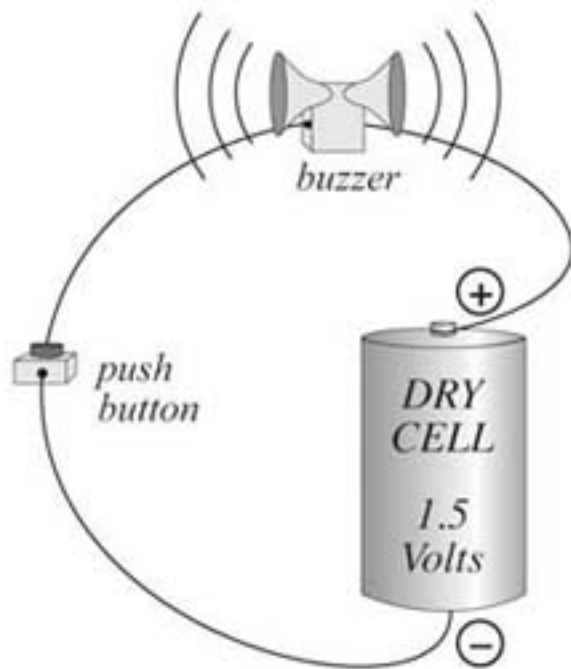
$$I = \frac{V}{R}$$

V = electric potential
 I = current
 R = resistance



When the push button at right is depressed, the 1.5 V battery causes the 50 Ω buzzer to sound. What current flows through the circuit?

- a. 15 mA
- ☒ b. 30 mA
- c. 75 A
- d. 150 A



$$V = IR$$

$$I = \frac{V}{R}$$

$$= \frac{1.5 \text{ V}}{50 \Omega}$$

Resistance of a Uniform Conductor

$$\rho = \frac{1}{\sigma}$$

conductivity
especially important
for solutions
of electrolyte

$$R = \frac{L}{\sigma A}$$

$$= \rho \frac{L}{A}$$

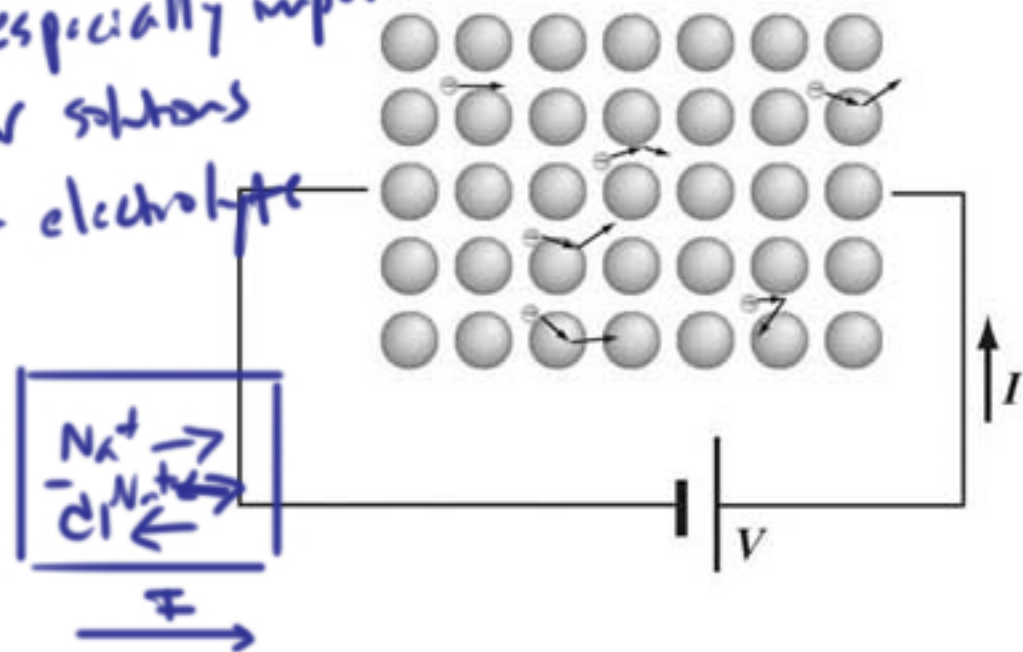
R = resistance
 L = resistor length
 A = resistor cross-sectional area
 σ = conductivity
 ρ = resistivity ($1/\sigma$)

Metal conductors

• Resistance
increases
with T

Semiconductors

• Resistance
decreases with
 T

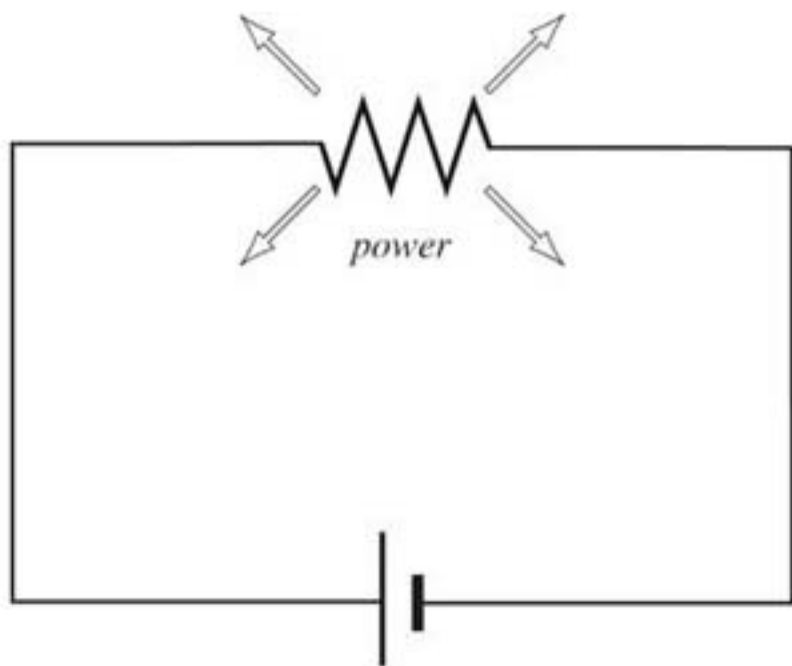


By convention, the direction of current is expressed as the flow of positive charge, which is opposite the direction of electron flow in a metallic conductor.

Electric Power

$$\underline{P = IV = I^2 R = \frac{V^2}{R}}$$

P = power
 I = current
 V = potential
 R = resistance

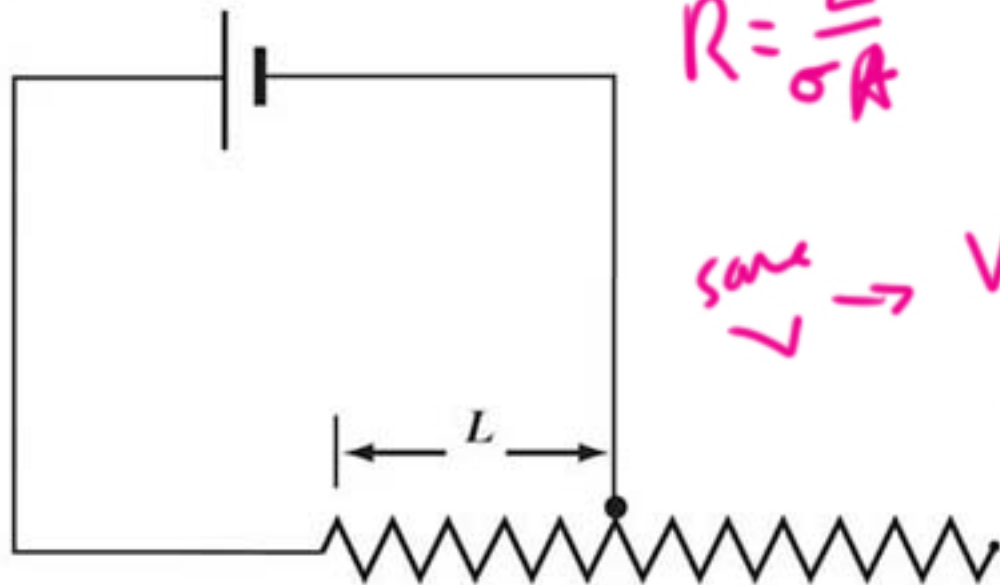


$$P = IV$$

$$\left(\frac{J}{s}\right) = \left(\frac{C}{s}\right)\left(\frac{J}{C}\right)$$

$$1 \frac{J}{s} = 1 \text{ watt}$$

With negligible internal resistance, a battery delivers a steady voltage to a variable resistor. With P_i representing the initial power output, what is the final power of the circuit when the length of the variable resistor is halved?



$$R = \frac{L}{\sigma A} \quad \frac{1}{2}L \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}R$$

same $\checkmark \rightarrow V = IR$
twice the current

a. $\frac{P_i}{4}$

b. $\frac{P_i}{\sqrt{2}}$

c. $2P_i$

d. $4P_i$

A 10V battery delivers current to a resistor immersed in 100g water within a Dewar flask. What is the approximate current if the temperature of the water rises by one degree celsius (1°C) per second?

$$c = 1 \text{ cal/g}^{\circ}\text{C}$$

$$P = 100 \text{ cal/s}$$

$$1 \text{ cal} = 4.18 \text{ J}$$

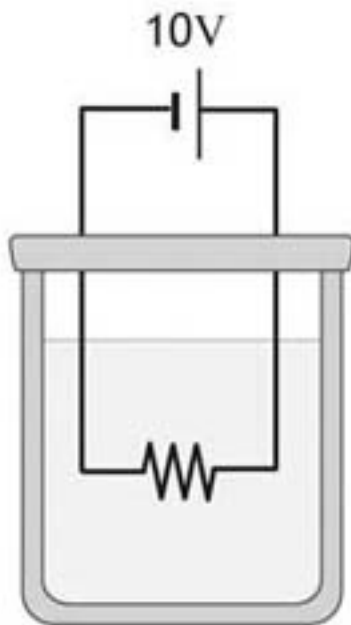
$$= 400 \text{ J/s}$$

a. 1 A

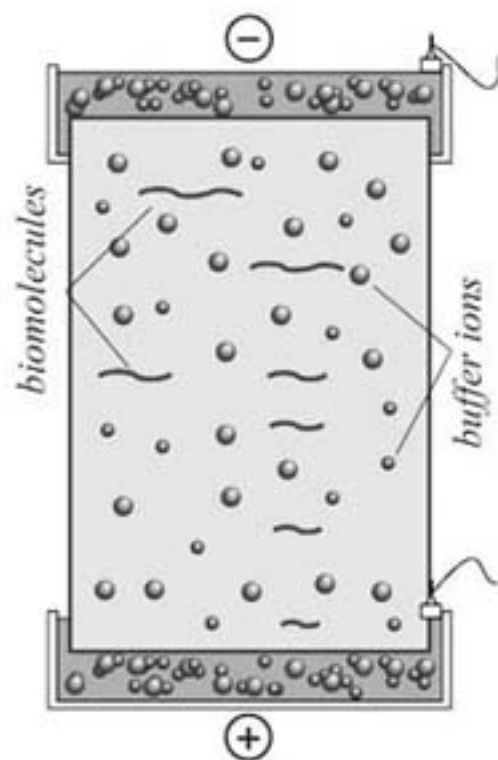
b. 2.5 A

c. 10 A

d. 40A



The varying mobility of biomolecules impelled by an electric field to migrate through a gel matrix enables their separation in gel electrophoresis. A buffered electrolyte solution provides the majority of electrical conductivity to the matrix. If a researcher inadvertently used a buffer solution of half normal concentration with the power supply set to its normal rate of constant current, which of the following would occur? (*Biomolecule charge-to-mass ratio unaffected*).



Resistance
has increased!

Current stayed
same.

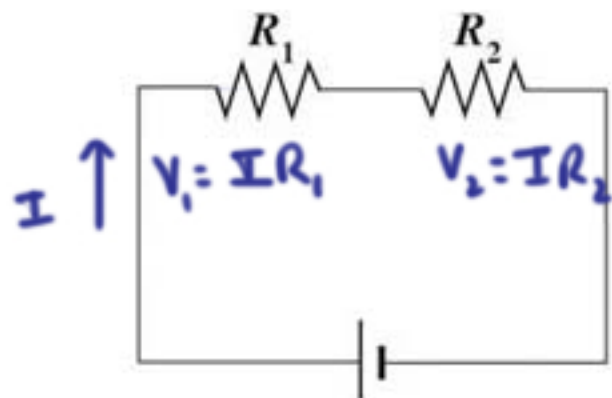
Voltage increases.

Power increased

$$V = Ed$$

- ☒ a. Slower migration of biomolecules
- ☒ b. Increased apparatus temperature
- ☒ c. Unchanged electrical parameters
- ☒ d. Decreased electric field strength

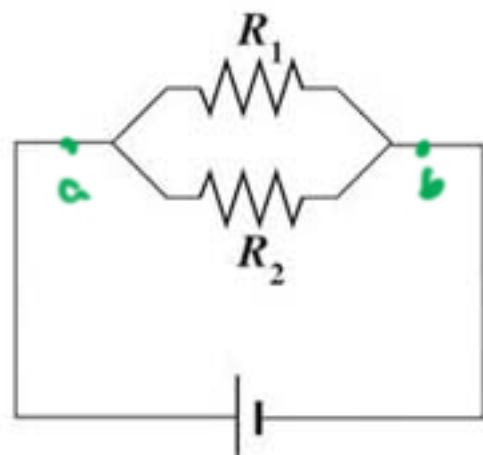
Equivalent Resistance of Series or Parallel Resistors



- current is the same through series resistors
- voltage drops as you go.

$$R_{\text{ser}} = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + \dots$$

The equivalent resistance of resistors in series is greater than the resistance of any individual resistor in the series.



- voltage is the same across parallel resistors
- current follows the path of least resistance.

$$\frac{1}{R_{\text{par}}} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \dots$$

The equivalent resistance of resistors in parallel is less than the resistance of any individual resistor in parallel.

$$\frac{1}{R_{\text{par}}} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}$$

$$R_{\text{par}} = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

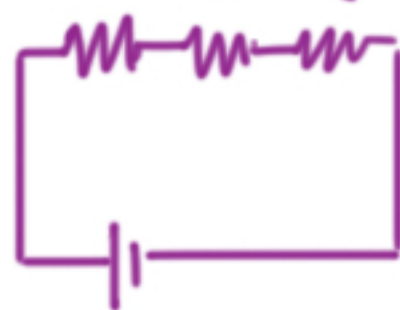
When three light bulbs of different wattage are attached in series to a steady DC power source, the order of brightness is $C > B > A$. If the circuit is then reconfigured so that the three bulbs are arranged in parallel, what would be the order of brightness in the new configuration?

$$P_C > P_B > P_A$$

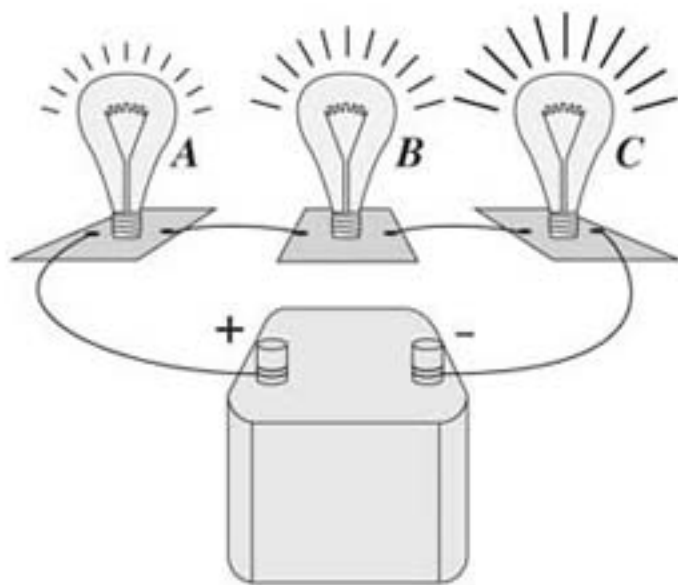
$$V_C > V_B > V_A$$

$$R_C > R_B > R_A$$

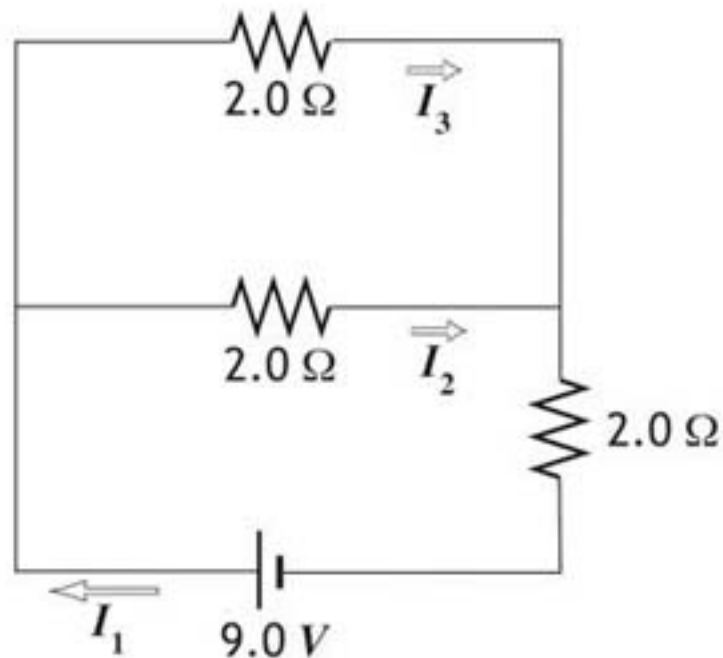
A B C



- a. $A > B > C$
- b. $B > A > C$
- c. $C > B > A$
- d. $A = B = C$



What is the value of the primary current, I_1 ?



$$R_{\text{eq}} = 1\ \Omega$$

a. 1.5 A

b. 2.25 A

c. 3.0 A

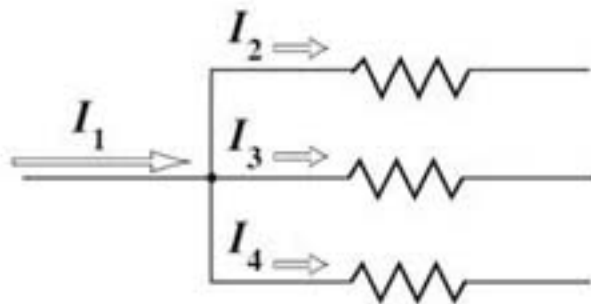
d. 4.5 A

Kirchhoff's Rules

Kirchhoff's First Rule (Branch Theorem)

$$I_1 = I_2 + I_3 + I_4$$

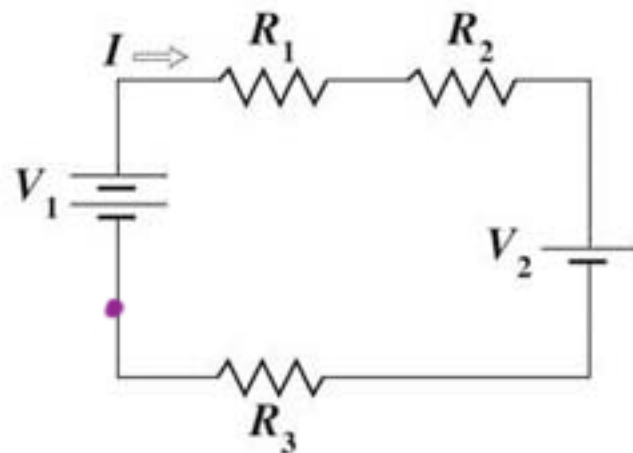
The sum of the currents into a junction equals the sum of currents out of the junction.



Kirchhoff's Second Rule (Loop Theorem)

$$V_1 - IR_1 - IR_2 - V_2 - IR_3 = 0$$

The sum of the changes in potential around any closed path is zero.



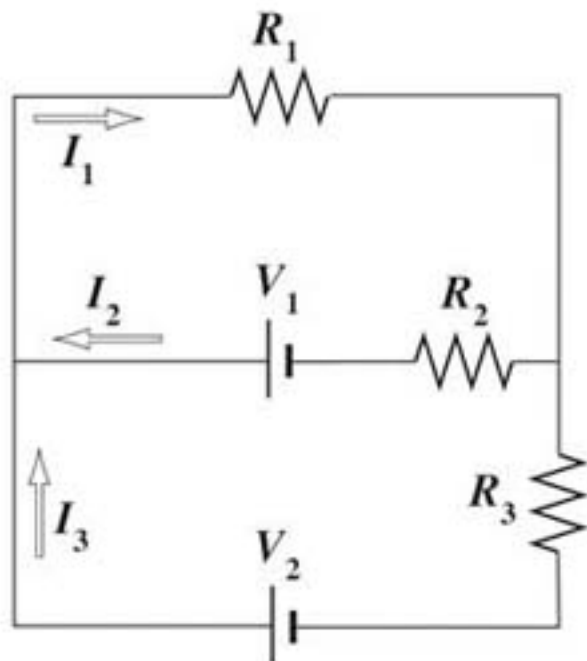
Which of the following statements validly describes the circuit at right?

I. $V_1 - I_1 R_1 - I_2 R_2 = 0$

II. $V_1 - V_2 + I_3 R_3 - I_2 R_2 = 0$

III. $I_1 = I_2 + I_3$

IV. $V_2 - I_1 R_1 - I_3 R_3 = 0$



a. I only

b. I and II

c. I, II and III

d. I, II, III, and IV

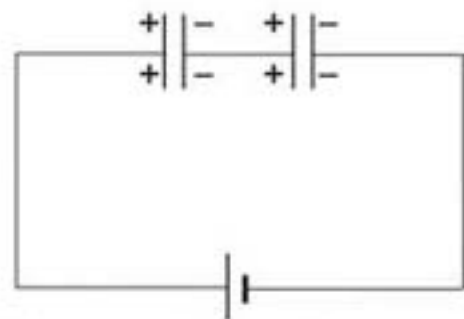
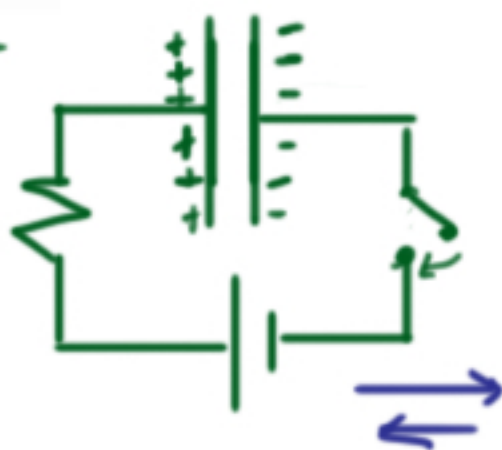
Capacitance

A capacitor with a high capacitance can hold a large amount of charge without requiring a high voltage.

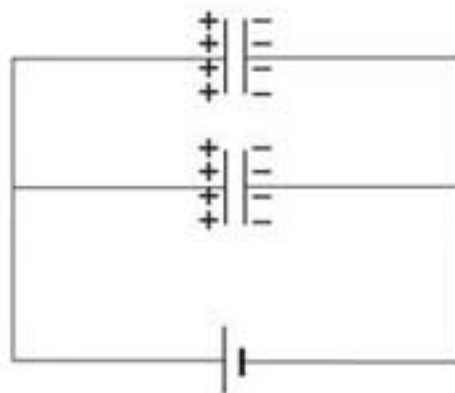
$$C = \frac{Q}{V}$$

C = capacitance
 Q = electric charge on a single plate
 V = voltage

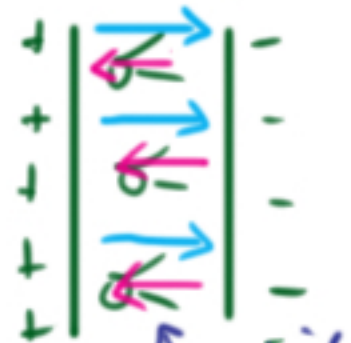
RC circuit



$$\frac{1}{C_{\text{ser}}} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} + \frac{1}{C_3} + \dots$$



$$C_{\text{par}} = C_1 + C_2 + C_3 + \dots$$

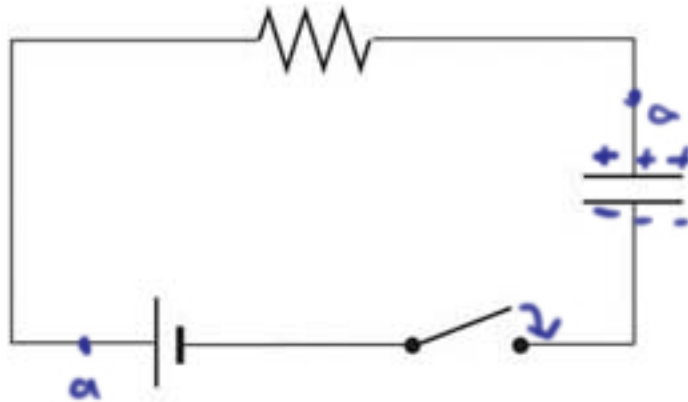


$$V = Ed$$

increased
capacitance

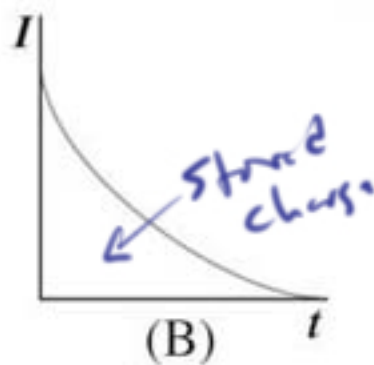
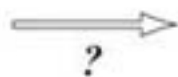
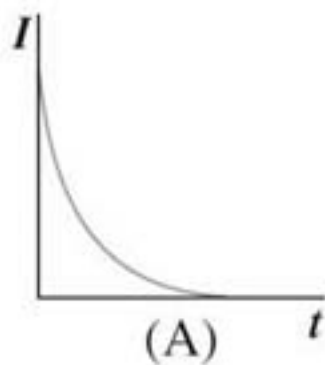
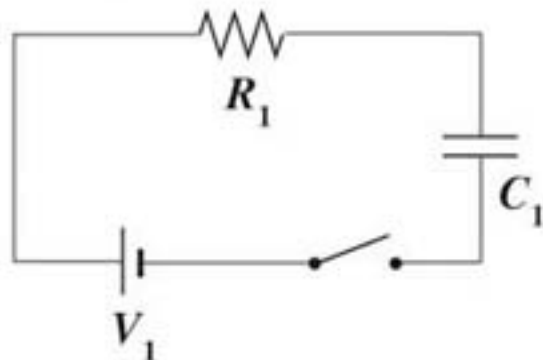
Placing capacitors in series decreases the total capacitance, while placing capacitors in parallel increases the total capacitance.

The RC circuit at right consists of a capacitor in series with a battery, resistor and a switch. What occurs within the circuit after the switch is closed?



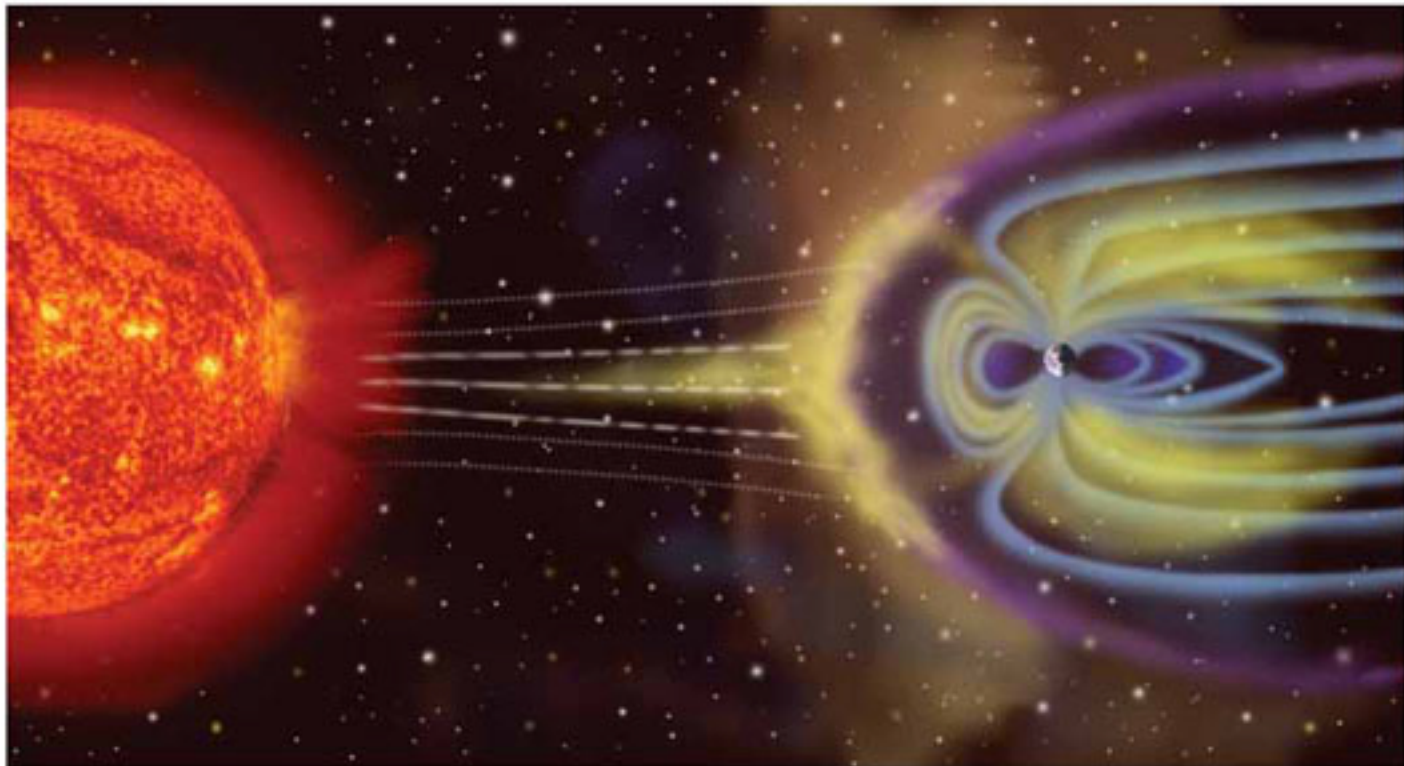
- a. The voltage drop across the resistor decreases with time until there is no voltage acting across the resistor.
- b. The current is not steady state. It slowly increases with time.
- c. After the capacitor has fully charged, the current flows in the opposite direction.
- d. The work done by the external voltage of the battery becomes stored potential energy in the charged capacitor.

Graph (A) shows the current vs. time that occurs after the switch is closed in the circuit at right. How could the circuit be altered to transform the current vs. time graph into graph (B)?



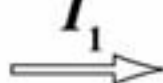
- a. Include another resistor in series with R_1
- b. Include another resistor in parallel with R_1
- c. Include another capacitor in series with C_1
- d. Include another capacitor in parallel with C_1

Magnetism



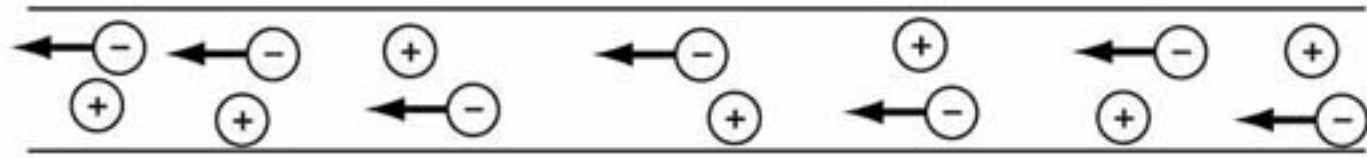
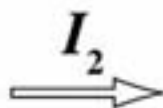
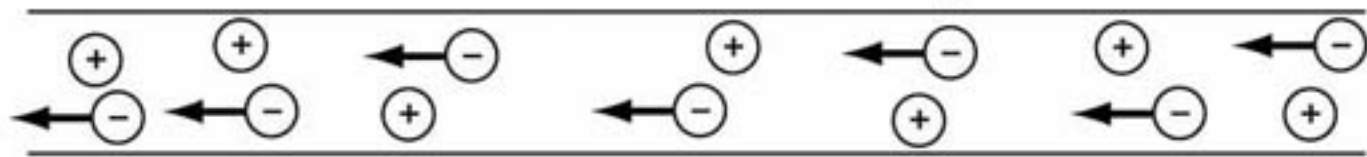
from the
P.D.V. (reference frame)
of a \ominus on wire 2,

the charges
on wire 1
look like this



speed relative
to our
charge.

due to
relativistic
length
contraction

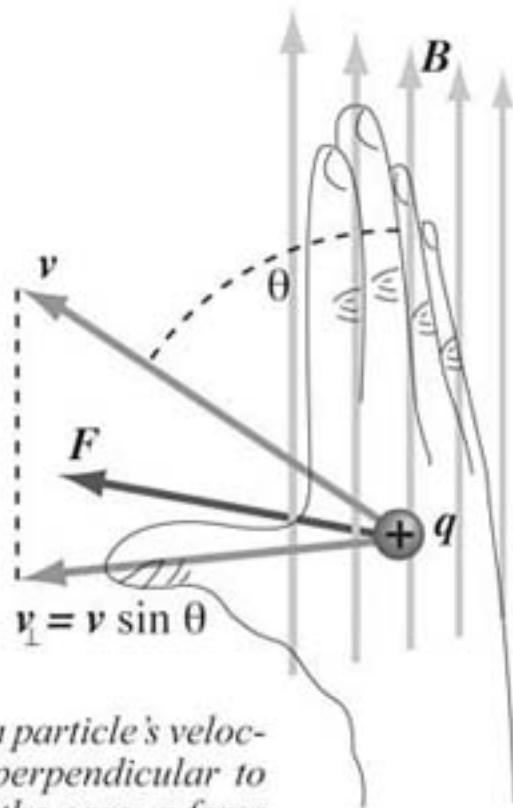


supplemental

Magnetic Force on a Moving Charge

$$F = qB v \sin \theta$$

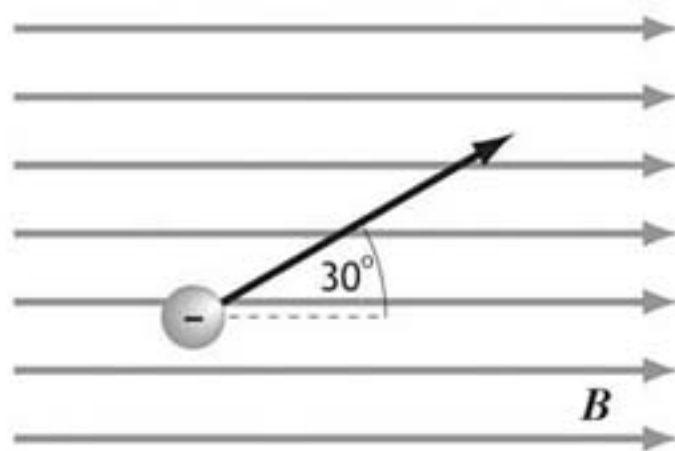
- F = magnetic force
 q = particle charge
 B = magnetic field strength
 v = particle speed
 θ = angle between particle velocity and the magnetic field



To produce a magnetic force, a particle's velocity must have a component perpendicular to the magnetic field. If that is the case, a force is produced perpendicular to both the field and the particle's velocity.

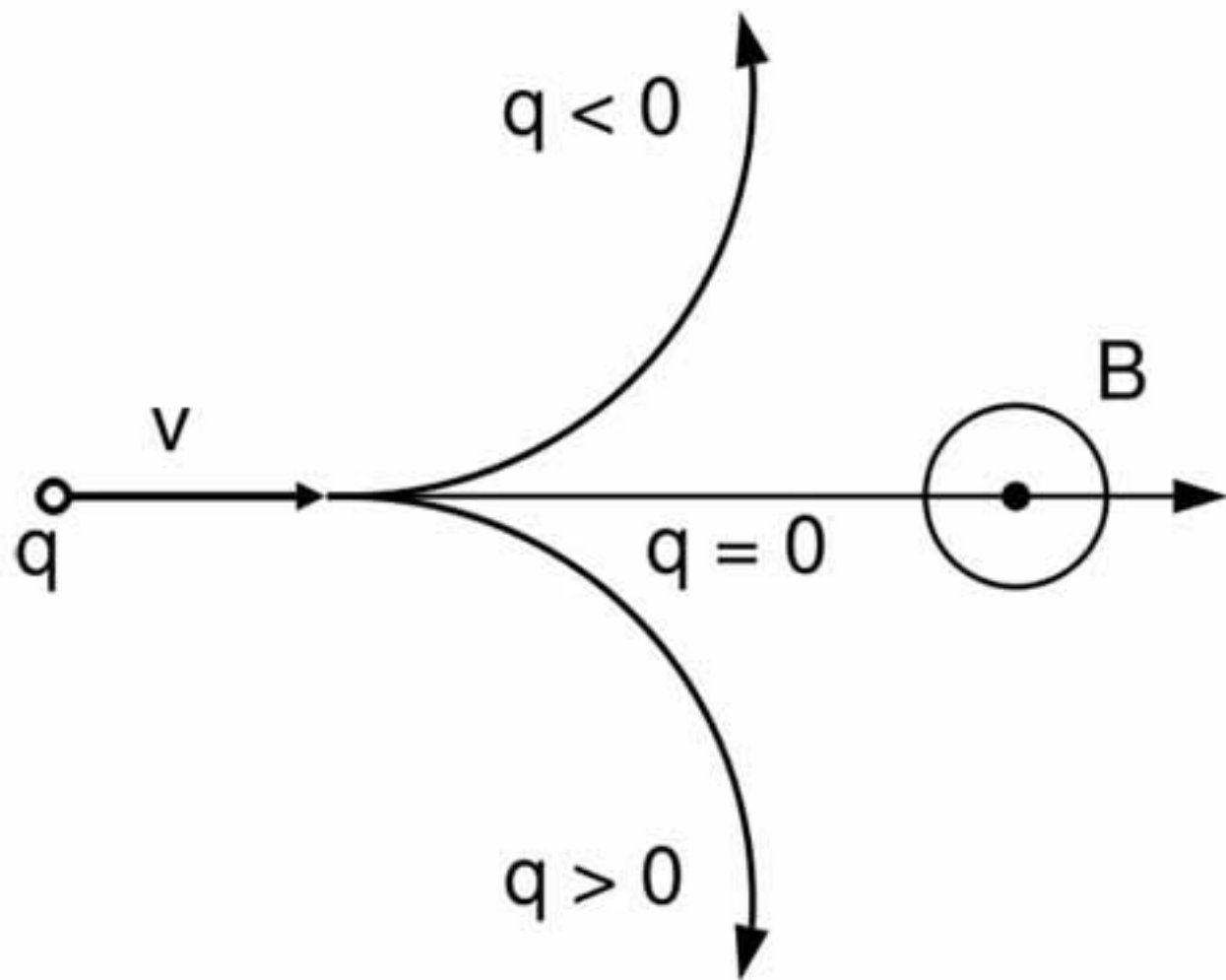


A beta (β^-) particle (charge $-1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$) moves at a speed of $1 \times 10^5 \text{ m/s}$ at an angle of 30° to a uniform 20 T magnetic field in the plane of the image at right. What is the magnetic force on the particle?

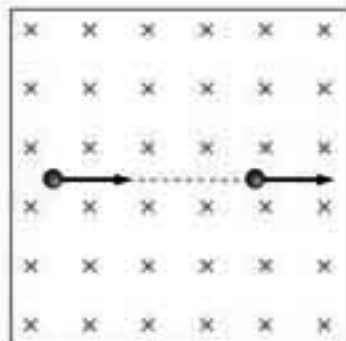
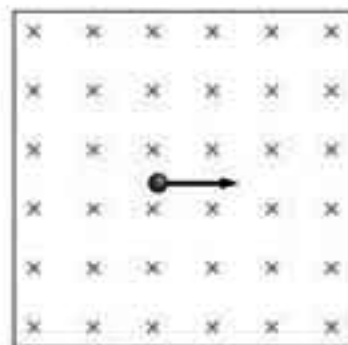


- a. $1.6 \times 10^{-13} \text{ N}$ directed out of the plane
- b. $1.6 \times 10^{-13} \text{ N}$ directed into the plane
- c. $\sqrt{3} \times 10^{-13} \text{ N}$ directed out of the plane
- d. there is no magnetic force on the particle

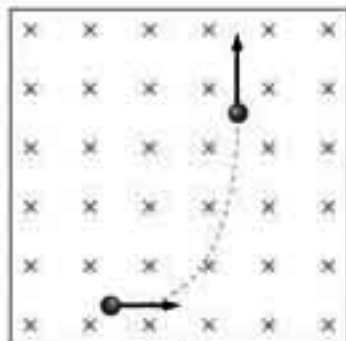
$$F = qBv_{\perp}$$



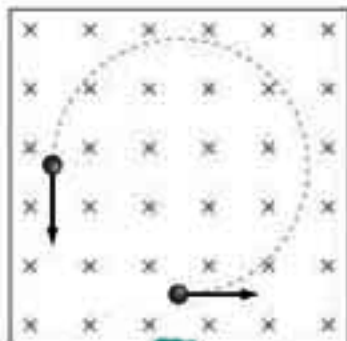
The figure at right shows the instantaneous velocity of a positively charged particle within a uniform magnetic field. Particle velocity is perpendicular to the magnetic field (directed into the plane). Which of the following images best represents possible subsequent motion of the particle?



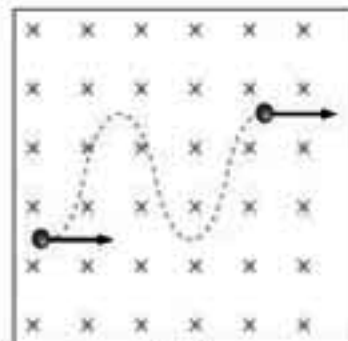
(a)



(b)



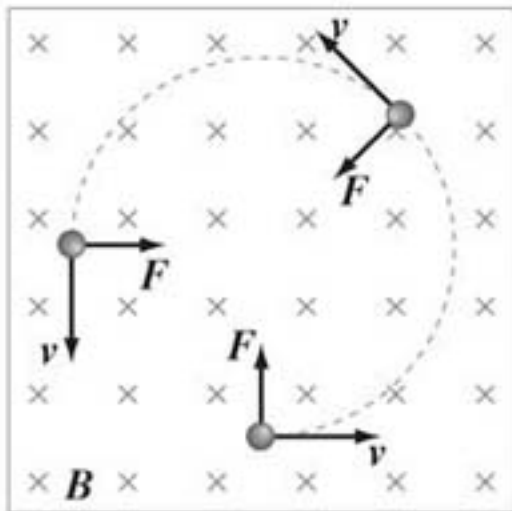
(c)



(d)

The answer is (c)

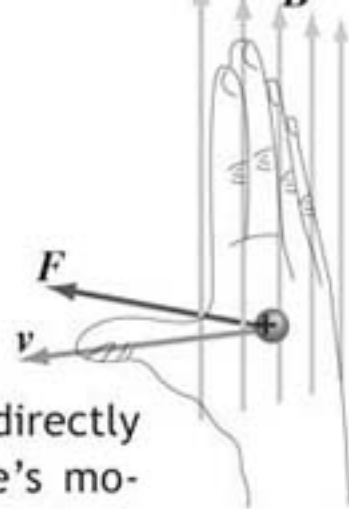
The magnetic force is perpendicular both to the particle velocity and to the magnetic field. The particle moves in a circle. The magnetic force is a *centripetal force*.
$$F = qvB = \frac{mv^2}{r}$$



The radius of the circle is directly proportional to the particle's momentum, and inversely proportional to the charge and magnetic field strength.

$$r = \frac{mv}{qB}$$

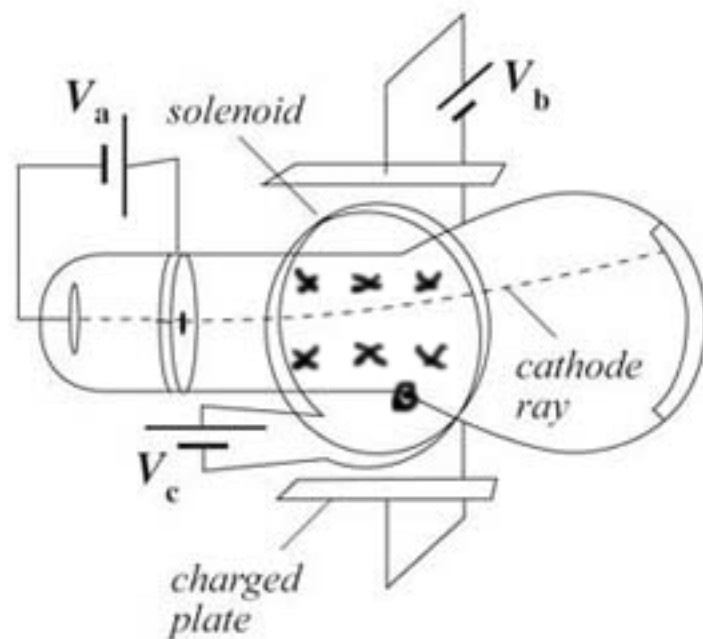
The angular frequency of a particle trapped in circular motion within a uniform magnetic field is called the *cyclotron frequency*.



NOTE THAT THE MAGNETIC FORCE IS PERPENDICULAR TO VELOCITY (AND INSTANTANEOUS DISPLACEMENT), SO A STEADY MAGNETIC FIELD DOES NO WORK ON A CHARGED PARTICLE. ITS DIRECTION CHANGES, BUT WITH NO DISSIPATION, KINETIC ENERGY IS CONSTANT.



The magnetic force produced by the solenoid current upon the cathode ray at right opposes the electrostatic force produced by the charged plates. Which of the following by itself could straighten the beam so that it strikes the center of the phosphorescent screen?



- I. Increasing V_a
- II. Decreasing V_a
- III. Increasing V_b
- IV. Increasing V_c

a. II only

b. IV only

c.

I or IV

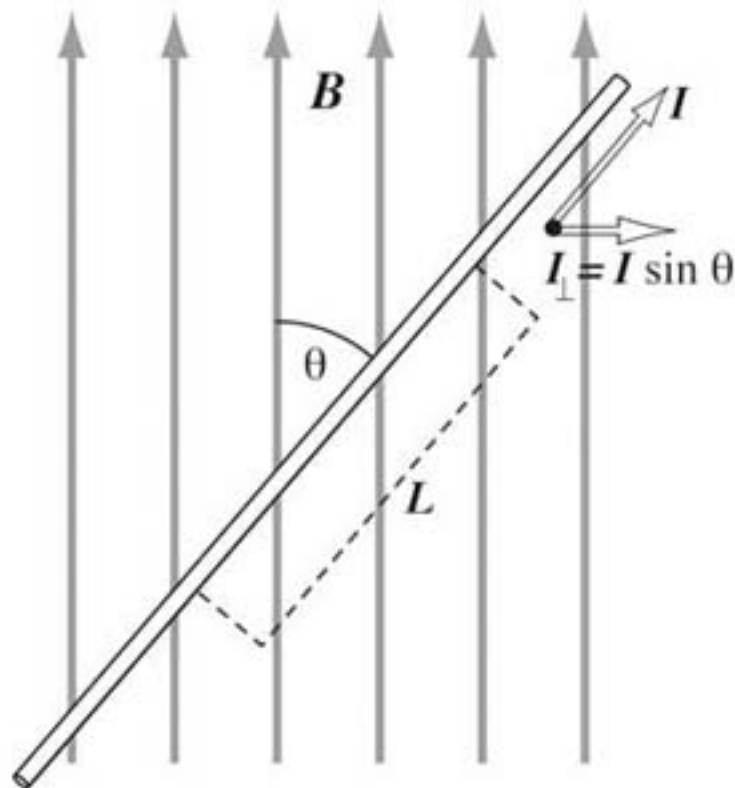
d. I, II or III

Magnetic Force on a Segment of Current Carrying Wire

$$F = L B I \sin \theta$$

Supplemental

- F = magnetic force on wire segment
- L = segment length
- B = magnetic field strength
- I = current
- θ = angle between the current and the magnetic field

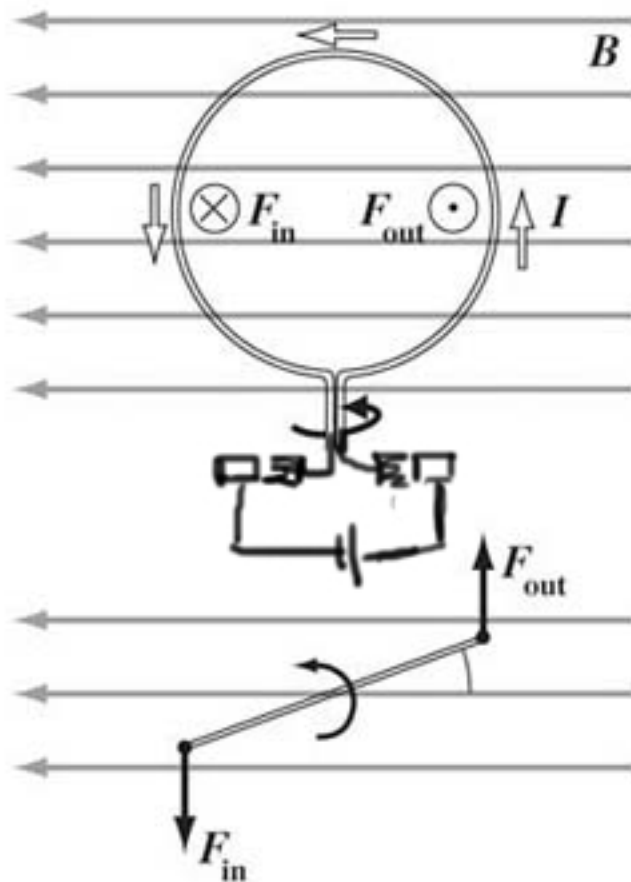


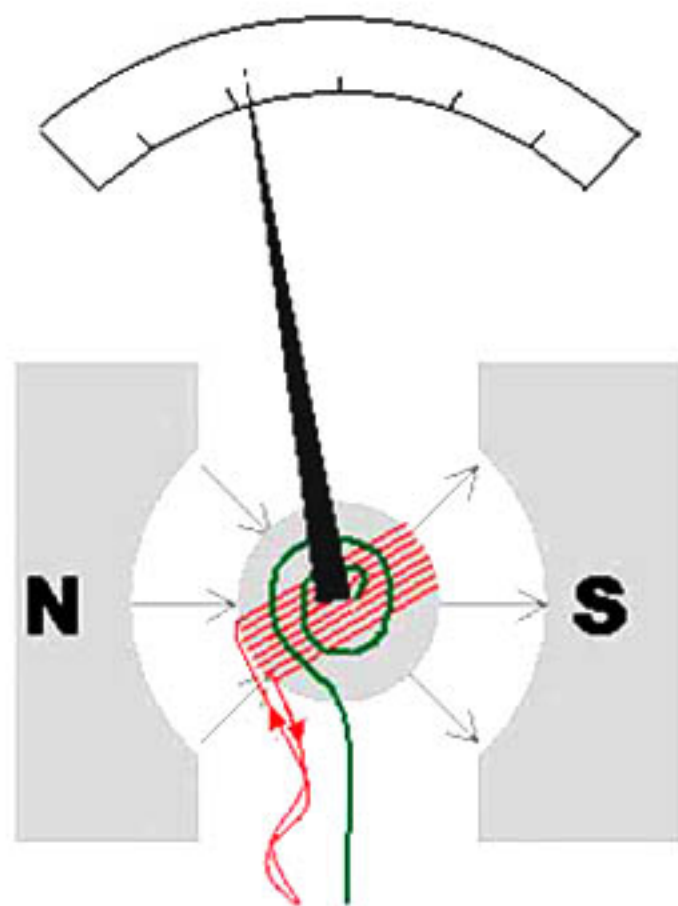
Magnetic force is directed out of the plane of the image.

Torque on a Current Loop within a Uniform Magnetic Field

$$\tau = IAB \cos \phi$$

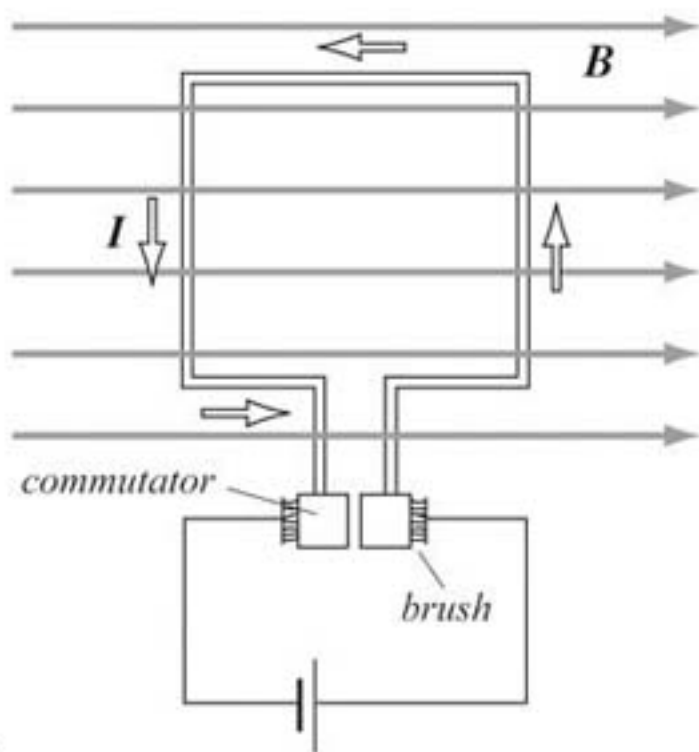
- τ = torque on current loop
 I = current
 A = area of loop
 B = magnetic field strength
 ϕ = angle between the loop plane and the magnetic field





galvanometer to
measure current

From the point of view depicted in the figure at right, which of the following occurs when current is supplied to the loop at right?



- a. the loop rotates clockwise
- b. the loop rotates counter-clockwise
- c. the loop is compressed
- d. there is no net torque on the loop

Magnetic Field of a Straight Current Carrying Wire

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi d}$$

B = magnetic field strength at distance d

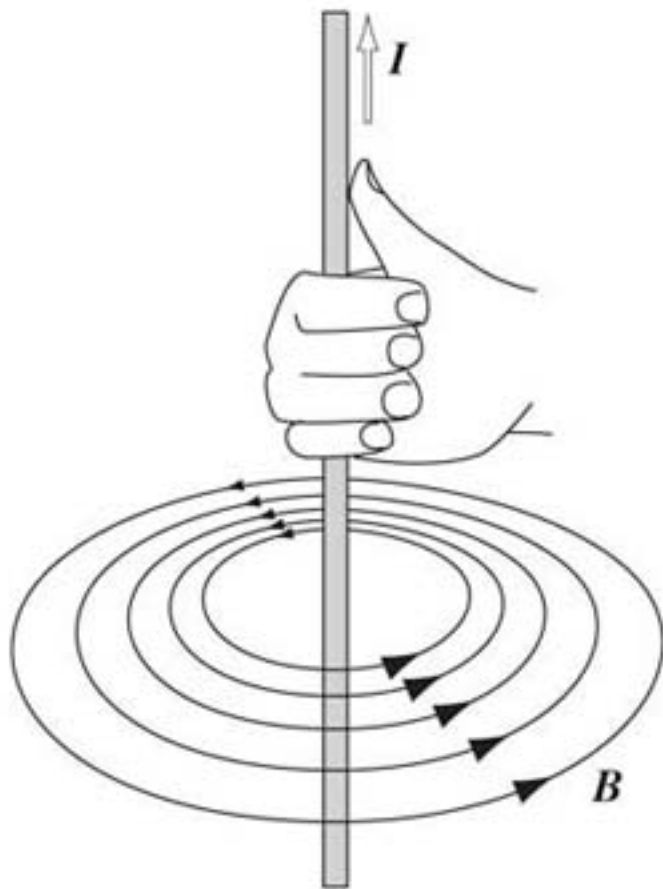
I = current

μ_0 = permeability of free space
($4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ T m/A)

d = distance from the wire

Ampere's Law

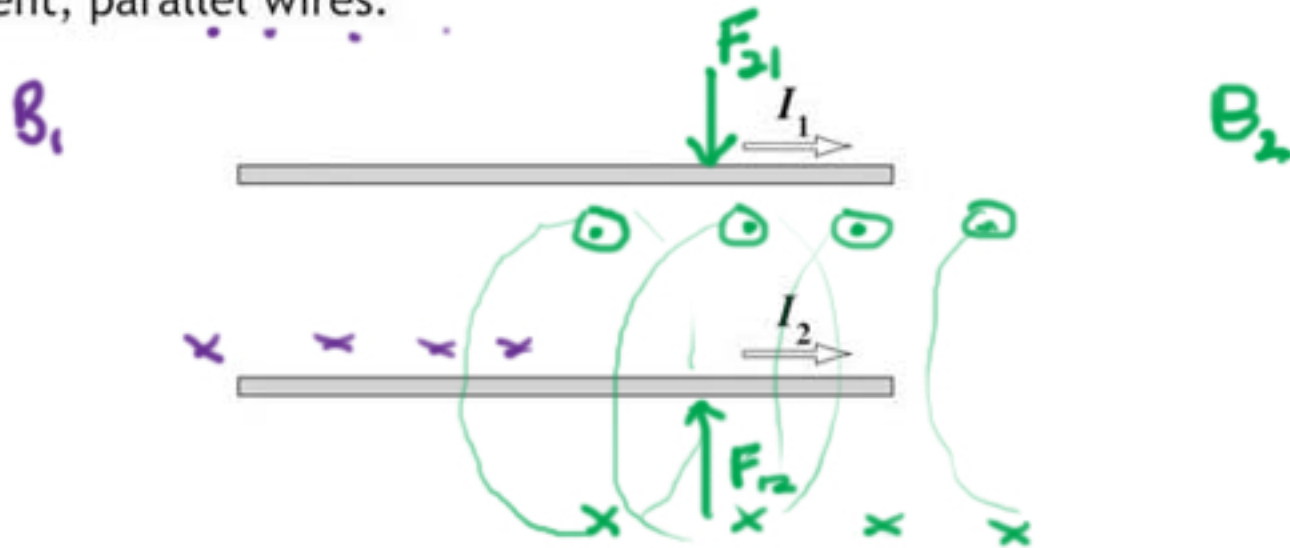
For any closed loop path, the sum of the products of the length elements and the magnetic field in the direction of the length elements is proportional to the electric current enclosed in the loop (magnetic permeability, μ_0 is the constant of proportionality).



2nd right
hand rule

to determine the
magnetic field
of a current.

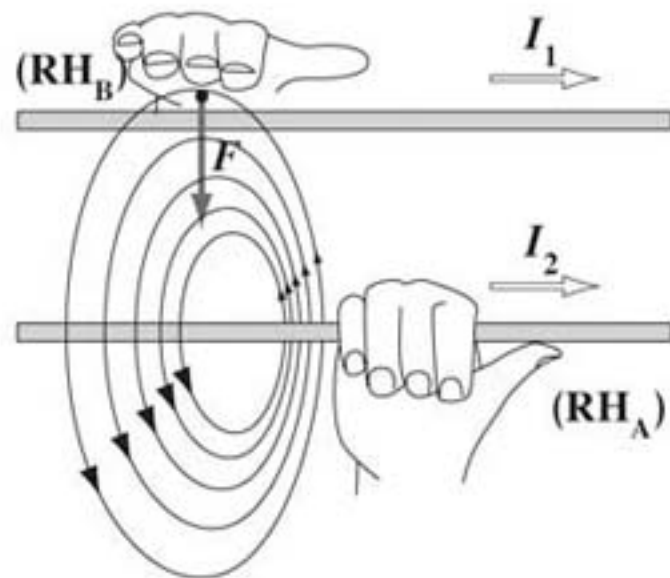
When electric current is flowing in the same direction through two, adjacent, parallel wires:



- a. The wires attract each other
- b. The wires repel each other
- c. The wires do not interact
- d. The wires generate an alternating current

Use both right hand rules: Use the first rule, (RH_A), to predict the orientation of a field produced by the current of one of the wires. The second rule, (RH_B), predicts the orientation of the magnetic force (of course, each wire feels an equal and opposite attractive force).

With your thumb of your right hand in the direction of the component of the current that is perpendicular to the magnetic field from the other wire and your fingers in the direction of that field, the direction of the magnetic force is out of your palm.

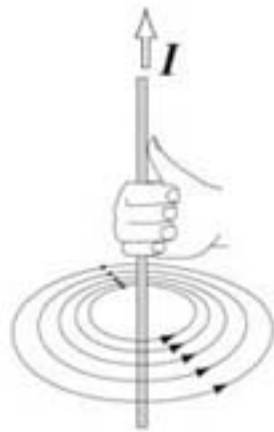


Point the thumb of your right hand in the direction of positive current, then wrap your fingers around the wire to show orientation of the magnetic field.

PARALLEL WIRES WITH CURRENT IN THE SAME DIRECTION ATTRACT EACH OTHER. PARALLEL WIRES WITH CURRENT IN THE OPPOSITE DIRECTION REPEL EACH OTHER. PERPENDICULAR WIRES DO NOT INTERACT.

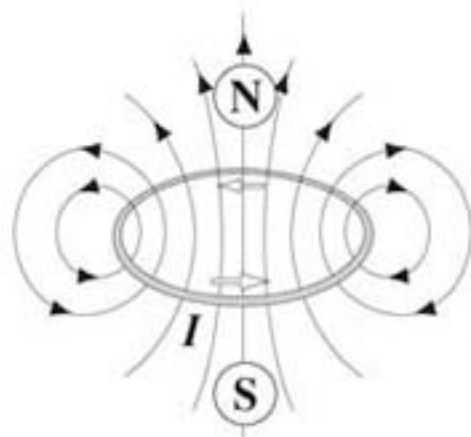


Magnetic Fields Produced by Various Current Geometries



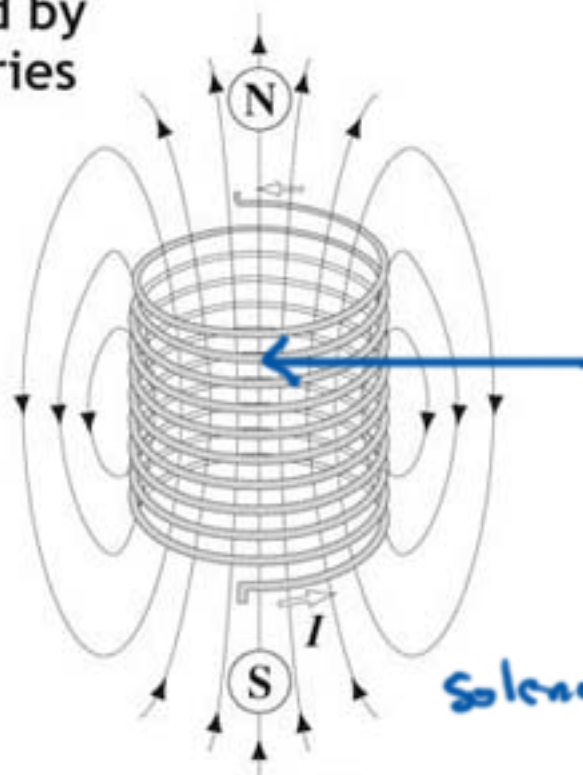
$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi d}$$

B = magnetic field strength
 I = current
 μ_0 = permeability of free space
 $(4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ T m/A})$
 d = distance from the wire



$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2r}$$

B = magnetic field strength
 at loop center
 r = radius



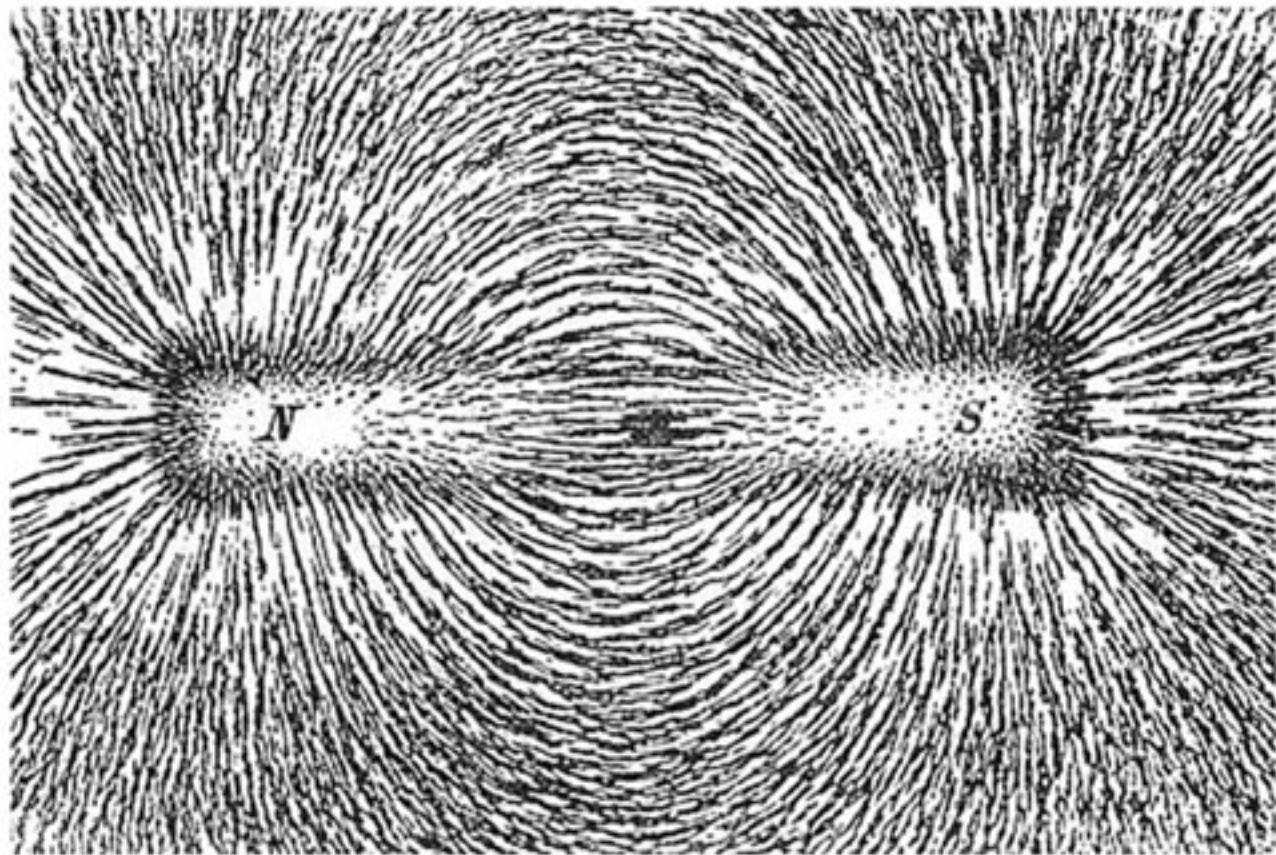
inside is
a uniform
magnetic
field

Solenoid

$$B = n\mu_0 I$$

B = magnetic field strength
 within the solenoid
 n = turns per unit length

formulas are
supplementary



Magnetism in
matter

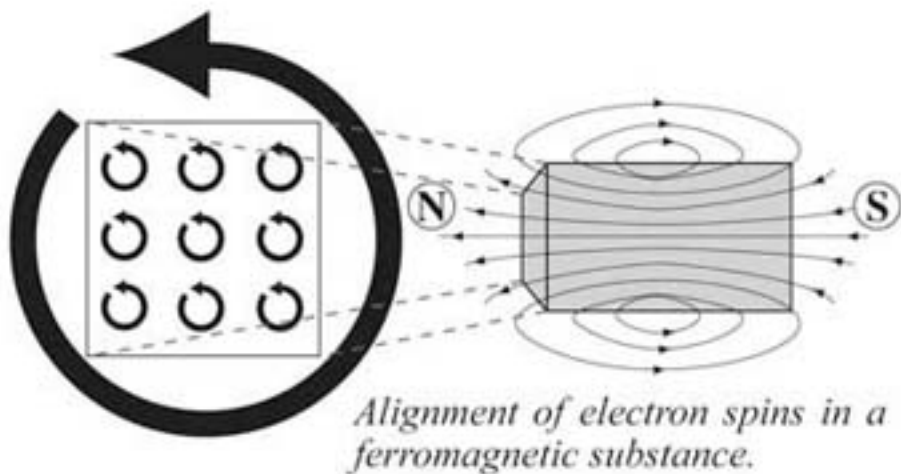
Magnetism in Matter

Paramagnetism

Paramagnetic substances contain electrons within atomic or molecular orbitals that are unpaired, producing net electron spin. Paramagnetic substances are weakly attracted by magnetic fields.

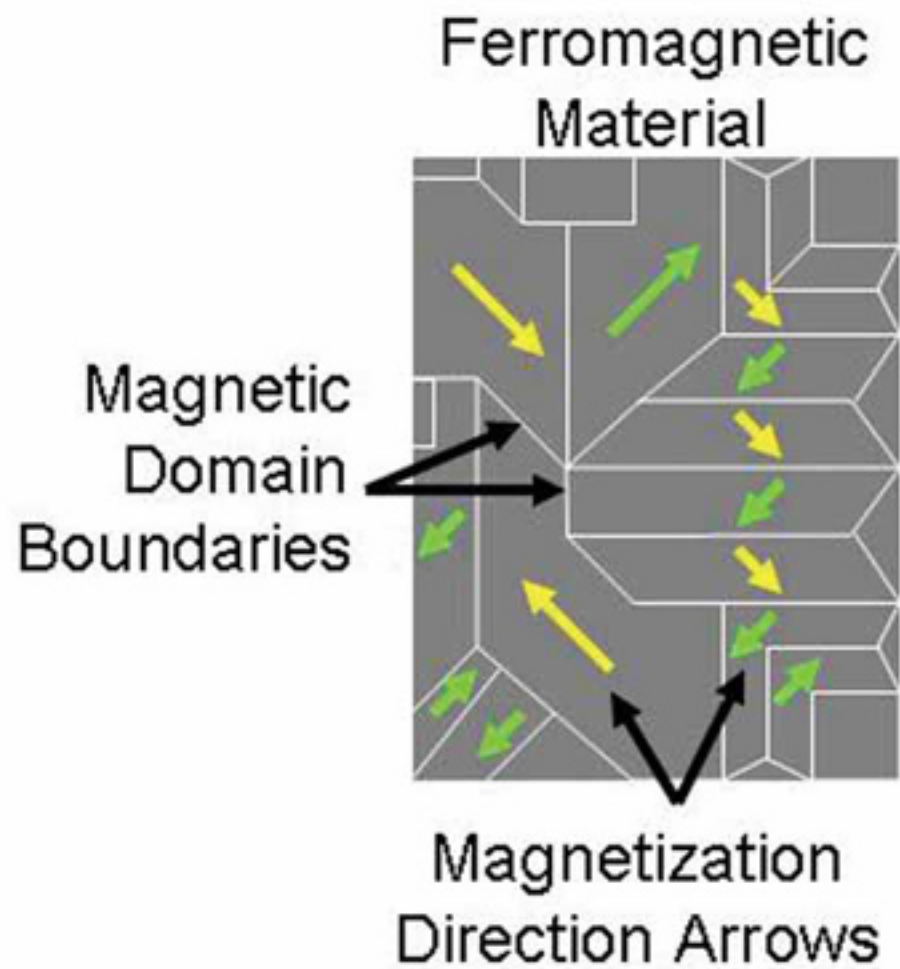
Ferromagnetism

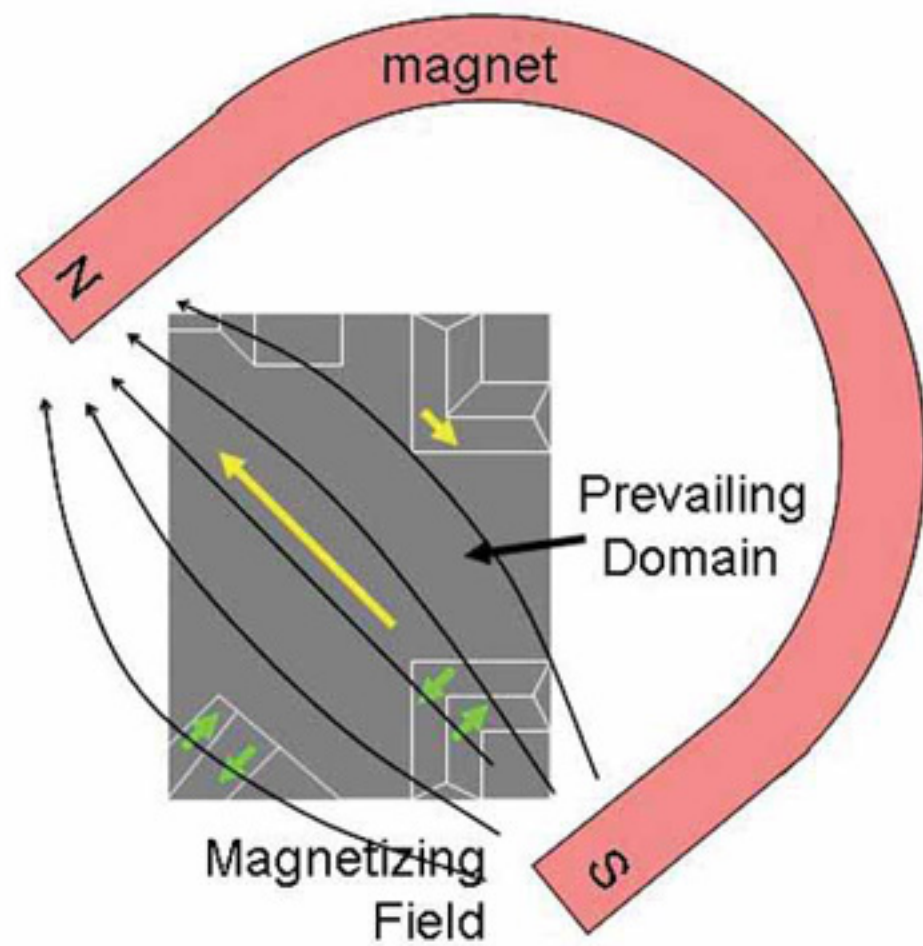
Ferromagnetic substances can be permanently magnetized as randomly oriented electron spins align cooperatively in domains. Ferromagnetism is much stronger than paramagnetism.



Diamagnetism

In diamagnetic substances all electrons are paired. Diamagnetic substances are very, very weakly repelled by magnetic fields, a much weaker interaction than either paramagnetism or ferromagnetism.

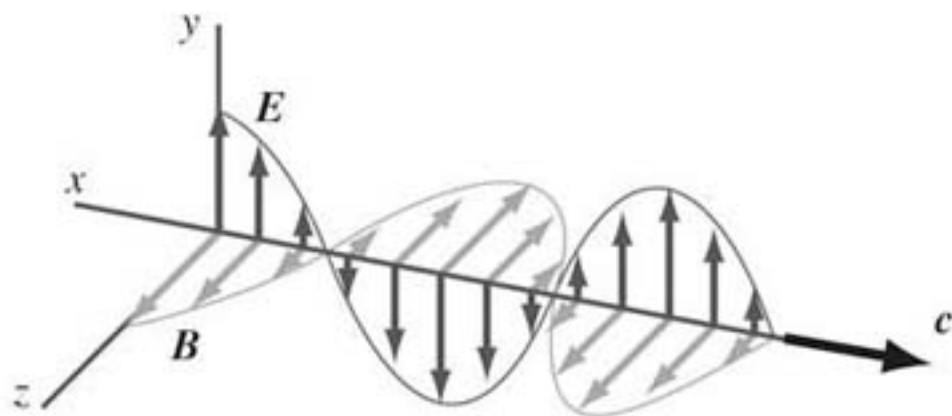




Properties of Light



Electromagnetic Wave Propagation

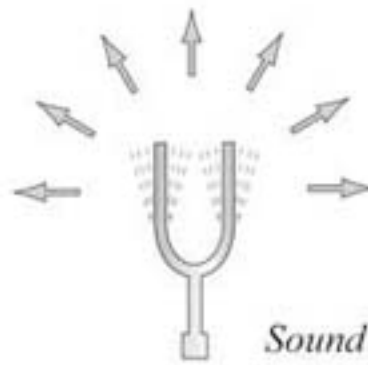


• transverse waves

$$c = 3.0 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

Which of the following distinguishes electromagnetic waves from sound waves?

- a. Electromagnetic waves are longitudinal. Sound waves are transverse.
- ☒ b. Electromagnetic waves do not require a medium.
- c. Electromagnetic waves carry energy.
- d. Electromagnetic waves can't be polarized.



The Electromagnetic Spectrum

$$E = hf$$

Frequency, Hz

10^3 10^4 10^5 10^6 10^7 10^8 10^9 10^{10} 10^{11} 10^{12} 10^{13} 10^{14} 10^{15} 10^{16} 10^{17} 10^{18} 10^{19} 10^{20} 10^{21} 10^{22}

Radio Waves

(NMR)

Microwave

Infrared Rays

Visible

Ultraviolet

X-rays

γ-rays

Wavelength

km

m

μm

Å

Red

Orange

Yellow

Green

Blue

Indigo

Violet

- pigments
- crystal field splitting

UV absorbance

fluorescence

- phosphorescence
- chemiluminescence

shorter λ

$$c = f\lambda$$

$$= 3 \times 10^8 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$$

c = speed of light

f = frequency

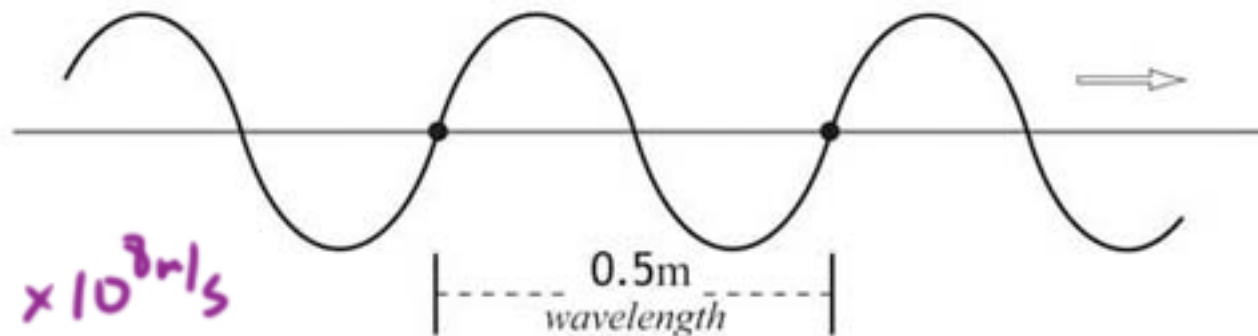
λ = wavelength

$$u = \frac{kq_1q_2}{r}$$

photoelectric effect

$$KE = hf - \phi$$

A radio wave travelling through space has a wavelength of 0.5m. What is the frequency of the wave?



$$f = \frac{3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}{0.5 \text{ m}}$$

$$\frac{3 \times 10^8}{5 \times 10^{-1}}$$

$$= 0.6 \times 10^9 \\ = 6 \times 10^8$$

a. 150 MHz

b. 250 MHz

c. 300 MHz

d. 600 MHz

$$v = f\lambda$$

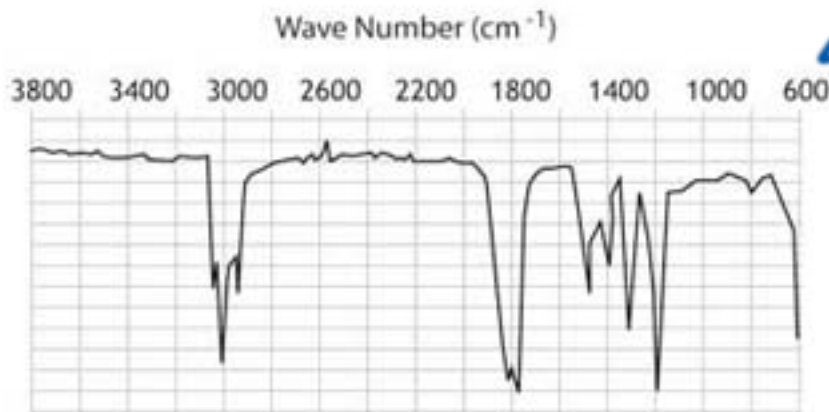
$$c = f\lambda$$

Divide either f
or λ into wave
speed to get the
other.

$$\text{MHz} = 10^6 \text{ Hz}$$

Infrared spectroscopy is a technique to identify an unknown compound by assaying the absorption of frequencies of infrared radiation matching the vibrational frequencies associated with the chemical bonds within the substance.

Infrared spectrographs usually represent absorption frequencies as *wave numbers* (cm^{-1}). Wave numbers are reciprocal values of the wavelengths of absorbed radiation.



The unknown substance depicted by the spectrograph above has a strong absorbance at 3000 cm^{-1} . What is the frequency in Hz of this peak?

$$(3000 \text{ cm}^{-1}) (3.0 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm/s})$$

- a. $1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ Hz}$ b. $1 \times 10^7 \text{ Hz}$ c. $9 \times 10^{11} \text{ Hz}$ ☒ d. $9 \times 10^{13} \text{ Hz}$

assume
 $v = c$

Wave numbers

$$k = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{\text{meters}}{\text{cycle}}$$

$$k = \frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{meter}}$$

or $\frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{cm}}$

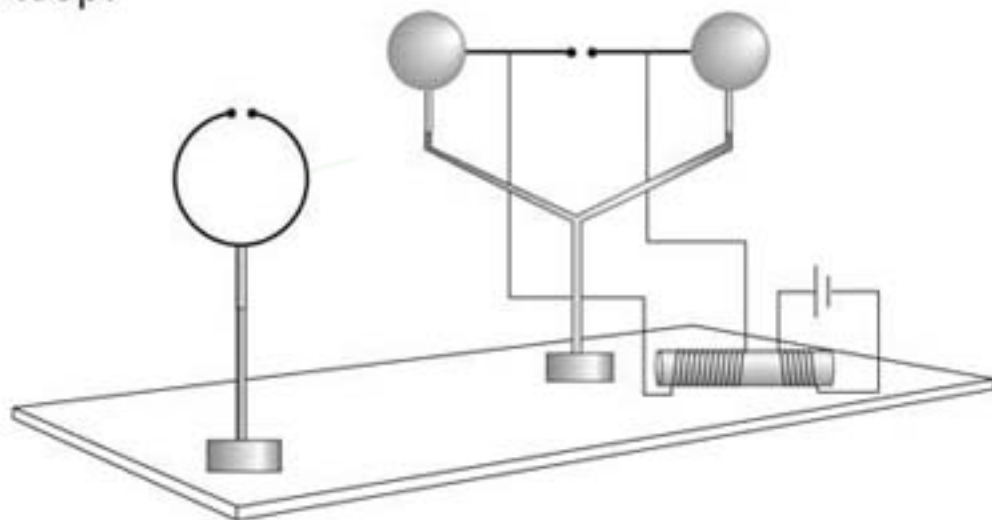
or cm^{-1}

$$v = \lambda f \quad f = \frac{v}{\lambda}$$

$$f = kv$$

When sufficient voltage is supplied to the induction coil in the apparatus below, an oscillatory discharge occurs across the spark gap between the two electrode spheres. The oscillatory discharge occurs at the resonance frequency of the induction coil/electrode combination, an LC circuit, at approximately 1×10^8 Hz. When the resonance frequency of a nearby conducting loop with its own spark gap is adjusted to match this frequency, sparks are observed across the gap in the nearby loop, even though the loop is not touching the induction coil/electrode apparatus. What are being transmitted by the coil/electrode apparatus to the loop to cause sparking in the loop?

- ☒ a. cathode rays
- ☒ b. radio waves
- ☒ c. alpha particles
- ☐ d. x-rays



Reflection and Refraction

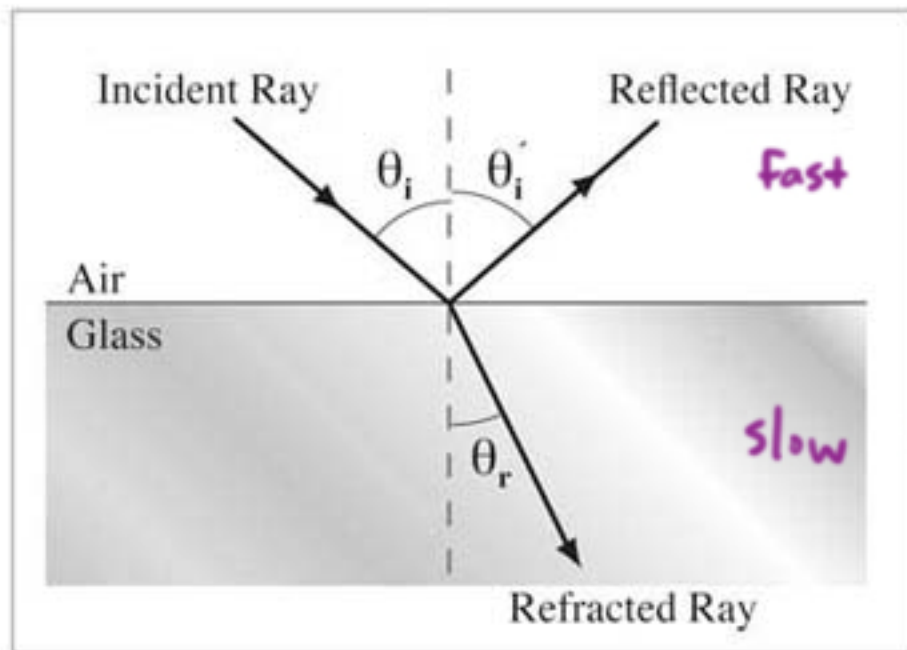
$$n = \frac{c}{v}$$

Law of Reflection

$$\theta_i = \theta_i'$$

θ_i = angle of incidence

θ_i' = angle of reflection



Snell's Law Governing Refraction

$$n_1 \sin \theta_i = n_2 \sin \theta_r$$

n_1 = index of refraction in first medium

θ_i = angle of incidence

n_2 = index of refraction in second medium

θ_r = angle of refraction

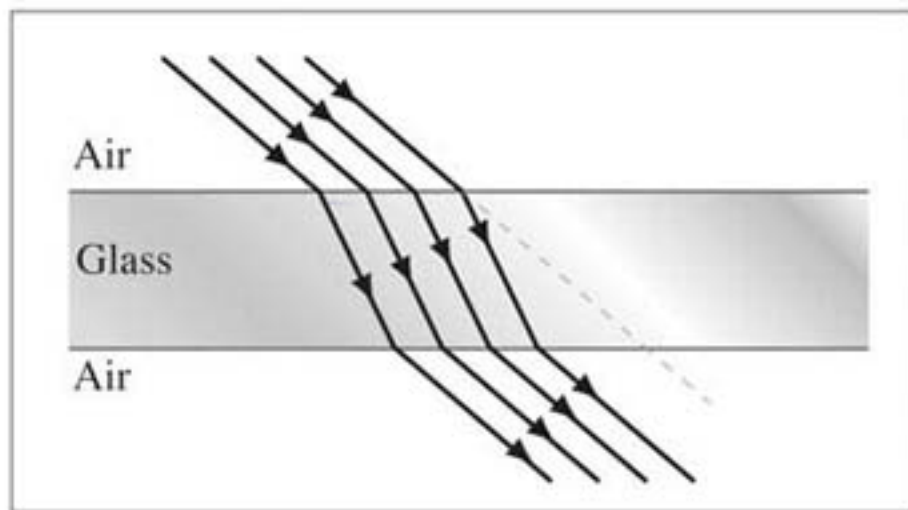
Index of Refraction

$$n = \frac{c}{v}$$

n = index of refraction of medium

c = speed of light in a vacuum

v = speed of light in the medium



entering the new medium

- v is changed
- f doesn't change

$$v = f\lambda$$

λ must change

entering a slow medium

λ shortens

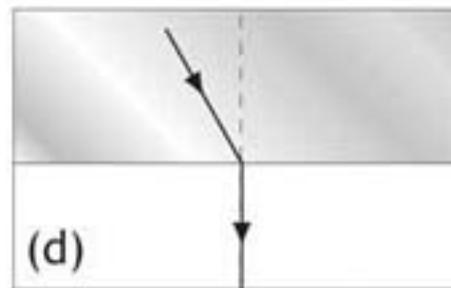
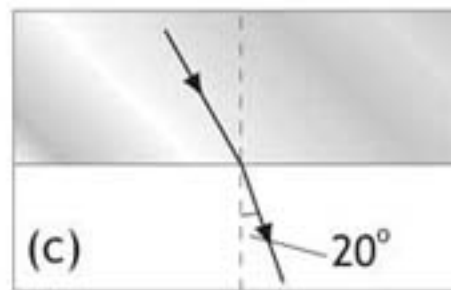
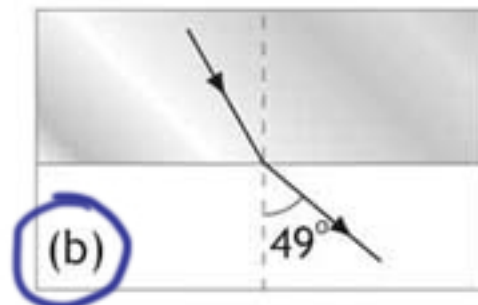
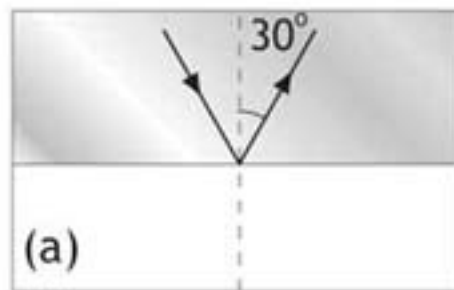
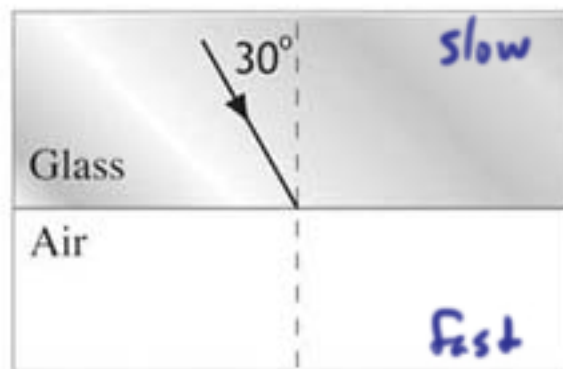
$$n_2 \lambda_2 = n_1 \lambda_1$$

$$\frac{v_2}{v_1} = \frac{n_1}{n_2}$$

$$\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} = \frac{v_2}{v_1}$$

$$\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} = \frac{n_1}{n_2}$$

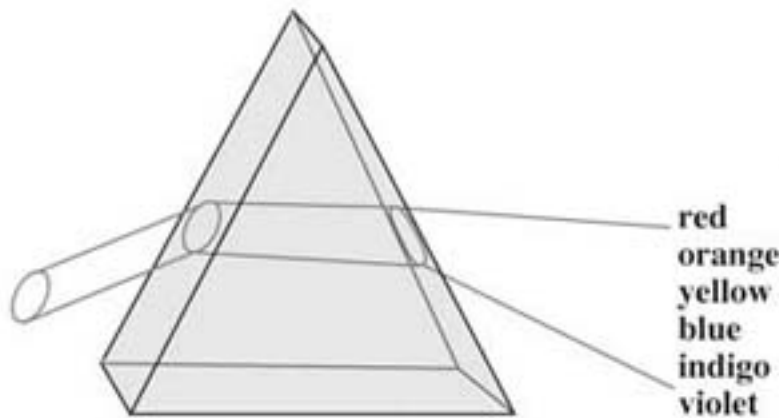
A light ray travelling through glass ($n = 1.5$) is incident on the smooth, flat interface between the glass and outside air ($n = 1.0$). The light is travelling at an angle of 30° to the normal as pictured at right. Which results from refraction at the boundary?



$$n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2$$

A prism disperses white light into its spectrum, revealing the colored components of white light. Which of the following accounts for this behavior?

white light



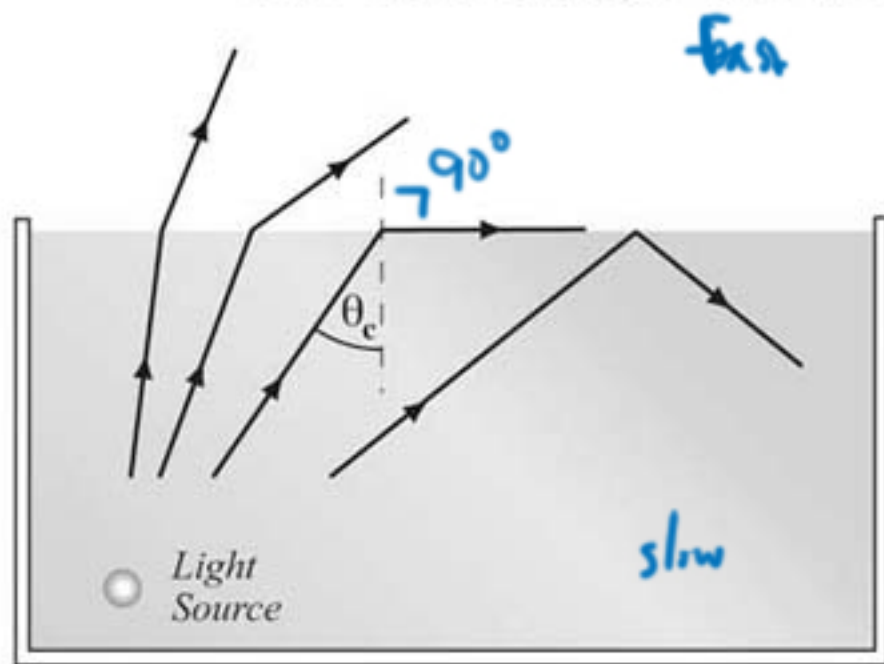
red
orange
yellow
blue
indigo
violet

Dispersion

*because of
slightly different
index of refraction
for different
frequencies.*

- a. Red rays are refracted the most by the prism, violet rays the least.
- b. The product of wavelength and frequency is the same for all colors in the glass but not in empty space.
- ☒ c. Visible light of longer wavelength moves with greater speed in glass than visible light of shorter wavelength.
- d. Moving from a slower to a faster media increases the wavelength of a particular light ray.

The Critical Angle and Internal Reflection



Ex 9

$$\sin \theta_c n_1 = \sin(90^\circ) n_2$$

$$\sin \theta_c = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$$

$$(n_1 > n_2)$$

- θ_c = critical angle
- n_1 = index of refraction in first medium
- n_2 = index of refraction in second medium

diamond
 $\sin \theta_c = \frac{1}{2.5}$
 $\theta_c < 30^\circ$



diamond $n_1 = 2.5$

A typical fiber optic cable consists of two concentric layers: the outer cladding and the inner core. The index of refraction of the core is higher than that of the cladding. With a straight or slightly bending fiber, the signal always strikes the core-cladding interface at an angle (from the normal) higher than the critical angle. Therefore, the light is reflected back into the fiber which allows transmission over great distance.



$$n = \frac{c}{v}$$

$$v = \frac{c}{n}$$

$$v = \frac{3.0 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}{1.5} = 2 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

What is the minimum time required for the cable above to transmit a signal over a distance of 90 km?

$$\Delta t = \frac{9 \times 10^4 \text{ m}}{2 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}} = 4.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}$$

$$\Delta x = 90 \text{ km}$$

$$\Delta x = 9 \times 10^4 \text{ m}$$

a. $3.0 \times 10^{-7} \text{ s}$

c. $3.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}$

b. $2.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}$

☒ d. $4.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}$

$$\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = v \quad \Delta t = \frac{\Delta x}{v}$$

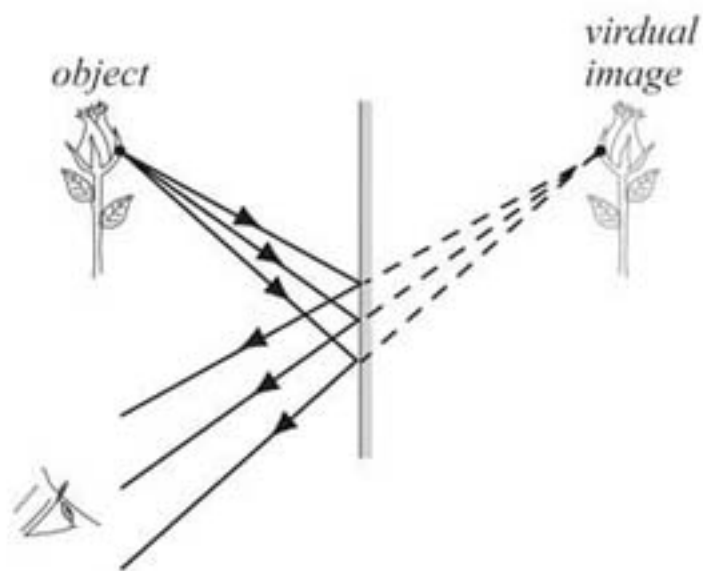
Graphic
Optics



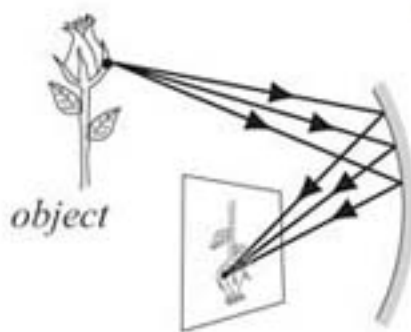
Virtual and Real Images

$$\frac{1}{F} = \frac{1}{I} + \frac{1}{O}$$

Optical devices where the ray approach to light is sufficient.



A plane mirror creates a **virtual image**, located behind the mirror.



A mirror or a lens changes the path of light so that light emanating from an object point

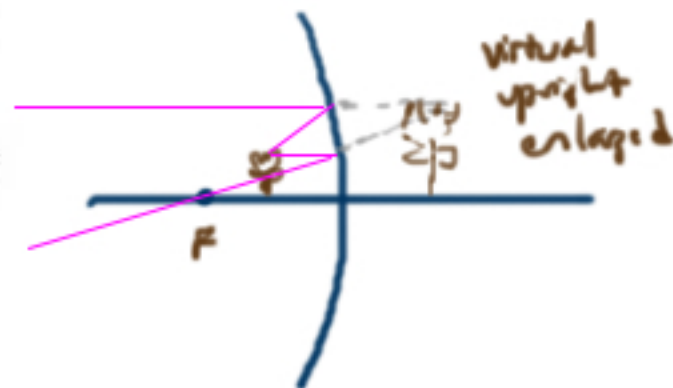
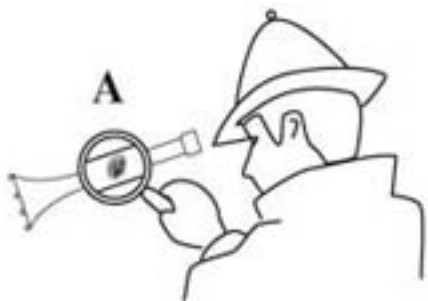
converges on an

image point or appears to emanate from a point.

on image you can cast on a screen

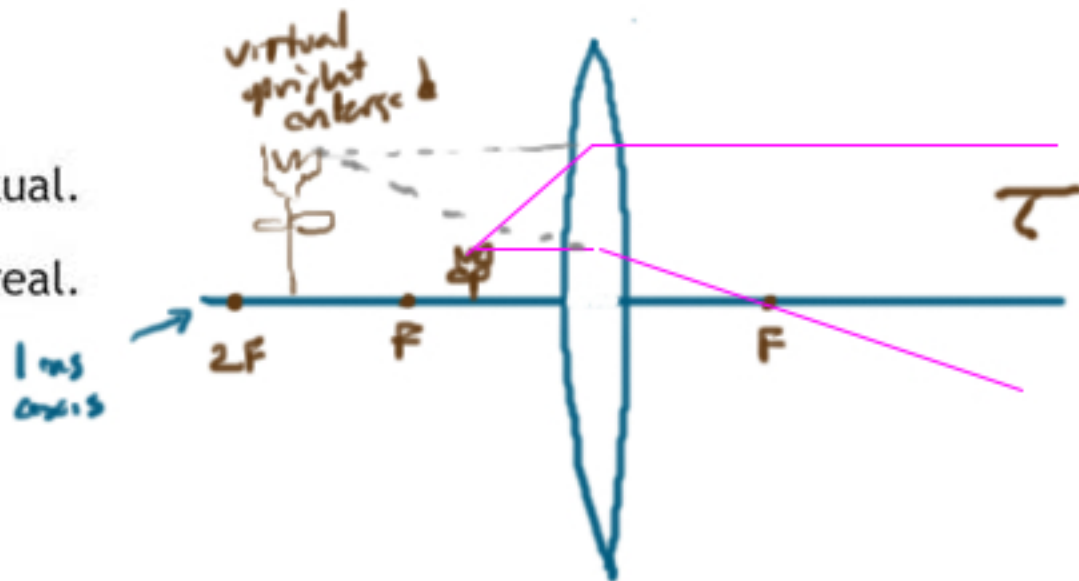
A **real image** is created by a concave mirror (at this object distance) which can be visualized on a screen.

A detective's magnifying glass and a concave make-up mirror are two simple optical devices that can produce enlarged images.

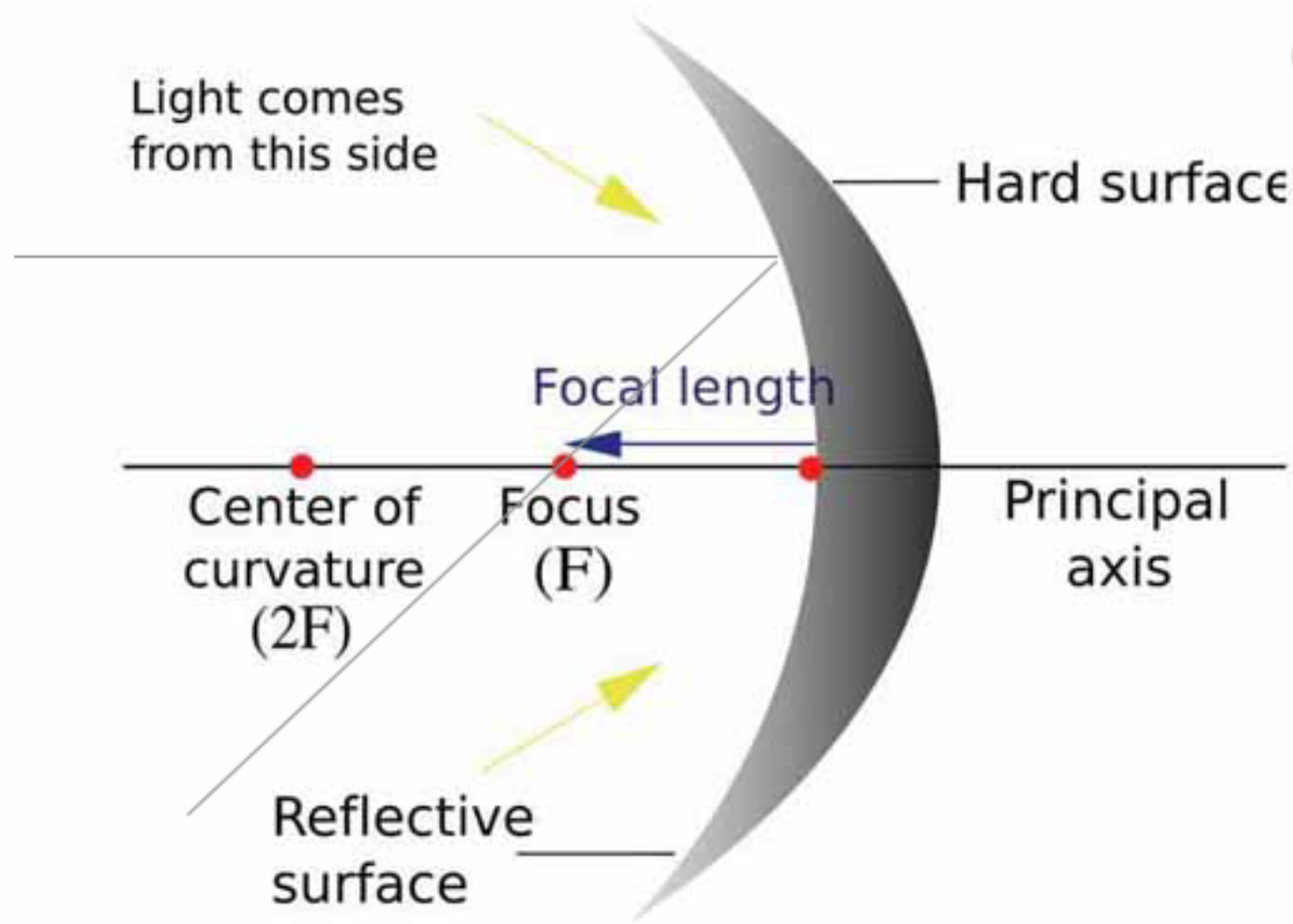


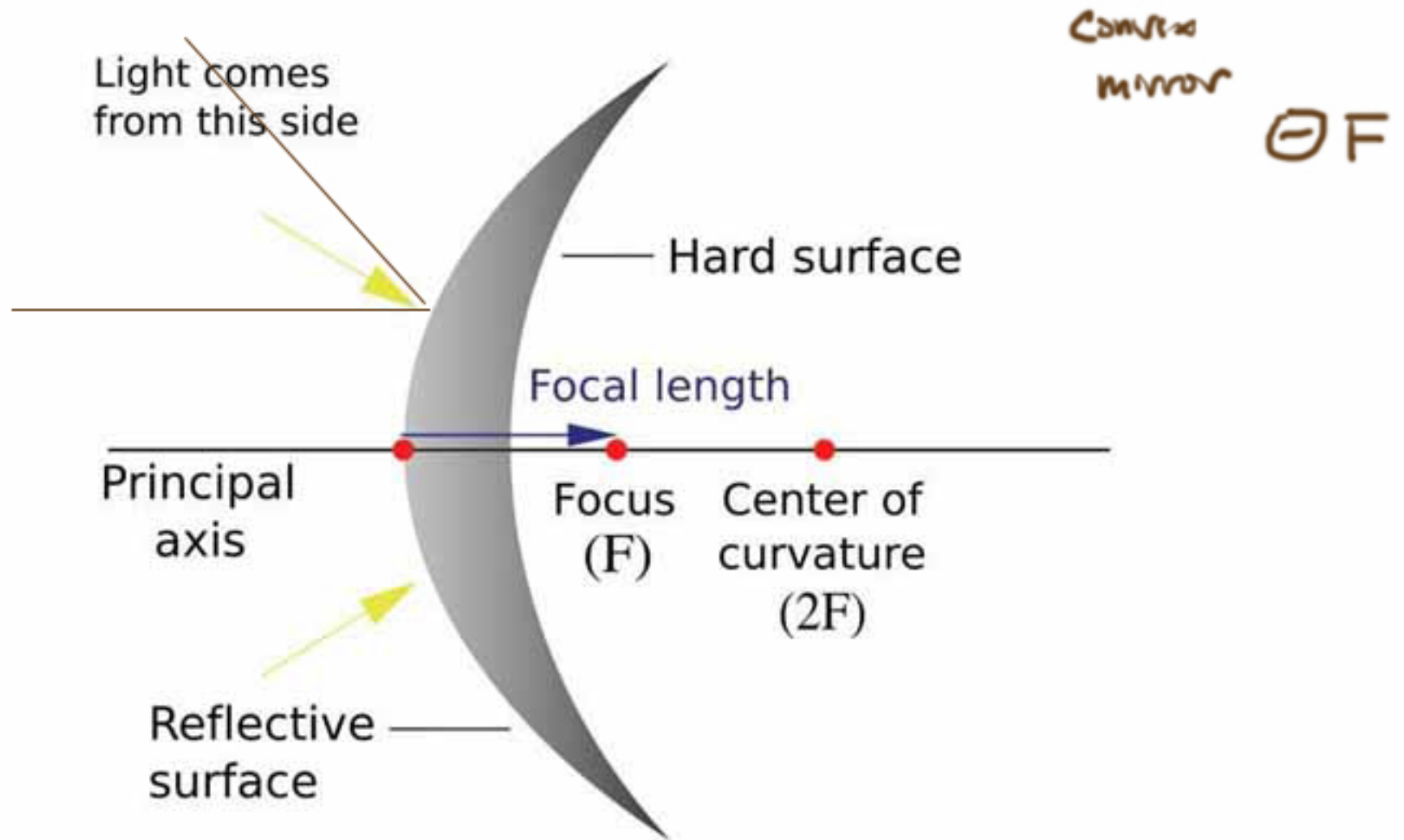
Which of the following statements is true about the images produced above?

- a. Image A is real and image B is virtual.
- b. Image A is virtual and image B is real.
- c. Both images are real.
- ☒ d. Both images are virtual.



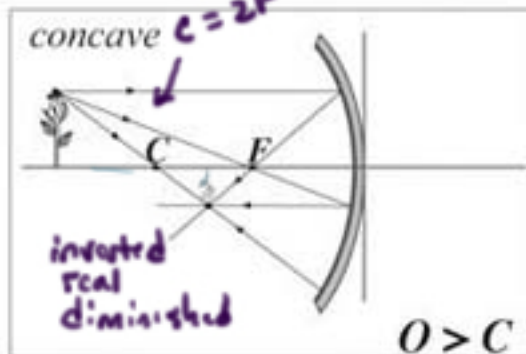
Concave mirror
⊕ F





Concave and Convex Mirrors

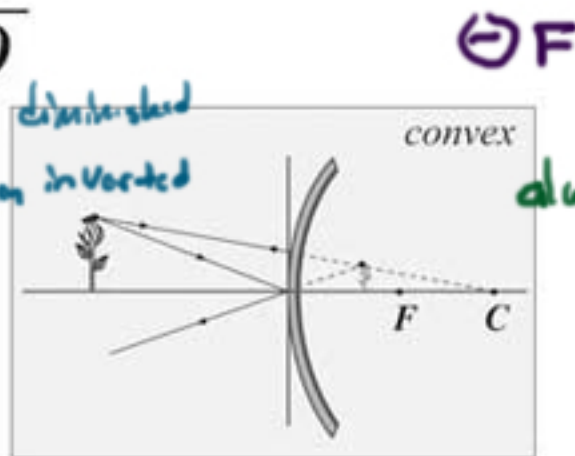
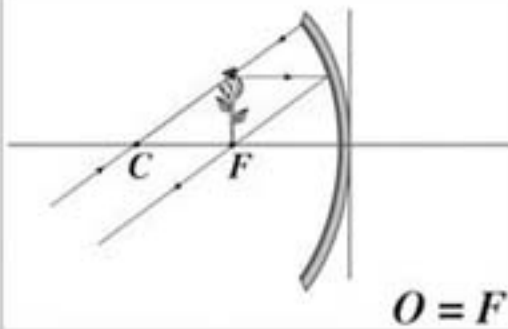
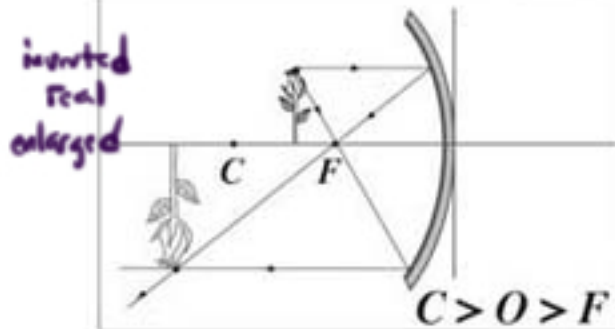
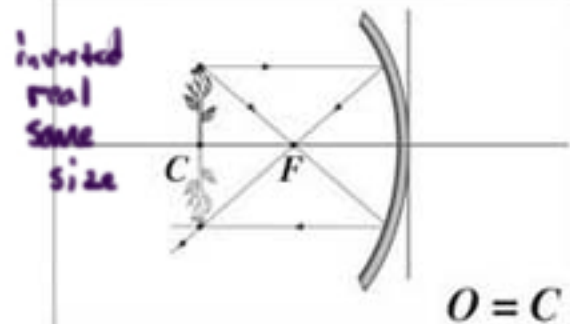
⊕ F



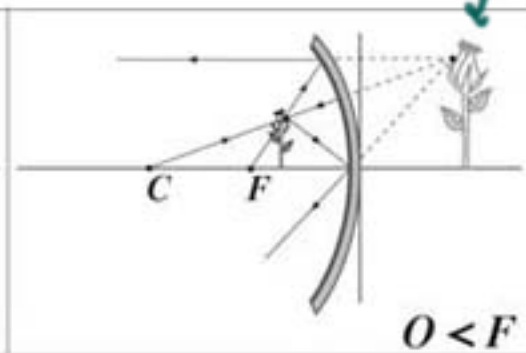
$$\frac{1}{F} = \frac{1}{I} + \frac{1}{O}$$

$$M = -\frac{I}{O}$$

C = center of curvature
 F = focal length ($1/2 C$)
 I = image distance
 O = object distance
 M = lateral magnification

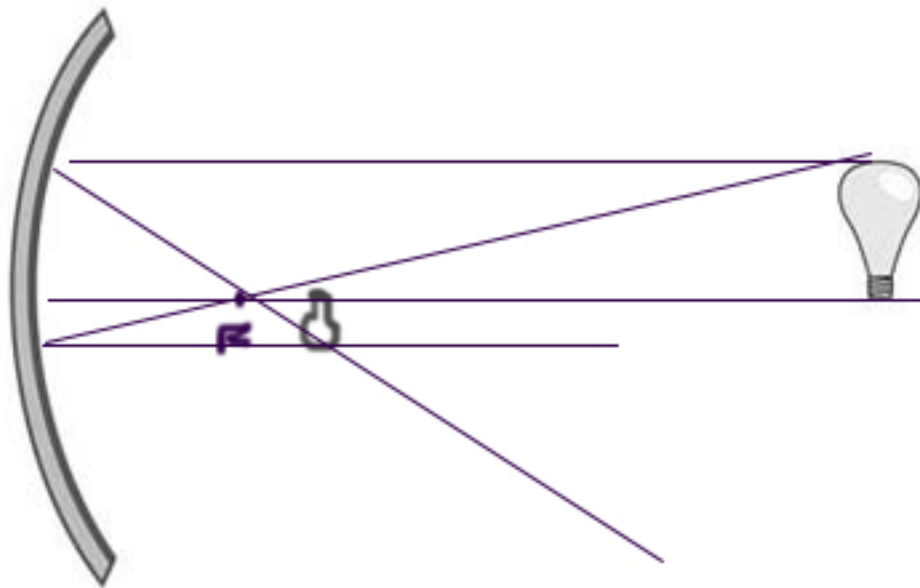


DEV (diminished, erect, virtual) with a single convex mirror.



⊖ F

A concave mirror has a focal length of 20cm. What type of image will the mirror form of a light bulb placed 80cm in front of the mirror?



Dist. is 4:3
 $\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{o} + \frac{1}{i}$

$$\frac{1}{20} = \frac{1}{80} + \frac{1}{i}$$

$$\frac{3}{80} = \frac{1}{i}$$

$$i = \frac{80}{3}$$
$$\approx 27$$

$$M = \frac{-i}{o}$$
$$= \frac{-27}{80}$$

$$o > 2f$$

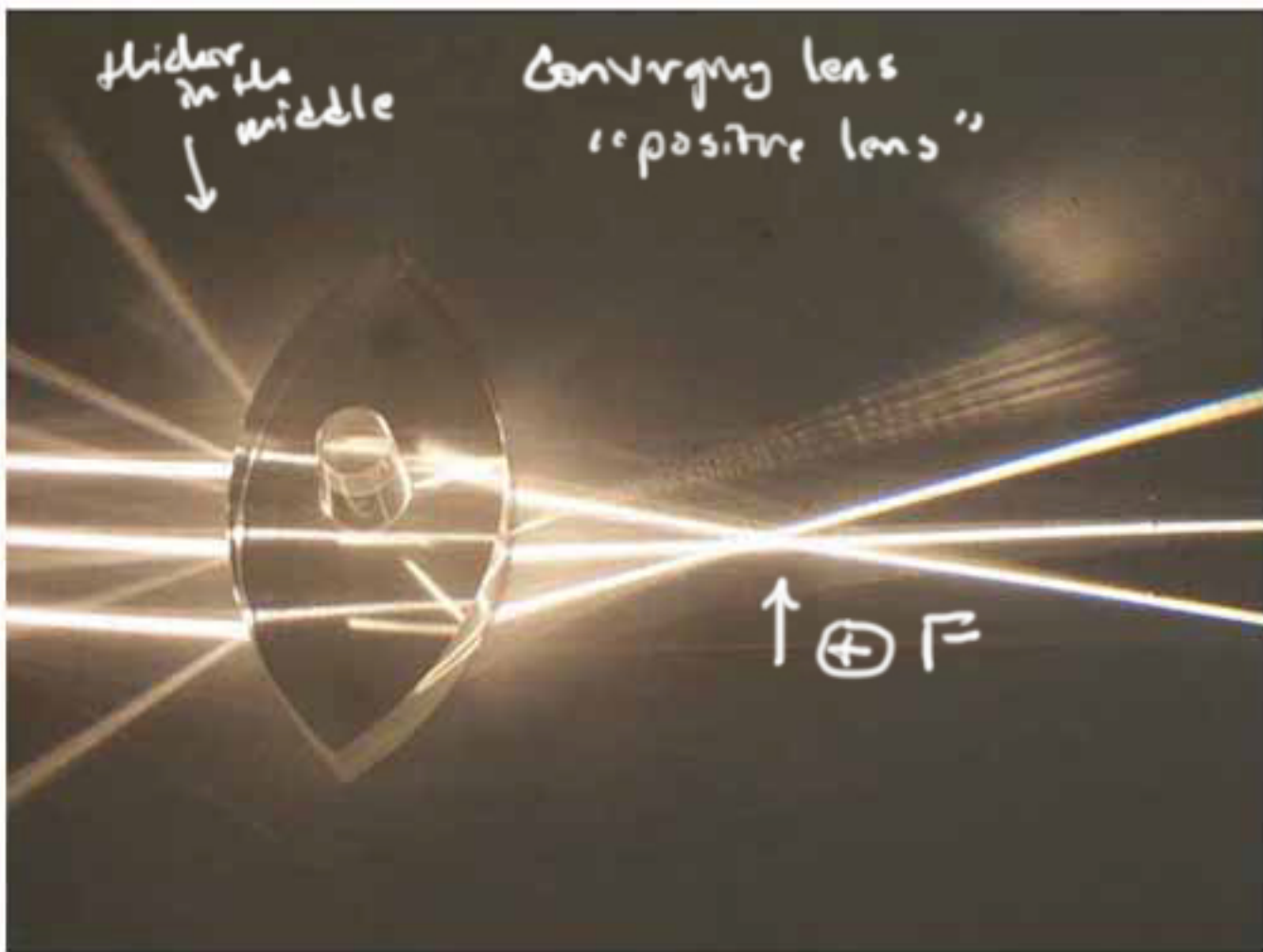
- a. virtual, erect, diminished
- b. real, erect, enlarged

- ☒ c. real, inverted, diminished
- d. virtual, inverted, enlarged

thicker
in the
middle
↓

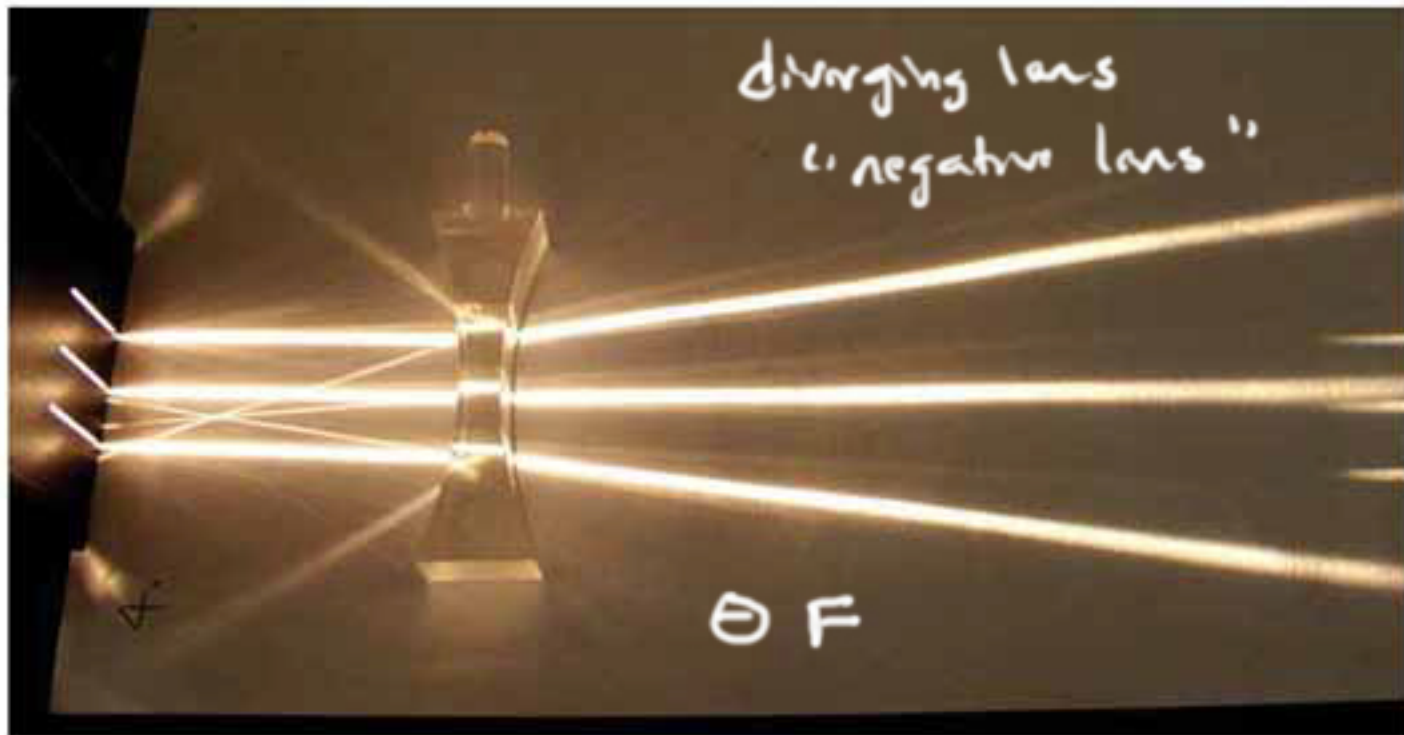
Converging lens
"positive lens"

↑ $\oplus F$



diverging lens
"negative lens"

$\ominus F$



Lens-Maker's Equation

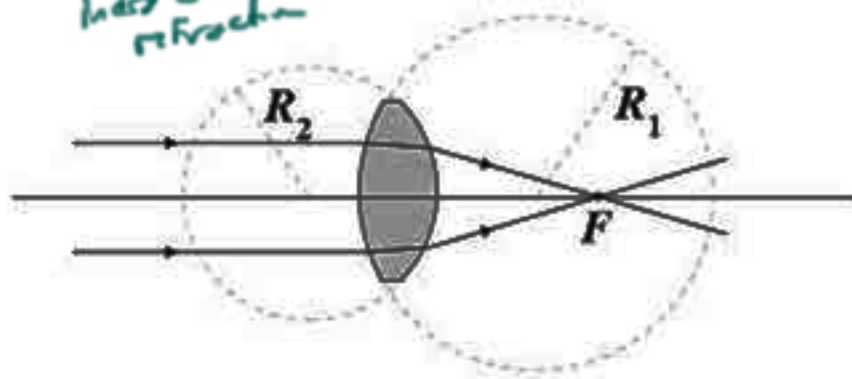
$$\frac{1}{F} = (n - 1) \left(\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} \right)$$

material
↓
Ind. of refraction
shape

F = focal length ($1/2 C$)

n = refractive index

R = radius of curvature

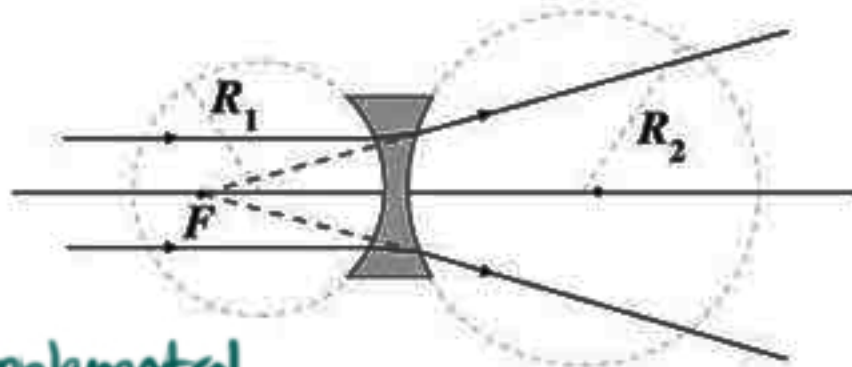


Positive (Converging) Lens

R_1 - positive

R_2 - negative

F - positive



Negative (Diverging) Lens

R_1 - negative

R_2 - positive

F - negative

Supplemental

$\frac{1}{F} \leftarrow D$
power in
diopters
(m^{-1})

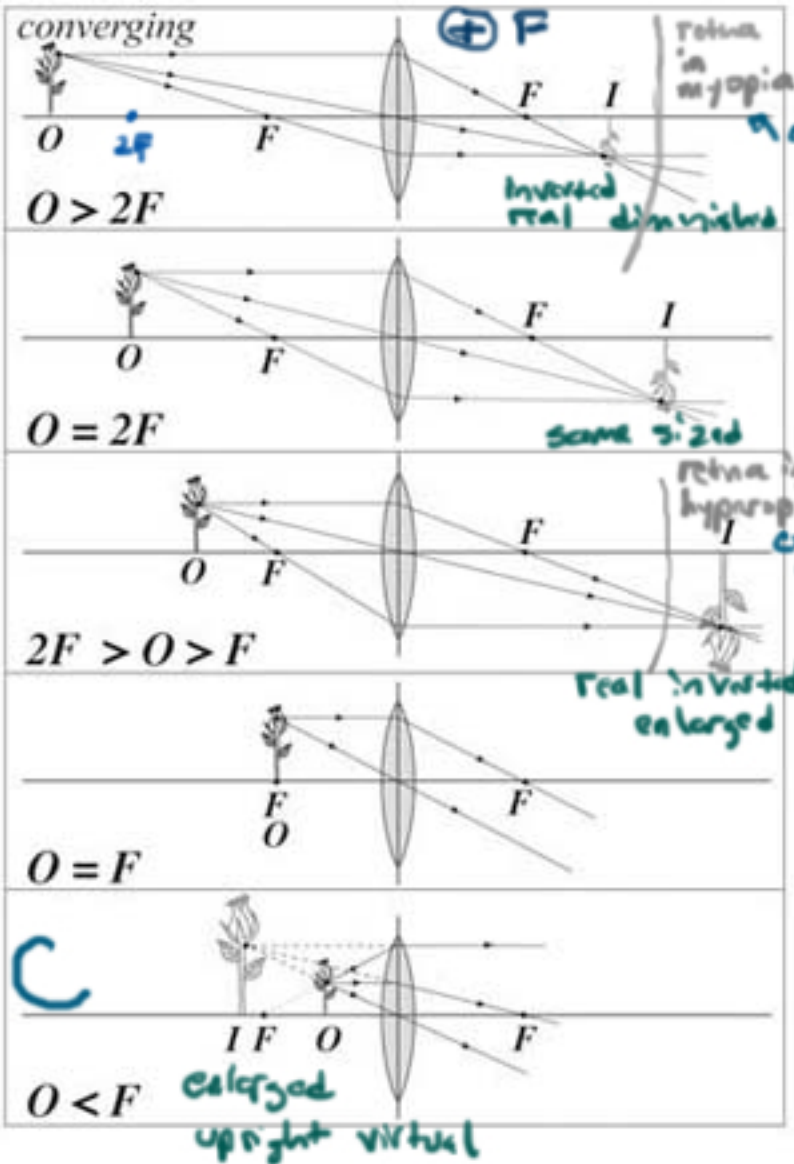
$$D = \frac{1}{I} + \frac{1}{O}$$

$$F_{eye} = 1.5 \text{ cm}$$

What is power in
diopters

$$F = .015 \text{ m}$$

$$D = \frac{1}{.015} \sim 65$$



Converging and Diverging Lenses

$$\frac{1}{F} = \frac{1}{I} + \frac{1}{O}$$

$$M = -\frac{I}{O}$$

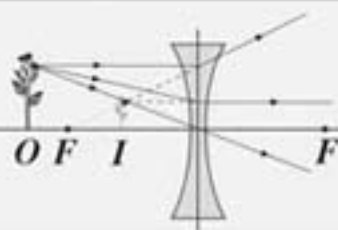
F = focal length

I = image distance

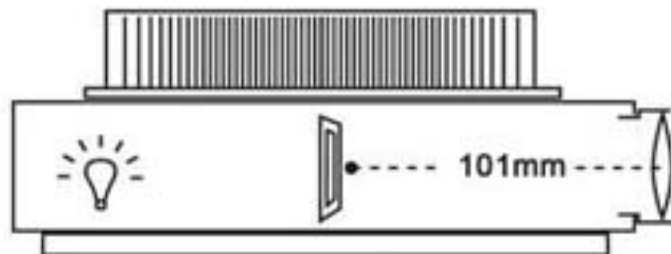
O = object distance

M = lateral magnification

diverging



A slide projector has a 100mm projection lens. When the focus knob is adjusted so that the distance between the slide and the lens is 101mm, the projector creates a focused image on a screen 10m in front of the projector. What is the magnification of the image?



Slide Projector

$$F = 0.1 \text{ m}$$

$$O = 0.101 \text{ m}$$

$$I = 10 \text{ m}$$

$$M = \frac{I}{O}$$

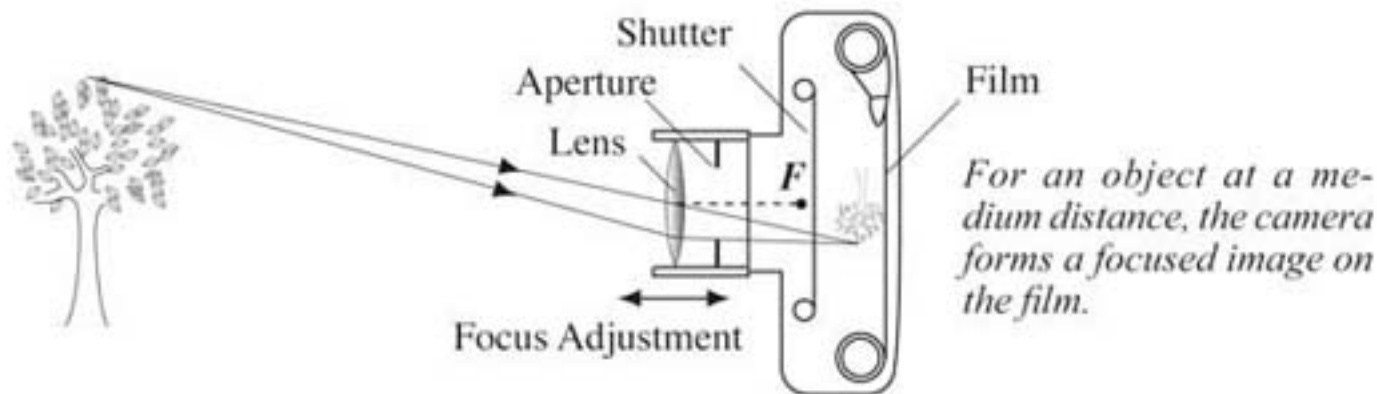
a. -99

b. 99

c. 100

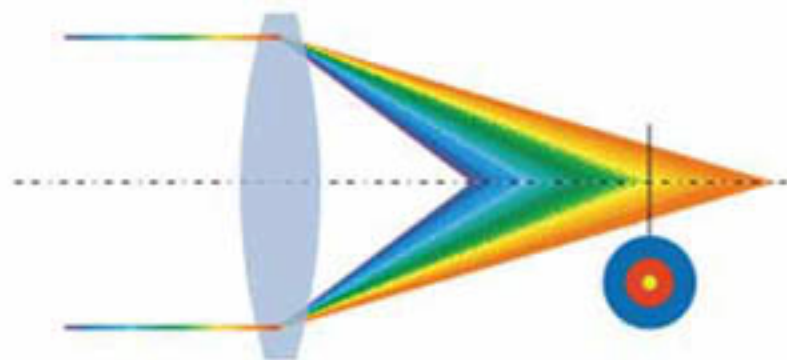
d. 990

The first prototype of a new camera design can't produce a focused image of an object near the camera. Which of the following might improve the focusing on near objects?



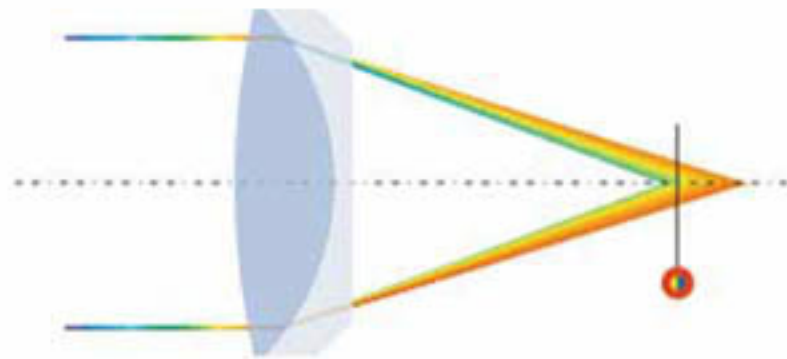
- ☒ a. decrease the maximum distance between lens and film
- ☒ b. substitute a lens with increased index of refraction material
- ☐ c. increase the radii of curvature of the two lens surfaces
- ☒ d. decrease the aperture

1

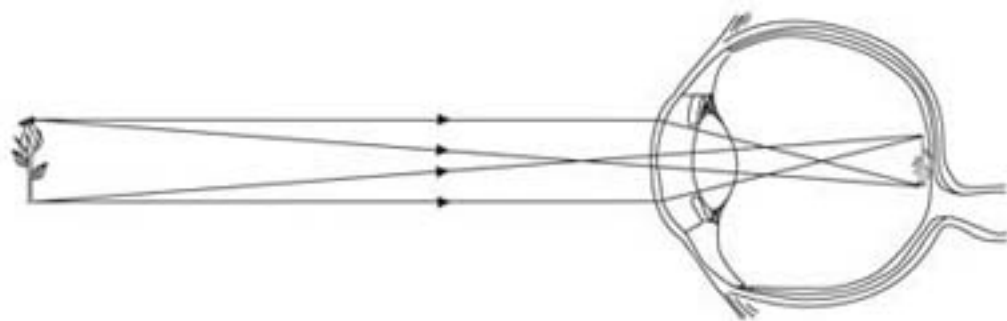
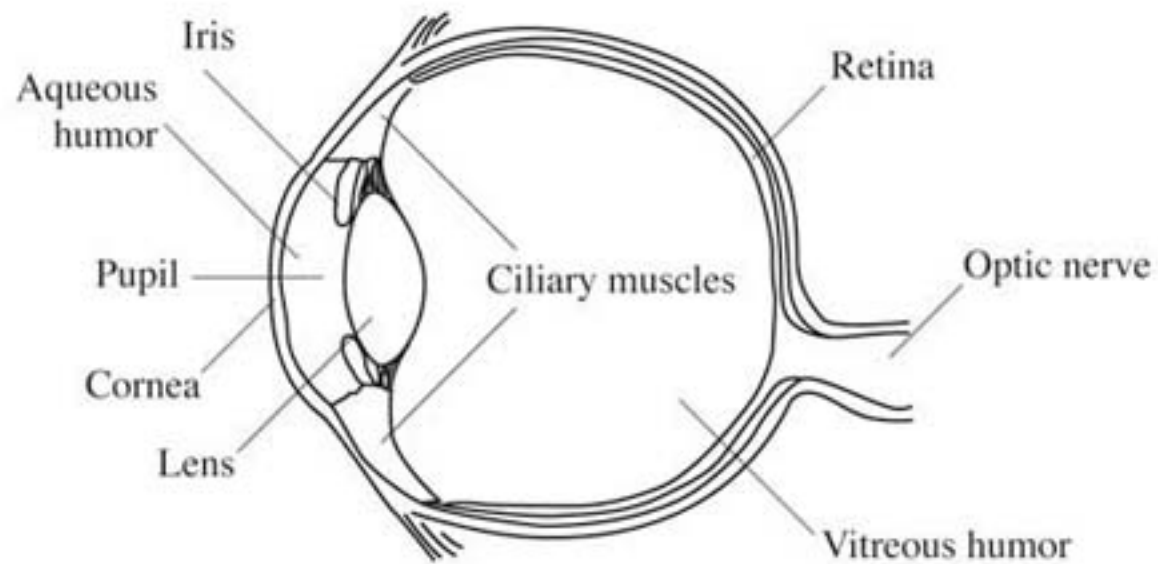


Dispersion
causes
chromatic
aberration

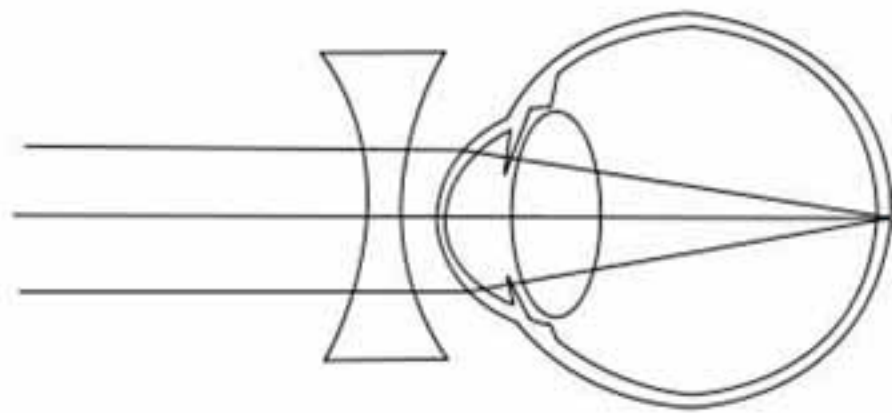
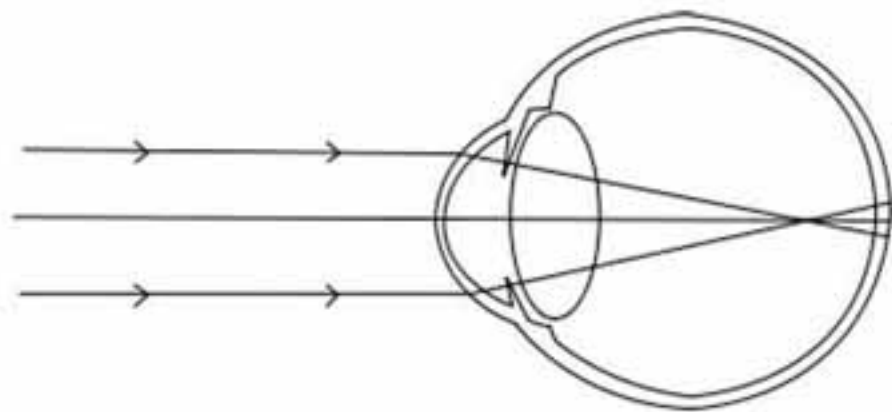
2



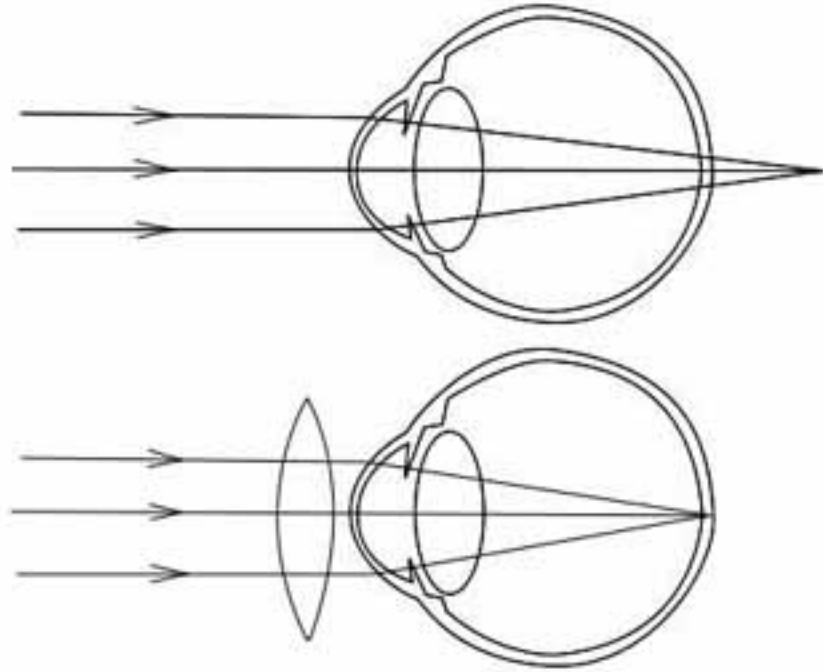
The Human Eye



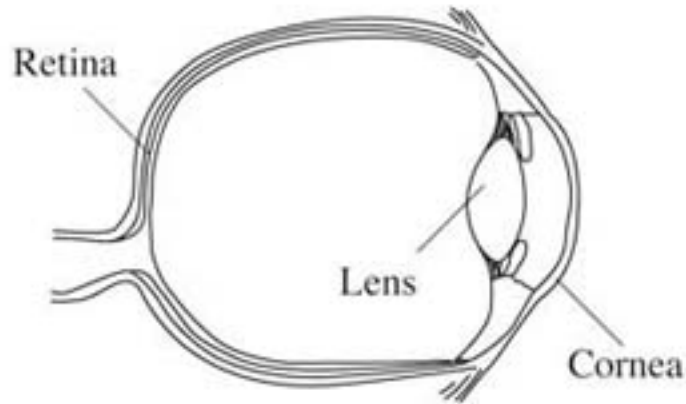
Myopia



Hypopia

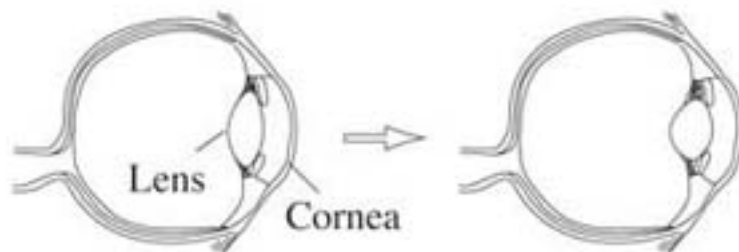


A common vision defect results if the eyeball is too long in relation to lens and corneal structure. Which of the following describes the underlying optical causes of poor vision in such cases?



- a. An inverted (upside-down) image forms on the retina.
- b. Distant objects are focused on the retina, but near objects are focused behind it.
- ☒ c. The images of far objects focus in front of the retina.
- d. The images of near objects focus in front of the retina.

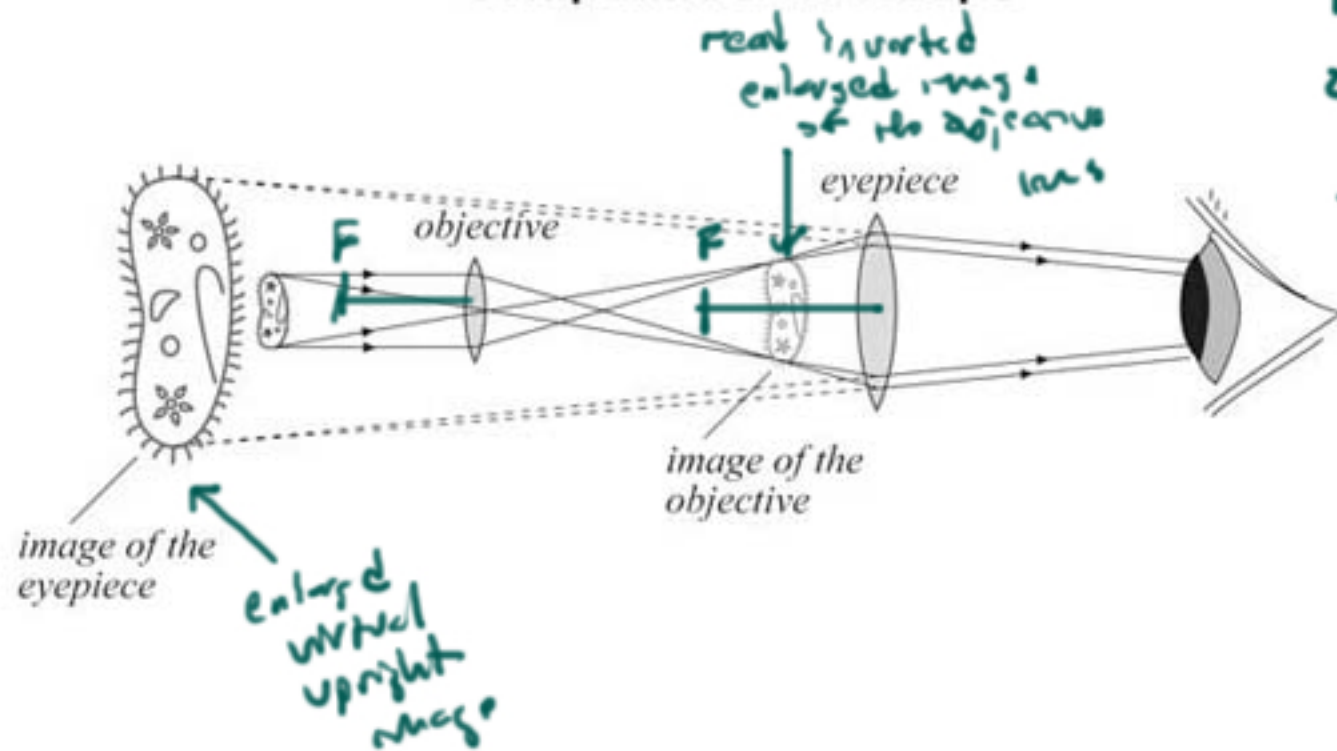
Although most of the diffraction of light entering the eye happens at the air-cornea boundary, adjustments of focal length to distance are made by changes in lens shape, a process called accommodation.



Which of the following happens when the lens becomes less elastic with age and less able to assume a rounded shape?

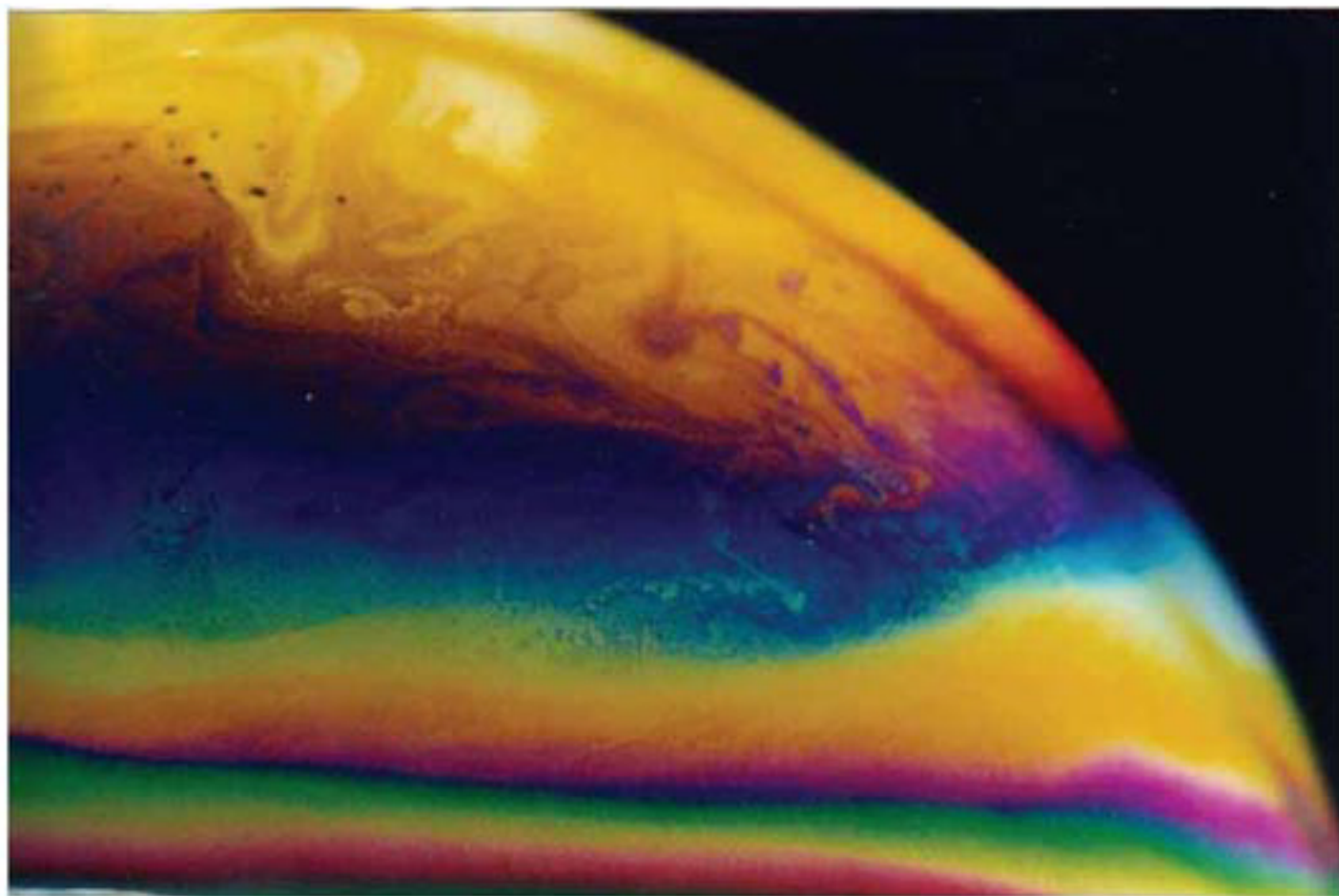
- a. The images of near objects focus on the retina.
- b. The images of near objects focus in front of the retina.
- c. The images of distant objects focus in front of the retina.
- ☒ d. The value of the near point increases.

Compound Microscope

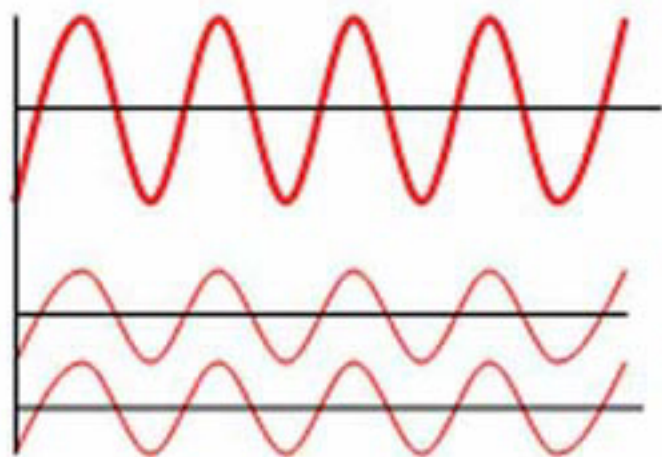


Take the image
of the 1st as
the object of the
2nd.

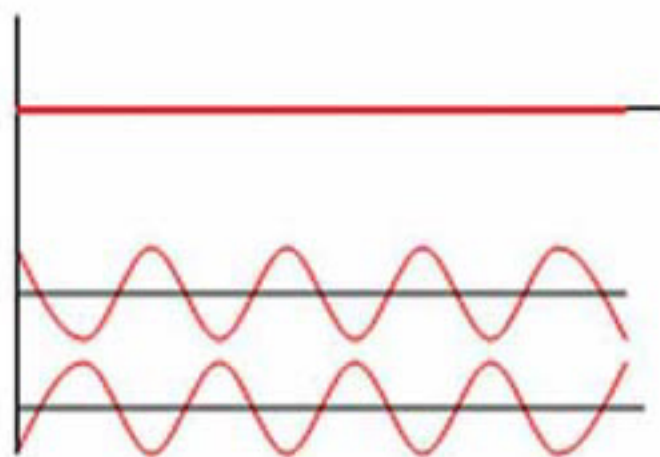
Wave
Optics



Interference



Constructive



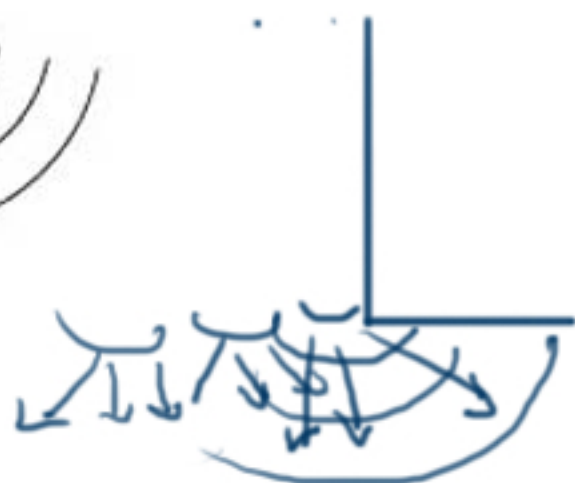
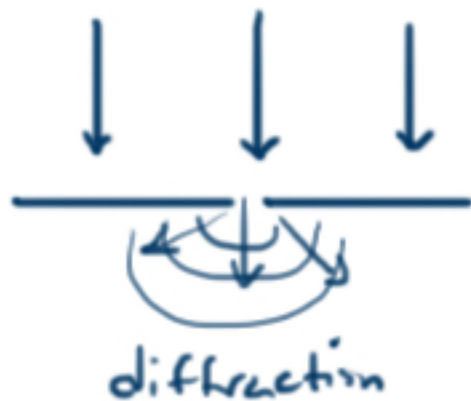
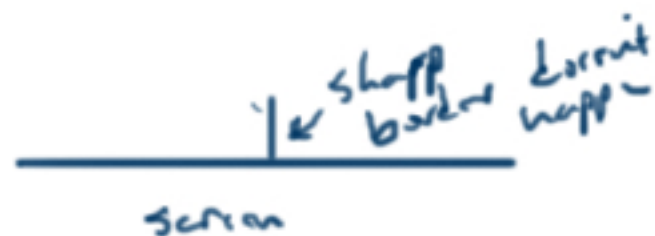
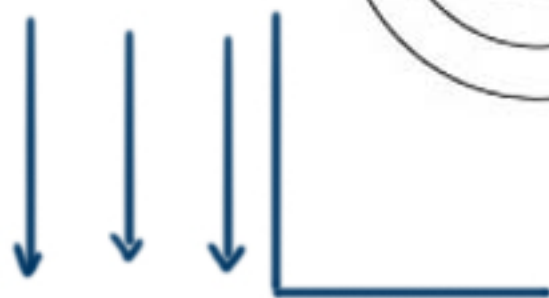
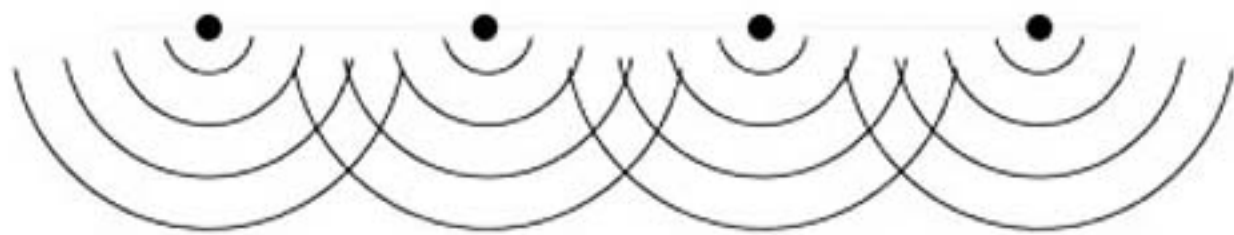
Destructive

180°
out of phase

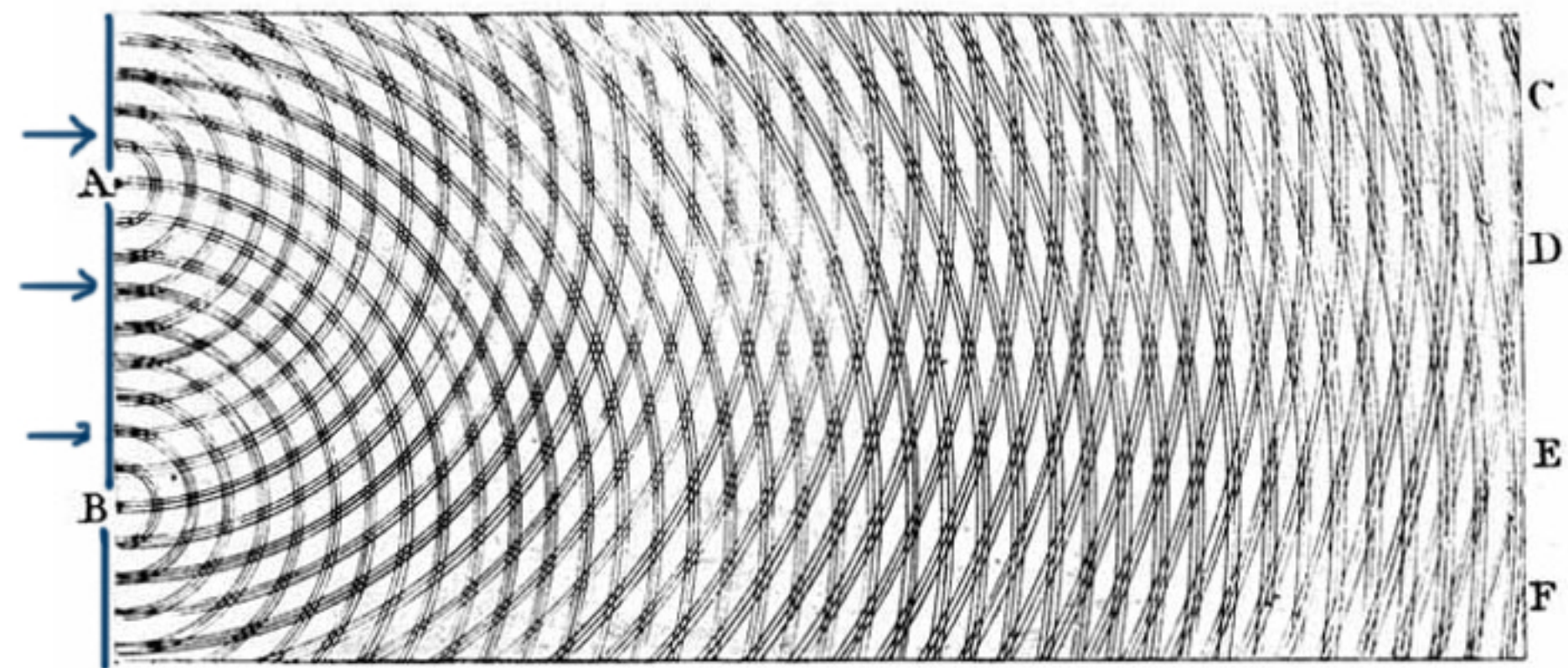
Huygens Principle

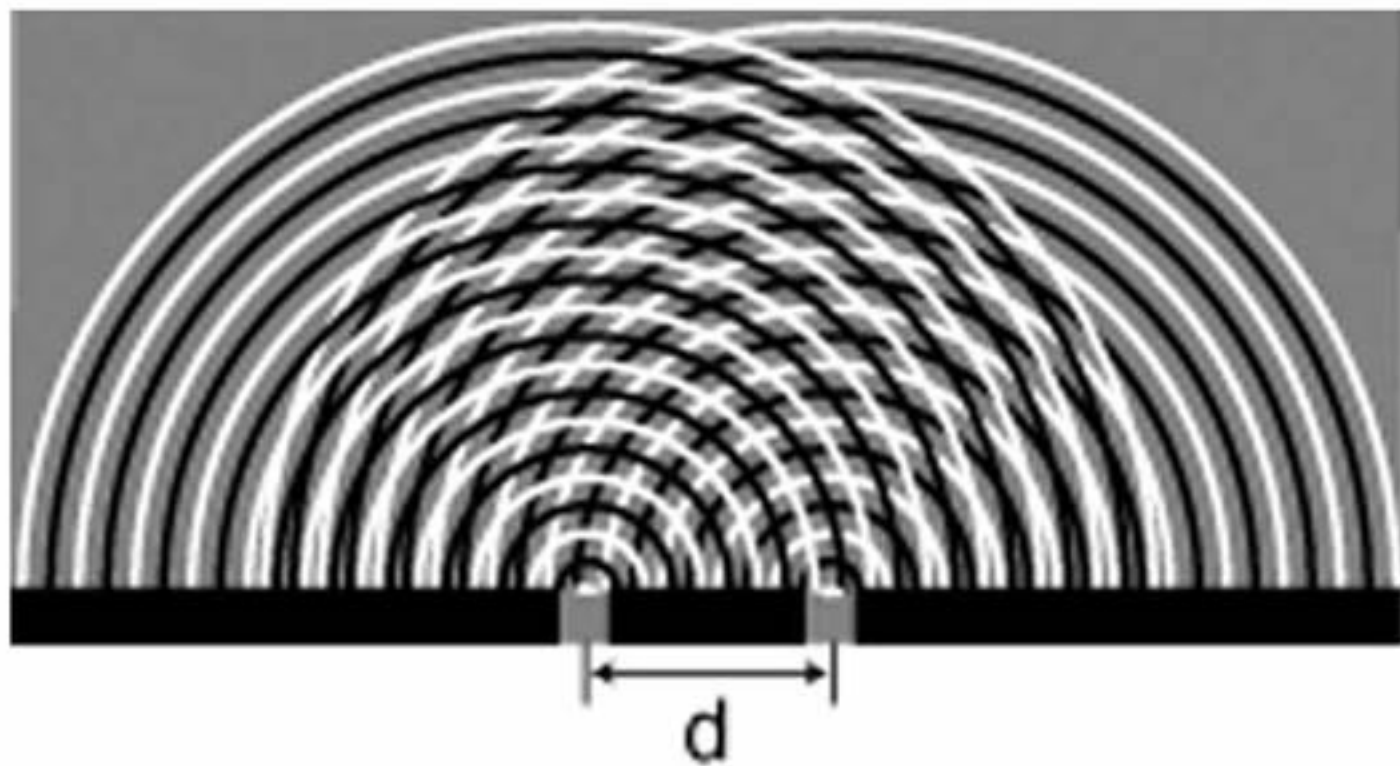
Why the
Ray approach
isn't sufficient

treat the wave front as
a multitude of independent sources of wavelets

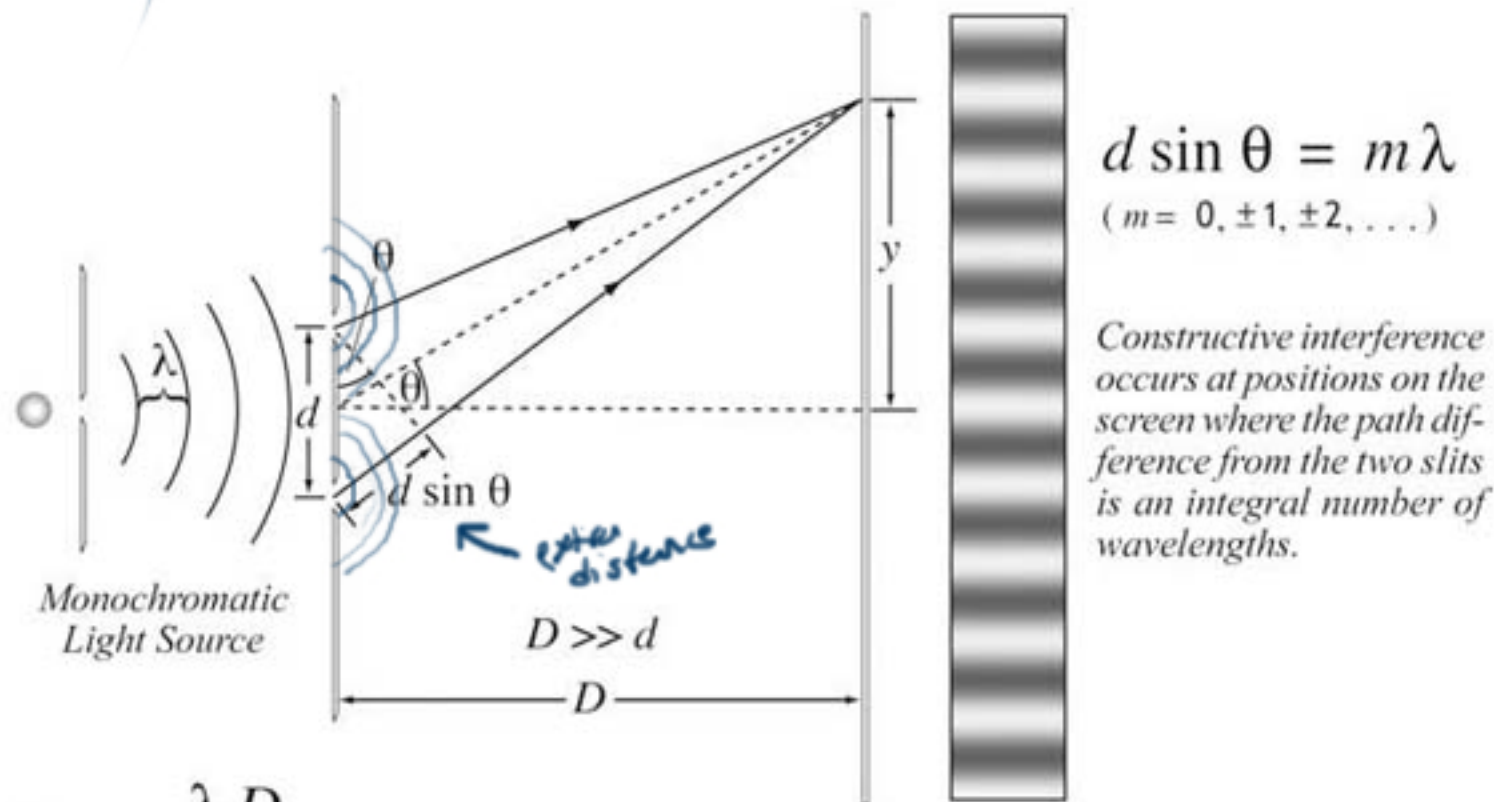


the light bends around the
corner - diffraction





Young's Double Slit Interference



$$y_{\text{br}} = \frac{\lambda D}{d} m$$

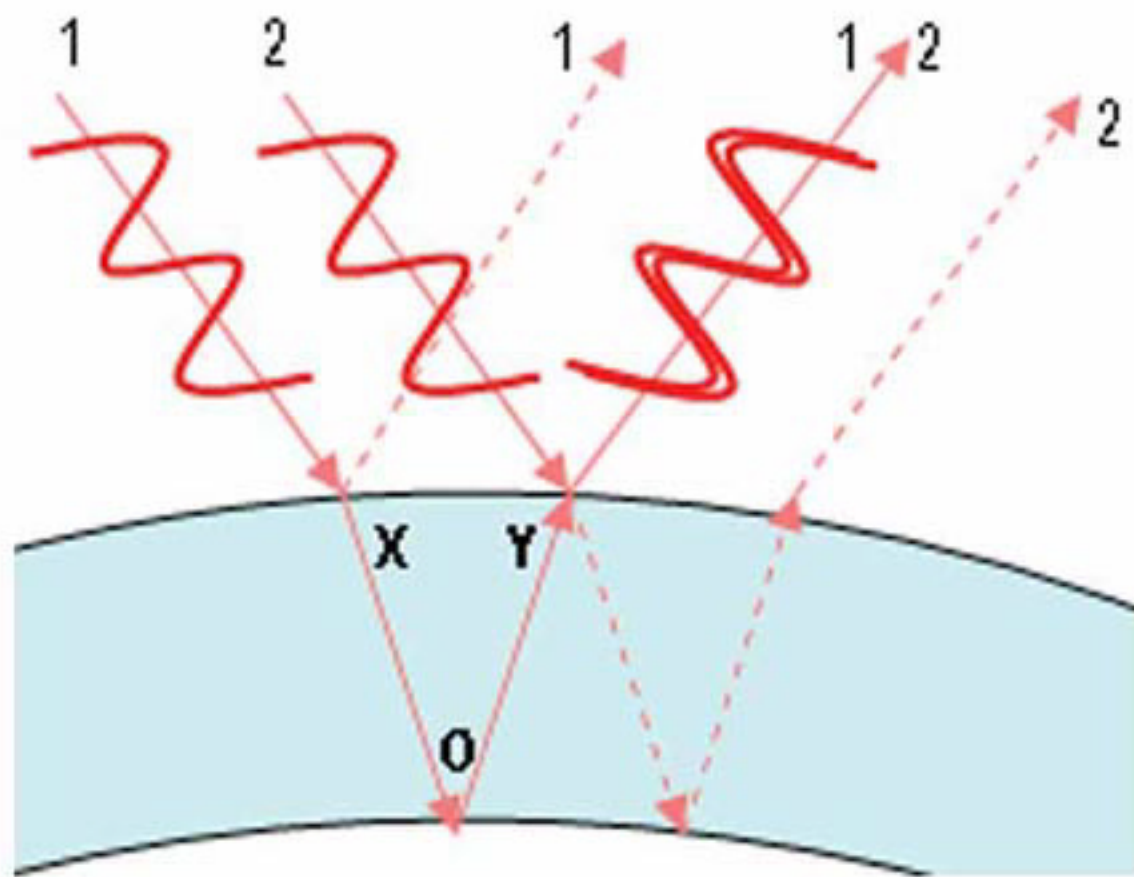
($m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$)

If θ is small, then $\sin \theta \sim y/D$, and this formula can be applied. Notice that narrowing slit separation, d , causes the fringes to spread out. (A larger angle is required for the same path difference.)

Incident rays

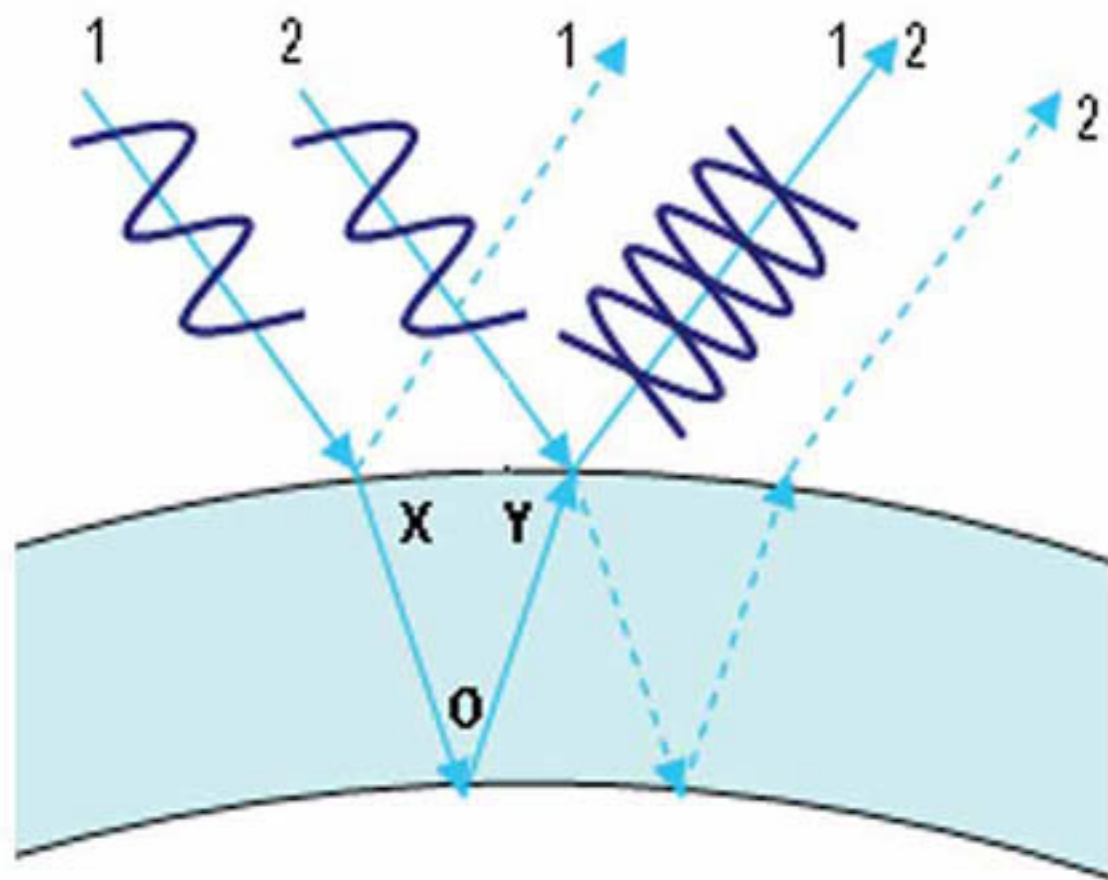
Reflected rays

Thin layer
interference



Incident rays

Reflected rays



Thin Film Interference

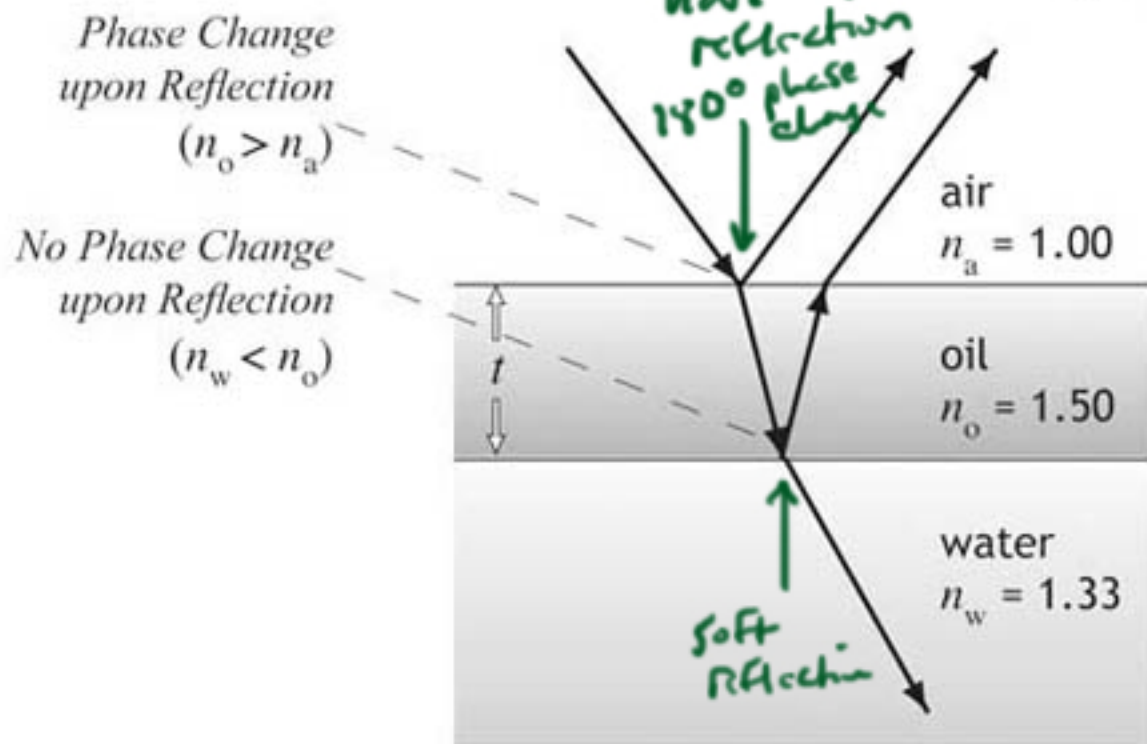
Condition of Constructive Interference
(with one reflection having a phase change)

$$2t = \left(m + \frac{1}{2}\right) \lambda_n$$

$$(m = 0, 1, 2, \dots)$$

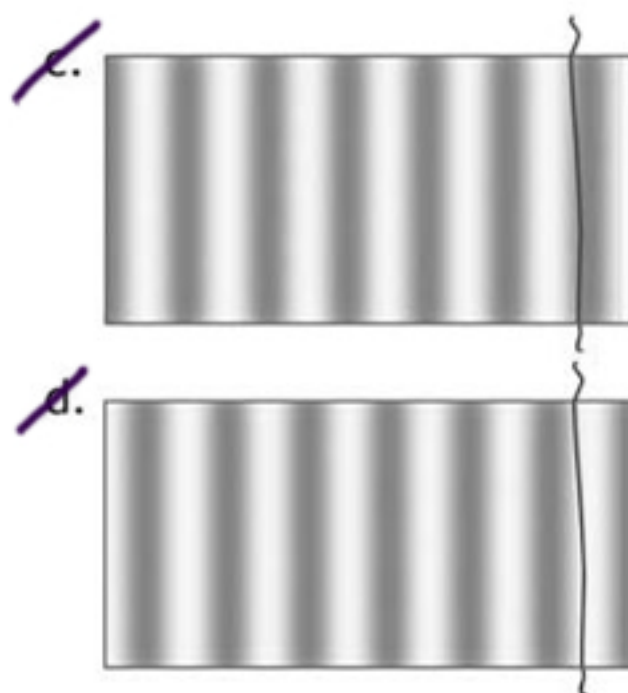
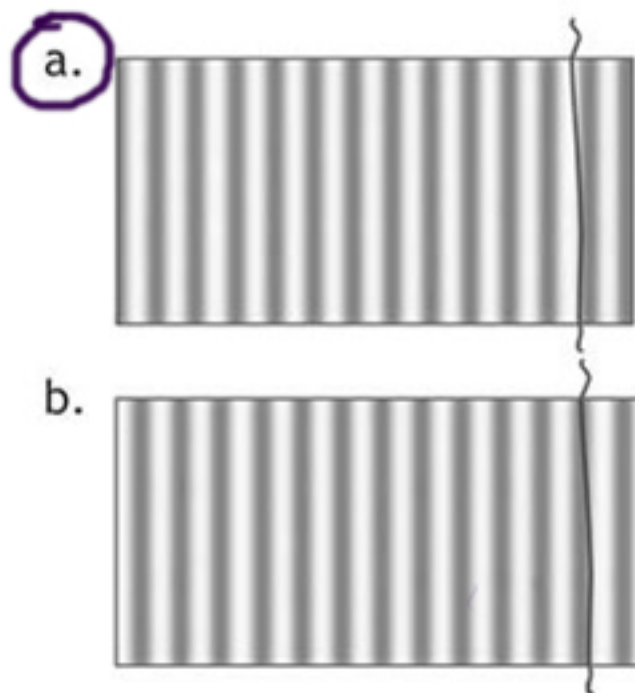
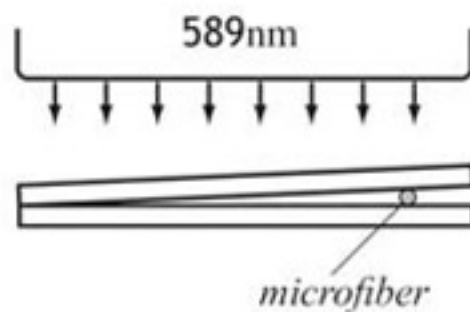
t = thin film thickness

λ_n = wavelength of light within film medium



✓ because 1 π radian was hard

An engineer confirmed the thickness of a synthetic microfiber to be approximately 3 microns by placing the filament between two glass slides and illuminating it with a sodium light ($\lambda = 589\text{nm}$). Which view of the two slides from above shows the pattern of light and dark fringes observed?



Handwritten notes and calculations:

$$3\mu = 3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$$

$$\lambda = 6 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$$

near microfiber

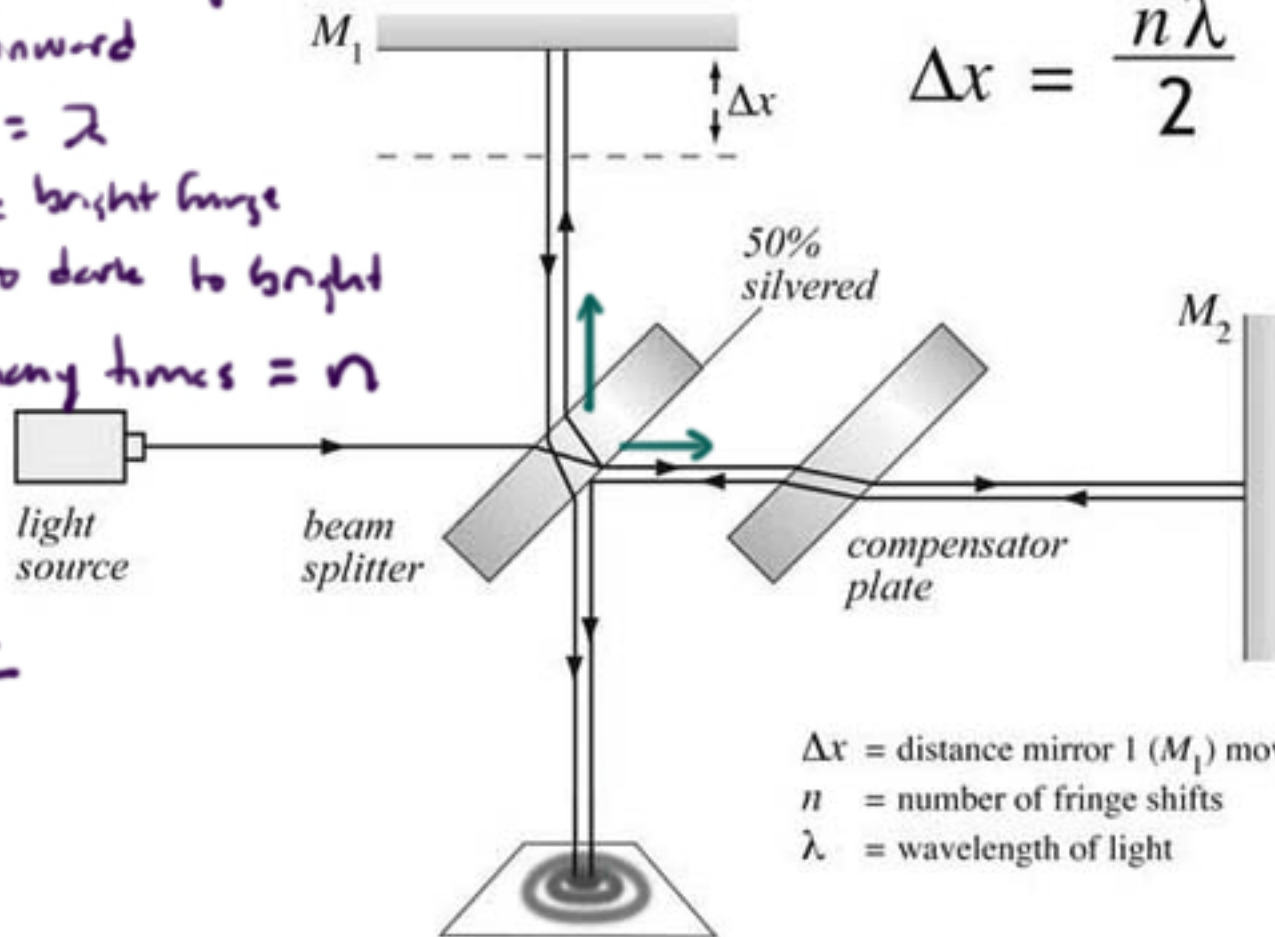
$$2t \sim 10\lambda$$

The Michelson Interferometer

to measure very small distances

Imagine we start
central fringe is bright.
Move M_1 inward
when $2\Delta x = \lambda$
we'll see the bright fringe
go bright to dark to bright
Count how many times = n

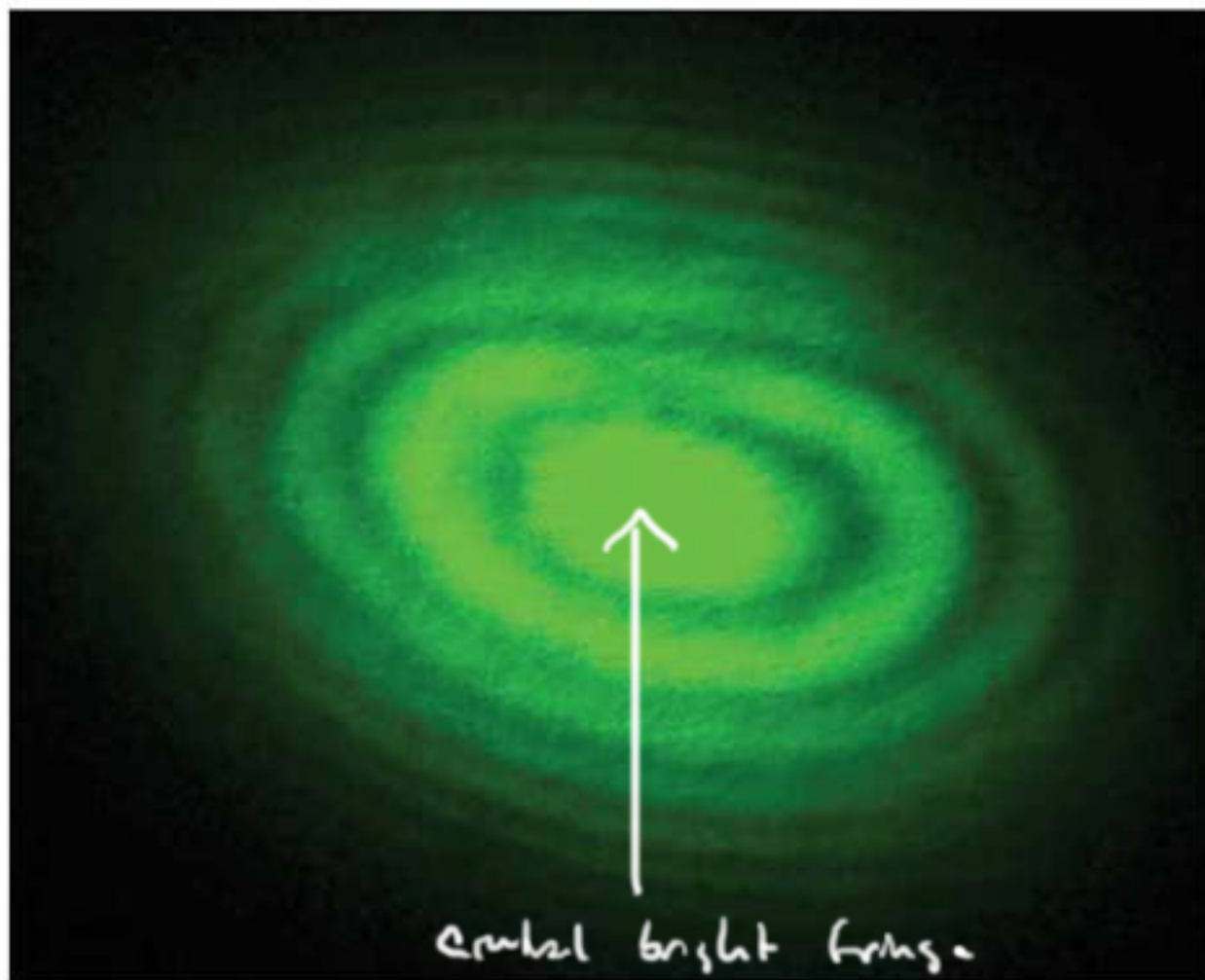
$$\Delta x = \frac{n\lambda}{2}$$



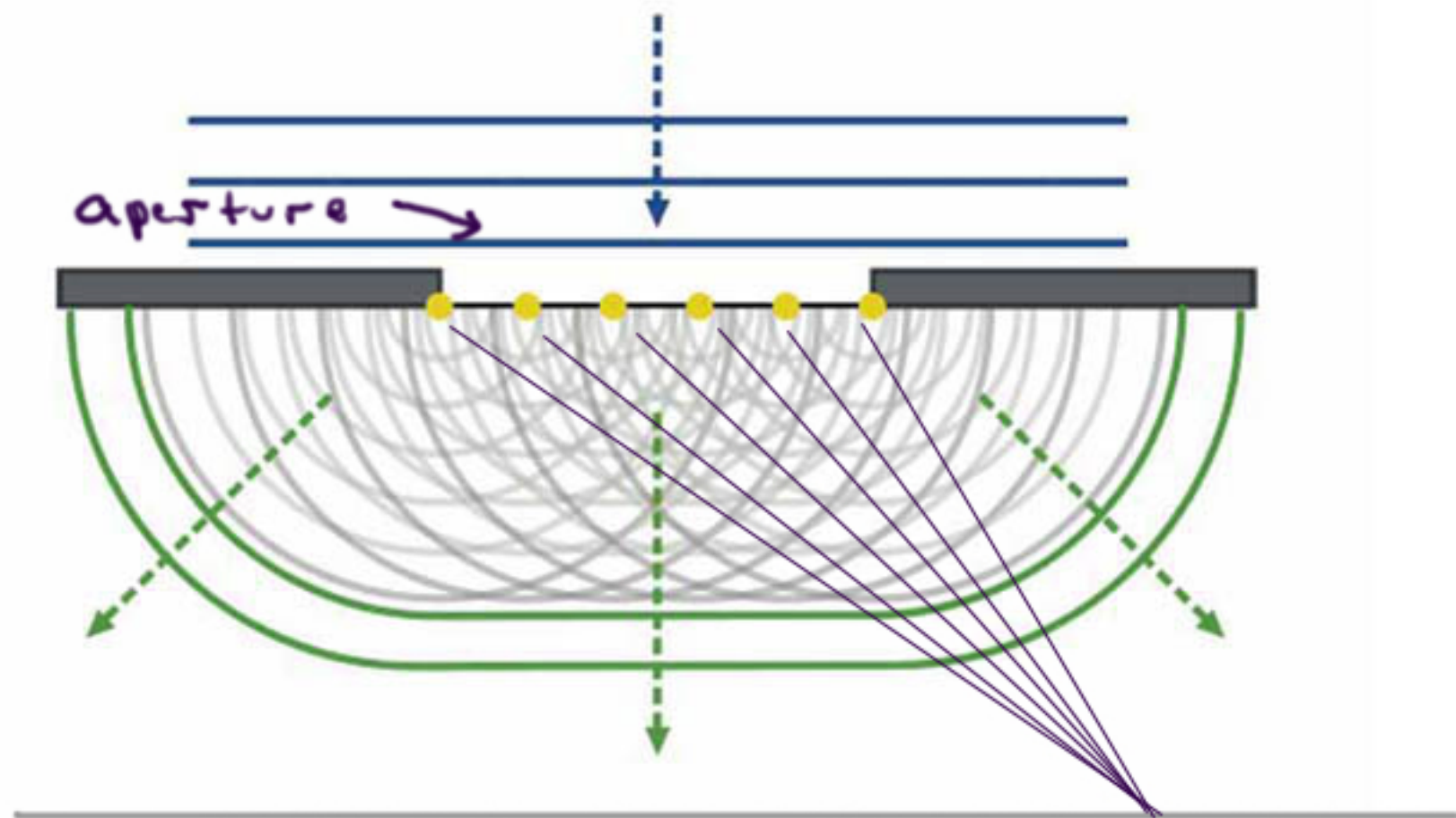
Δx = distance mirror 1 (M_1) moved
 n = number of fringe shifts
 λ = wavelength of light

$$2\Delta x = n\lambda$$

$$\Delta x = \frac{n\lambda}{2}$$

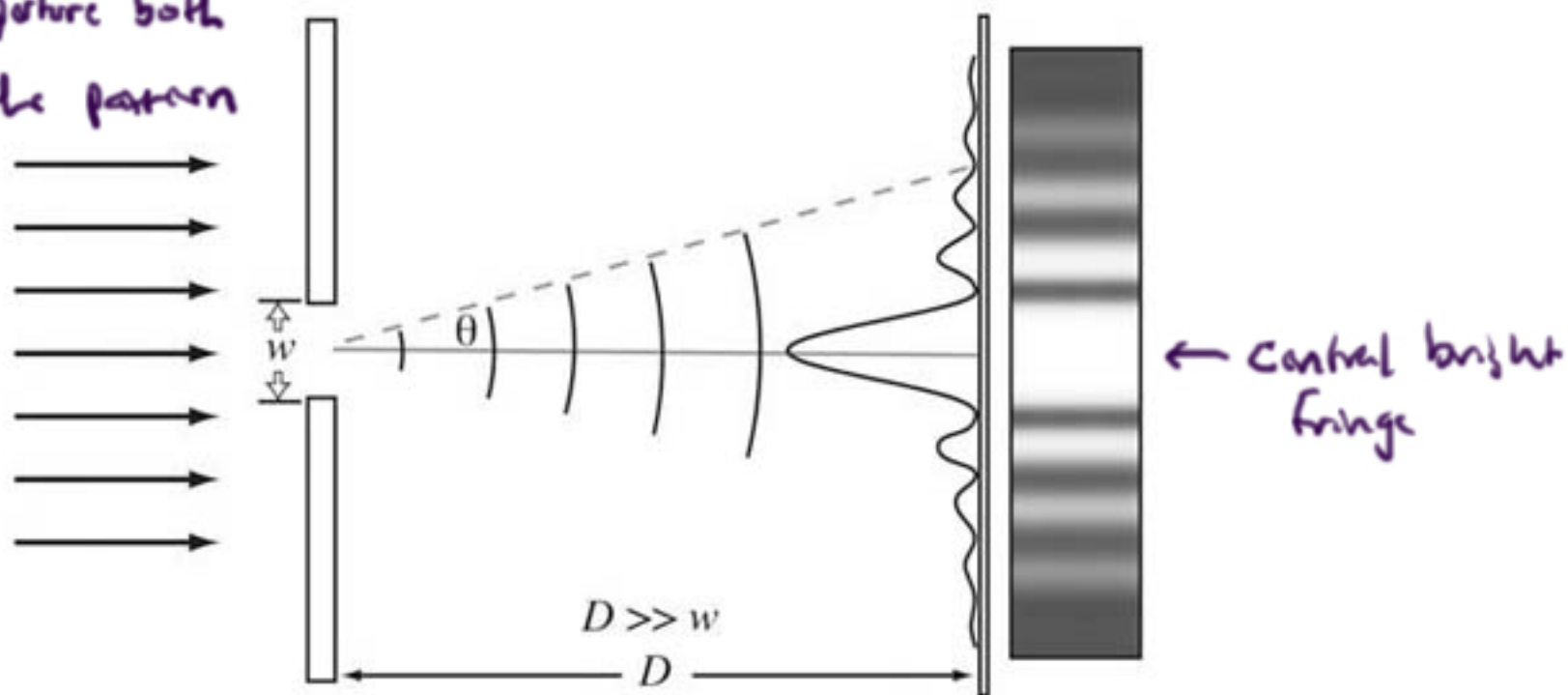


Single Slit Diffraction



Shorter λ
or bigger aperture both
compress the pattern

Single Slit Diffraction

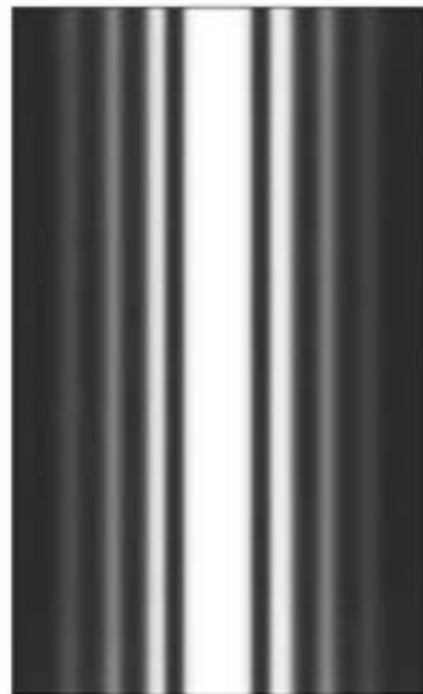


$$\sin \theta = \frac{n \lambda}{w}$$

($n = \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$)

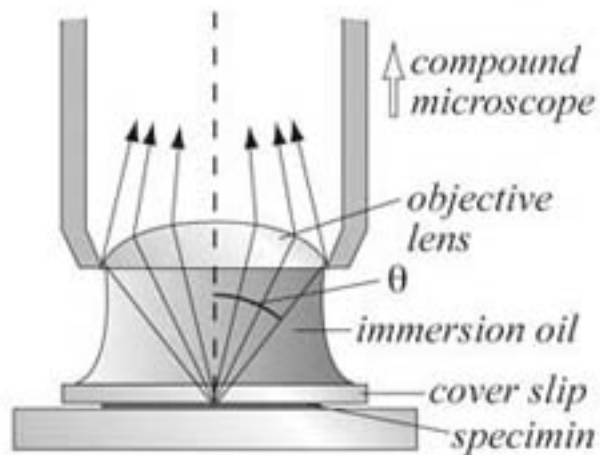
angular positions
of dark fringes
(intensity minima)

Monochromatic light is incident on a screen which is provided with a narrow 200μ wide slit. The light emerging from this slit casts the visible pattern seen at right onto a second screen 1.5m beyond the first slit. The width of the central bright fringe is 10mm . Which of the following actions would *increase* the width of this central fringe?



- a. Decreasing the wavelength of the light
- ☒ b. Narrowing the slit to 100μ in width
- c. Moving the second screen to 1.0m distance from the first screen
- d. Employing an incandescent light source

The resolution of a microscope reflects the ability of the apparatus to form an image in which fine details can be discriminated. A key to resolving power is the *numerical aperture* of the objective lens, $n \sin(\theta)$ (n is the refractive index of the medium between the specimen and lens. The angle θ is shown at right.)



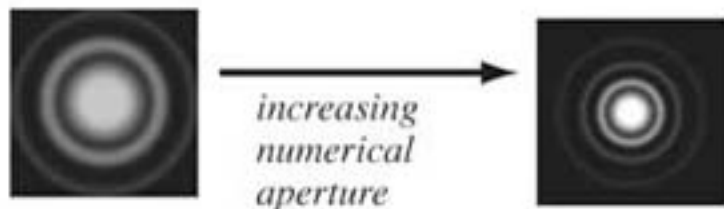
higher n
lower \checkmark
same f
shorter λ

Immersion oil with refractive index matched to glass, 1.51, is often used to fill the space between cover slip and objective lens. What is the most important contribution of immersion oil to microscope resolution?

- a. eliminating chromatic aberration
- b. preventing variation of cover slip thickness
- c. reducing spherical aberration by making the media homogeneous
- ☒ d. increasing the possible phase difference at an image point of light waves originating from the same object point

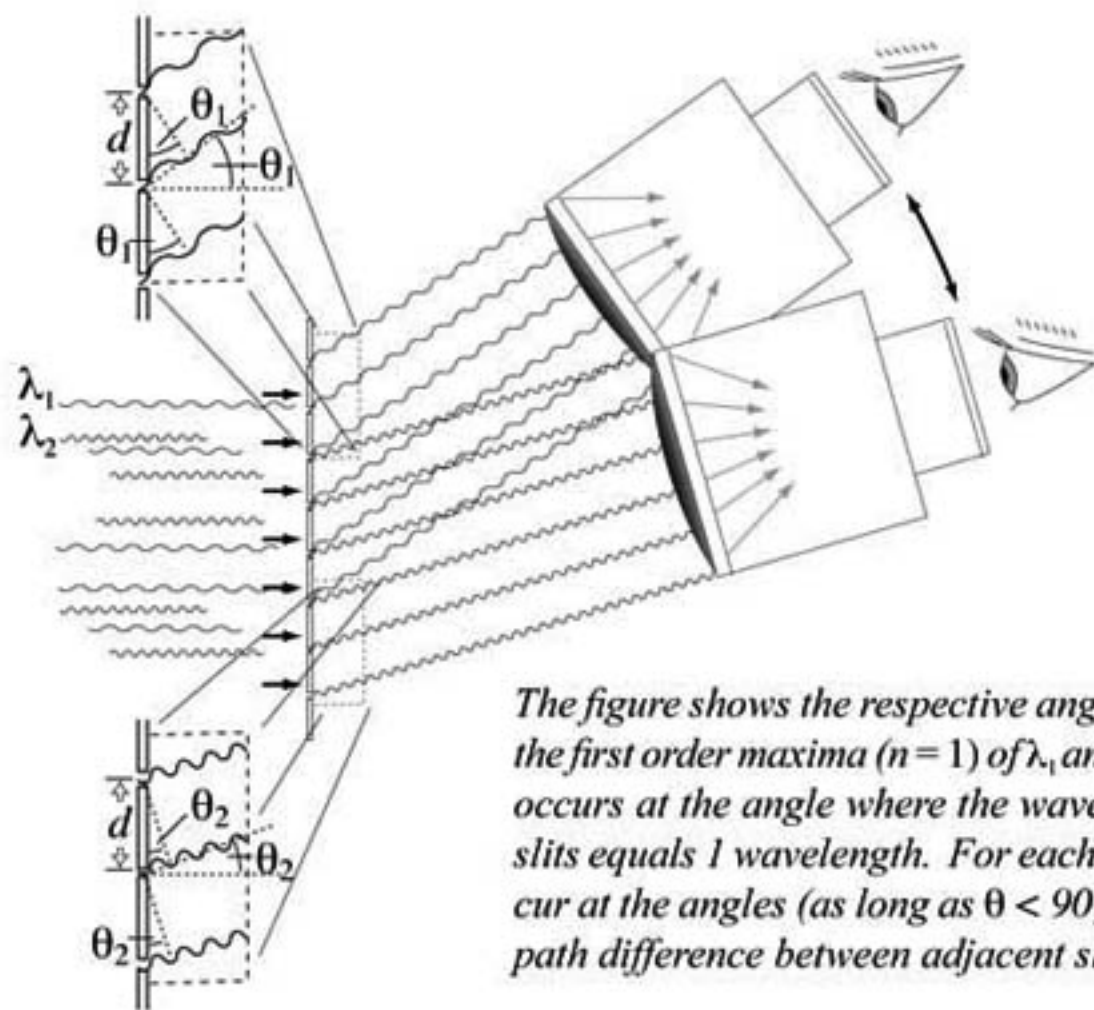
The answer is (d)

Diffraction of light passing through a circular aperture produces an interference pattern similar to single slit diffraction. By *Hugen's principle*, each portion of the aperture acts as a source of waves. For a given image point, the interference of wavelets yields a diffraction pattern known as an *airy disk*. Widening the slit narrows the central maximum in single slit diffraction. Likewise, widening a circular aperture increases the phase difference possible for different light paths, increasing the number of diffraction orders captured, which decreases the size of the central maxima of the airy disk image of a given point source. (With its increased index of refraction, the wavelength of light is shortened in oil vs. air, which has the same effect as widening the aperture, increasing the number of diffraction orders captured.)



When the central maximum of one airy disk falls on the first minimum of another (Rayleigh's criterion), the images are said to be just resolved, so decreasing the size of central maxima increases the ability to resolve two airy disk patterns.

The Diffraction Grating Spectrometer



Condition for Maxima for a Particular Wavelength:

$$d \sin \theta = m \lambda$$

$(m = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots)$

just like
double
slit
interference

The figure shows the respective angles of deviation (θ_1 and θ_2) for the first order maxima ($n = 1$) of λ_1 and λ_2 . The first order maximum occurs at the angle where the wave path difference for adjacent slits equals 1 wavelength. For each wavelength, maxima also occur at the angles (as long as $\theta < 90$) for $n = 2, 3$ etc. wavelengths path difference between adjacent slits.



The image above shows the zeroth, first and second spectral orders cast on a screen by the beam of a green argon gas-ion laser ($\lambda = 514.5 \text{ nm}$) incident on a diffraction grating. Which pattern results after the entire assembly of laser, grating and screen are immersed in water?

higher n
shorter λ

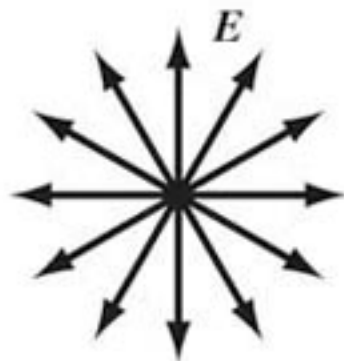


Polarization of Light



Unpolarized Light

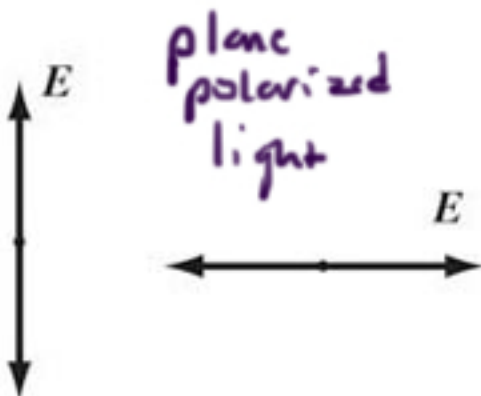
With unpolarized light, all directions of electric field vibrations perpendicular to the direction of wave propagation are possible. Most light sources produce unpolarized light.

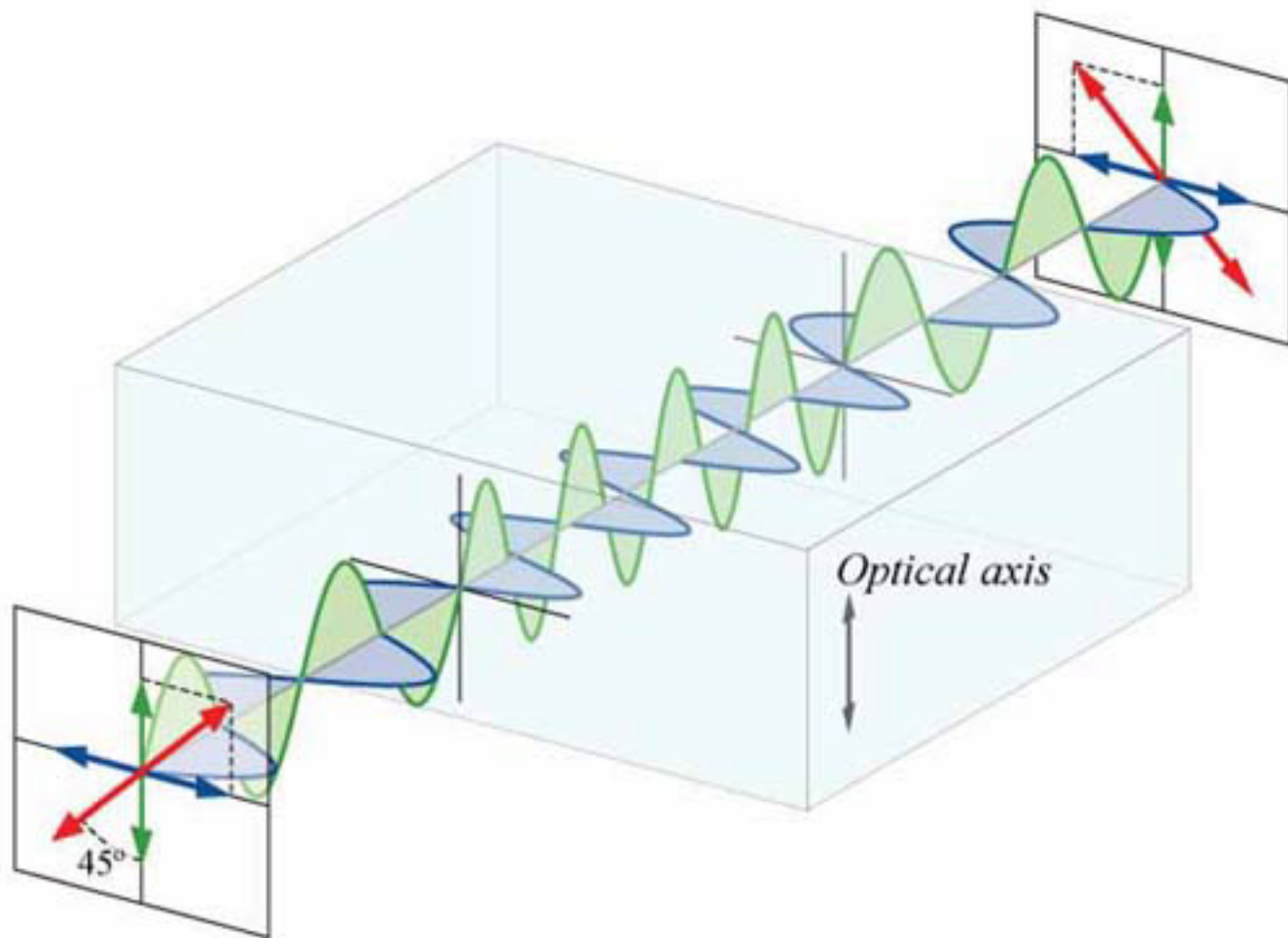


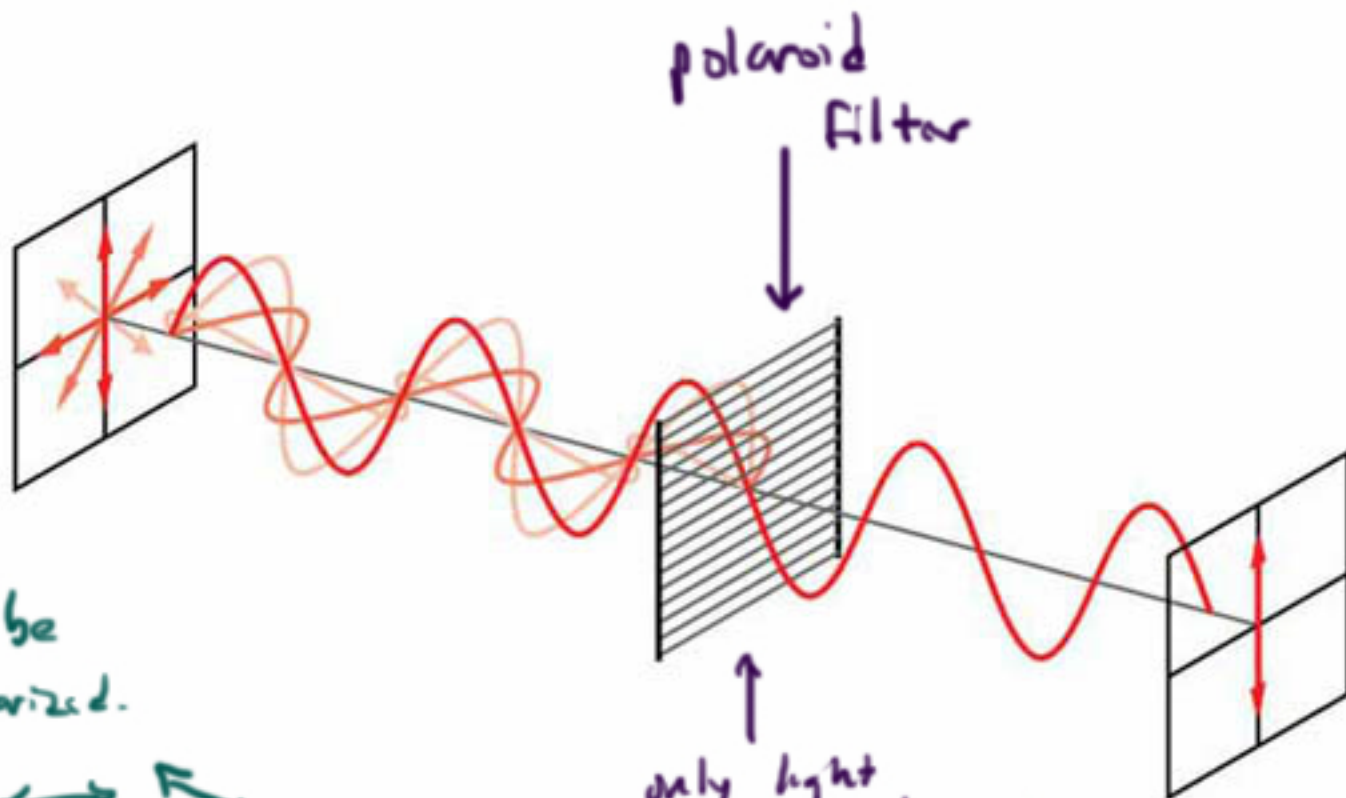
Direction of propagation is perpendicular to the page.

Polarized Light

With plane polarized light, the electric field vibrates in a single plane perpendicular to wave propagation. Different means exist to produce polarized light from an unpolarized source including reflection, selective absorption, double refraction and scattering.







• Light can also be circularly polarized.

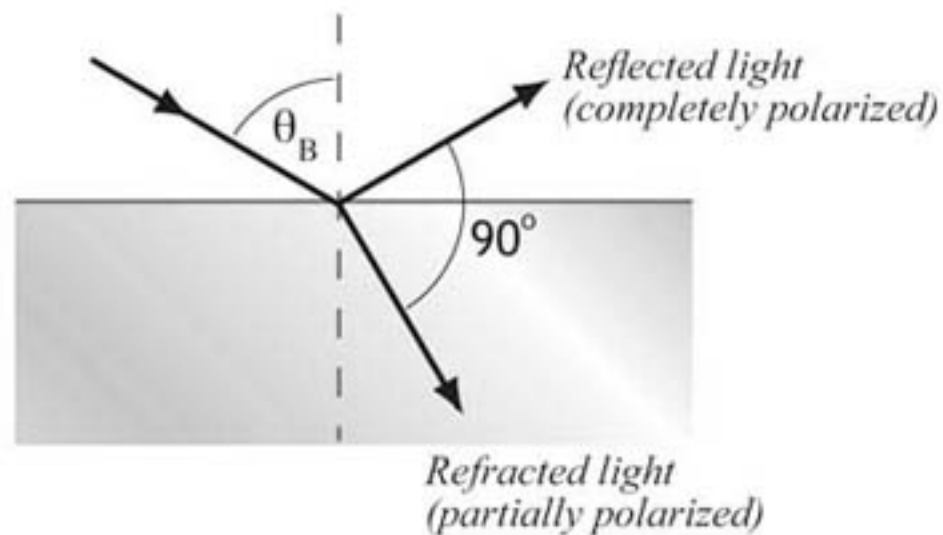


used in circular dichroism spectroscopy to assay the degree of order in a protein's 2^o structure

only light with optical axis parallel to the filter's transmission axis

- *Reflection* polarizes light. For intermediate angles of incidence, between 0° and 90° , at least some of the reflected light is polarized because light in which the electric field vibrations parallel to the surface are more strongly reflected.
- *Selective absorption* polarize light. A *polaroid film* only allows the components of the electric field vibrations to pass that are parallel to its transmission axis.
- *Double refraction* produces polarized light within *birefringent materials*. In these substances, such as calcite and quartz, the index of refraction is not the same in all directions. Double refraction causes an unpolarized light beam to be split into an *ordinary (O) ray* and an *extraordinary (E) ray*, which are polarized in mutually perpendicular directions.
- *Scattering* produces polarized light. For example, the vibrations of air molecules in the horizontal plane reaches the earth while the vibrations in the vertical plane travel into space.

Brewster's Angle



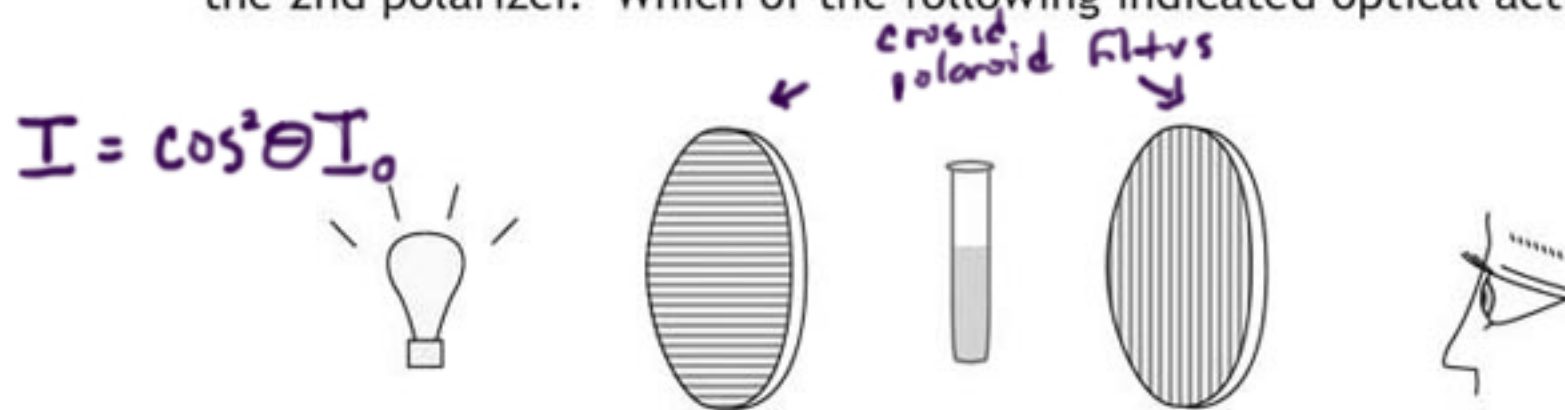
derived
from
Snell's Law

$$\tan \theta_B = \frac{n_2}{n_1} \quad (\text{if } n_1 \sim 1) \quad \tan \theta_B = n_2$$

supplemental

Brewster's angle, at which the reflected light is completely polarized, depends on the indices of refraction of the two media. (Note that the index of refraction of air is very close to 1, so Brewster's Law can often be simplified to $\tan \theta_B = n_2$).

Optically active substances possess the ability to rotate the plane of polarization of plane polarized light. To determine whether a transparent substance was optically active, a biochemist placed it between two crossed polarizers, illuminated the assembly as below, and viewed through the 2nd polarizer. Which of the following indicated optical activity?



- Angular rotation of the image of the substance
- Greater brightness where light was passing through the substance
- A double image of the substance
- The substance appeared opaque through the 2nd polarizer

Remember from stereochemistry

optically active substance

compensate

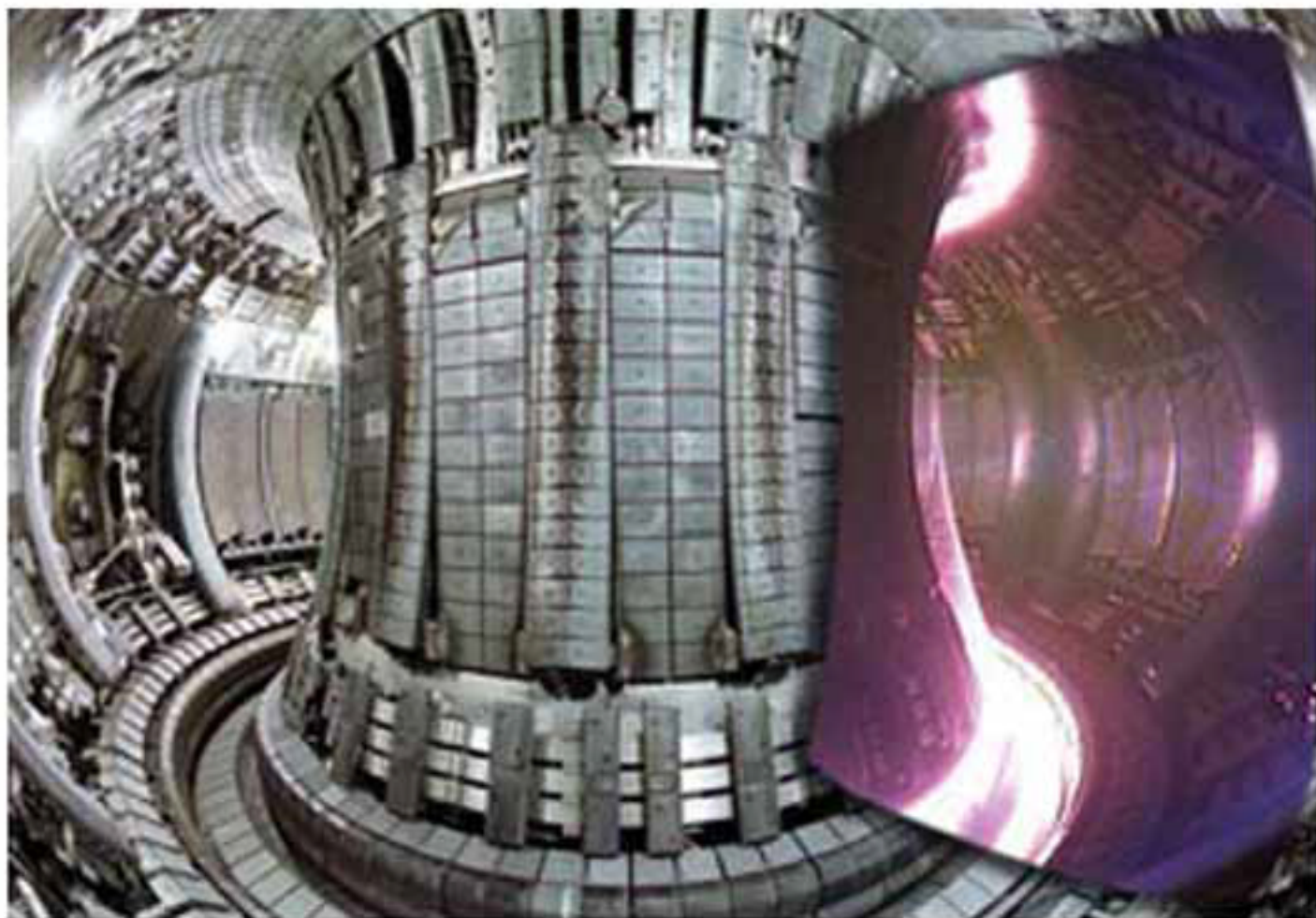
dextrorotatory

specific rotation = $\frac{\text{observed rotation}}{d \cdot c}$

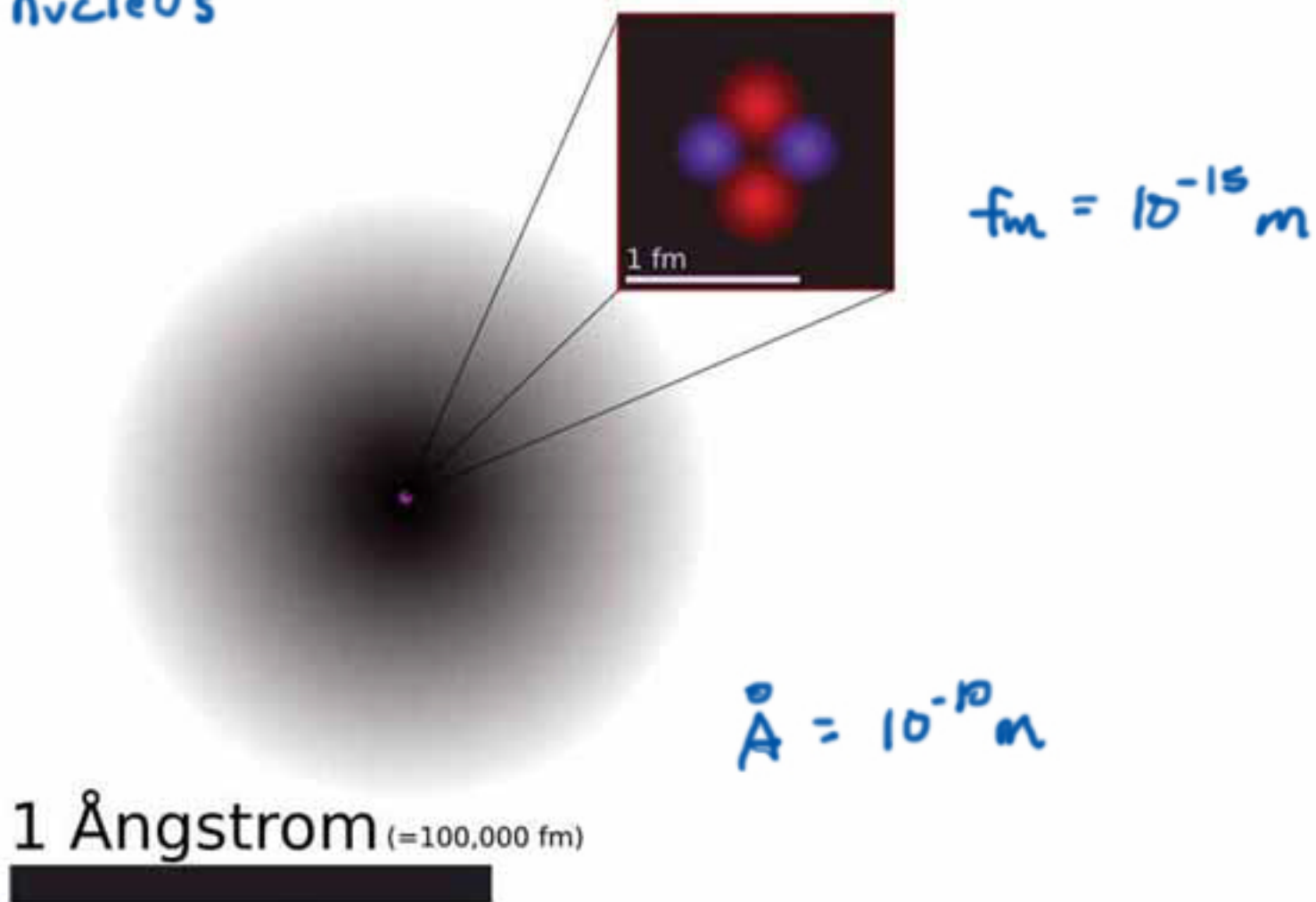
path length

concentration

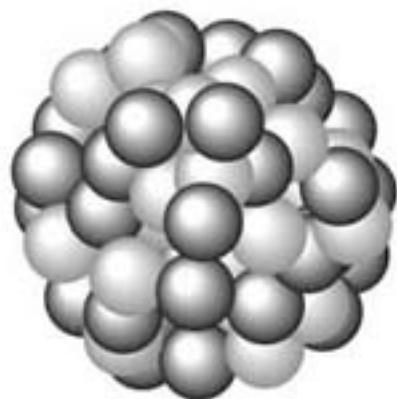
Nuclear Physics



The nucleus



The Nucleus



chemical symbol, X , for the element

atomic number, Z , equals the number of protons in the nucleus.

mass number, A , equals the number of nucleons (protons plus neutrons) in the nucleus.

neutron number, $N = A - Z$

Isotopes of an element have the same number of protons but a different number of neutrons in the nucleus, in other words, the same atomic number, Z , but different neutron number, N , and, therefore, different mass number, A .

Isotopes of Hydrogen



*normal hydrogen
nucleus*



*deuterium
nucleus*

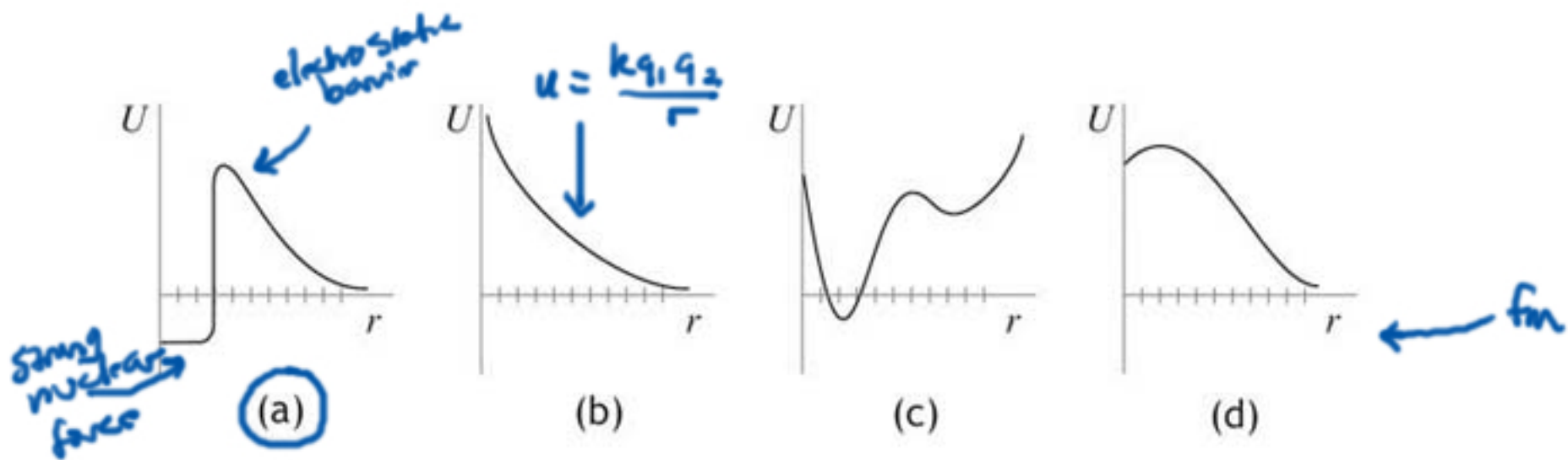


*tritium
nucleus*

The femtometer (fm) is a convenient unit of length for nuclear physics because its value is on the order of nuclear radii:

$$1 \text{ fm} = 10^{-15} \text{ m}$$

Through observations of scattering experiments, nuclear physicists have developed a potential energy curve for the interaction of two protons. For a system of two protons, which of the the following is the best representation of potential energy versus separation in femtometers?



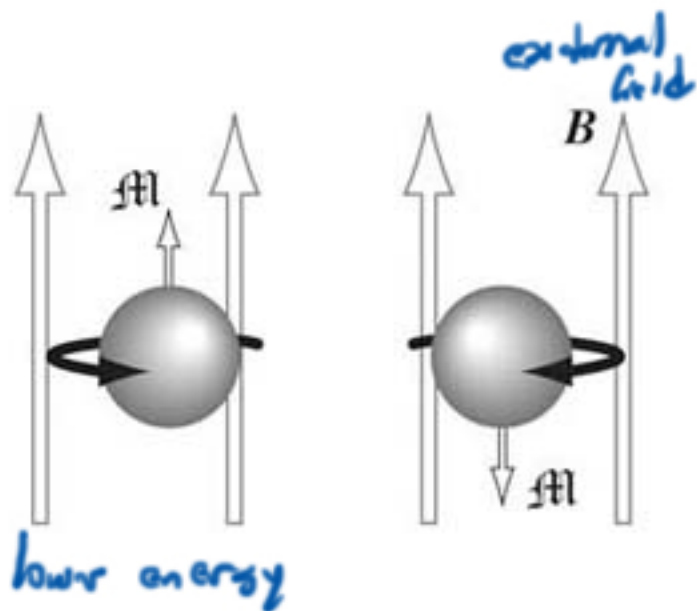
Nuclear Spin States

Nuclear spin quantum number, I .

Number of allowed spin states is $I + 1$.

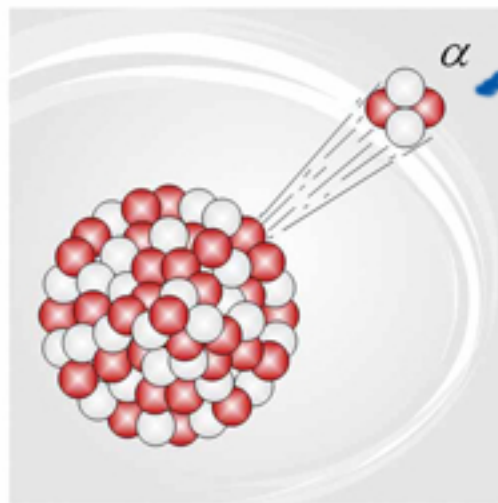
Spin states: $-I, (-I+1), \dots, (-I+1), I$

Element	^1H	^2H	^{12}C	^{13}C
Spin Quant #, I	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
# of states	2	3	0	2

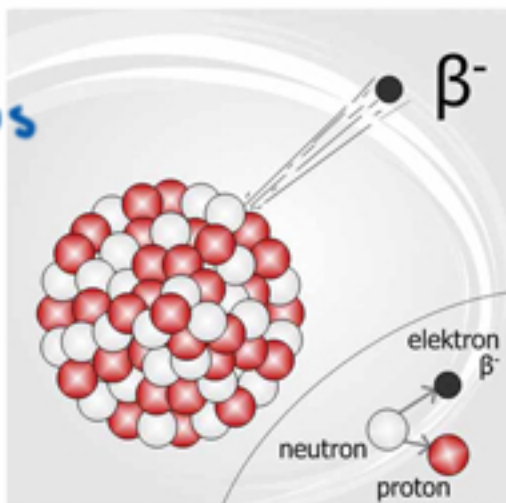


An applied magnetic field splits the two spin states of a proton into states of unequal energy. Energy is lower for the state in which the spin magnetic moment is aligned with the external field.

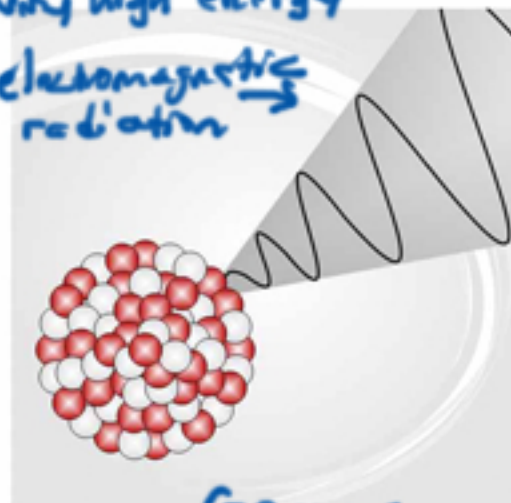
nuclear decay



helium nucleus



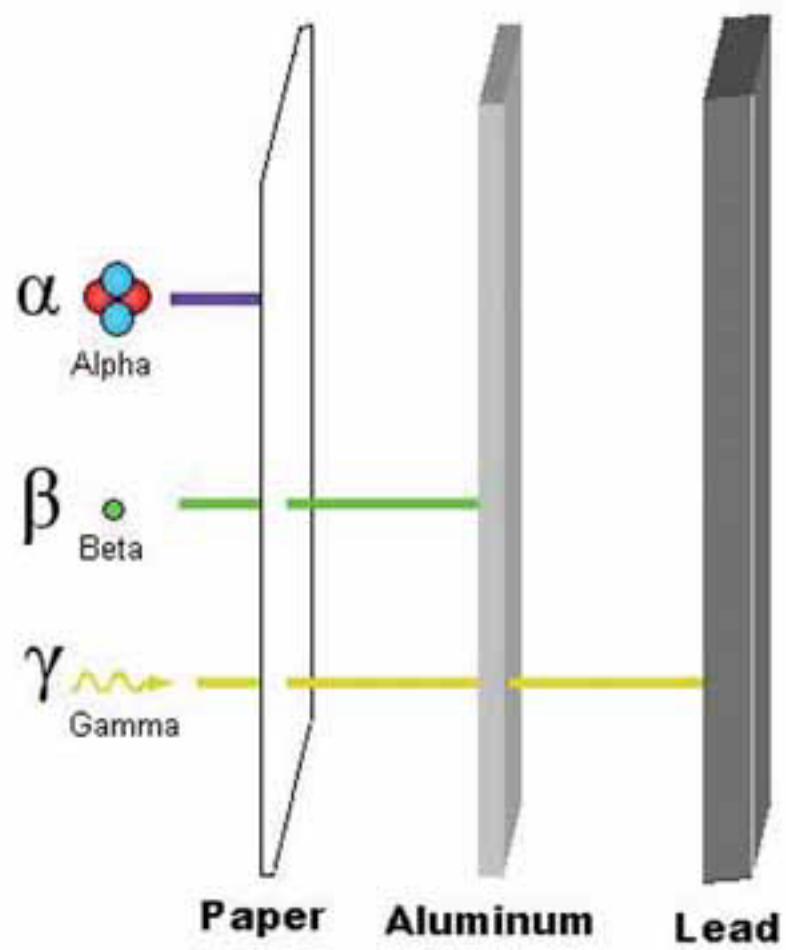
very high energy
electromagnetic
radiation

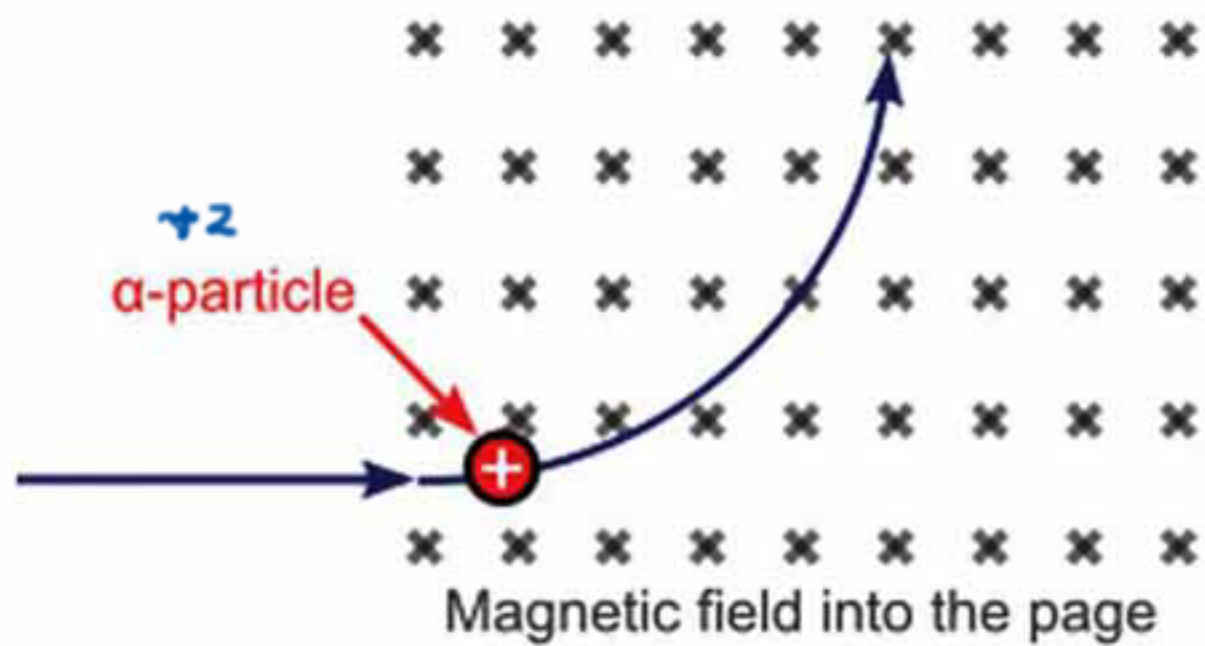


Beta Decay

β^- electron

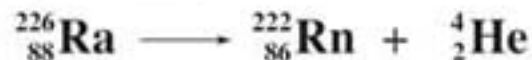
β^+ positron





Radioactive Decay

Alpha Decay

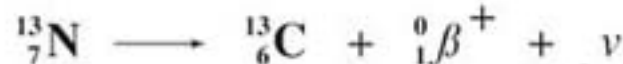


A nuclei undergoes **alpha decay** by emitting an **α particle**, which is identical to a helium nucleus (${}^4_2\text{He}^{2+}$, two protons and two neutrons). Z decreases by 2 and A decreases by 4.

Beta Decay



In β^- decay, a β^- particle, which is a high speed electron, and an **antineutrino**, $\bar{\nu}$, are emitted. A neutron changes into a proton in the nucleus (Z increases by 1 with A unchanged).



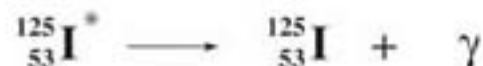
In β^+ decay, a β^+ particle, (a **positron**, the anti-particle of the electron) and a **neutrino**, ν , are emitted. A proton changes into a neutron in the nucleus (Z decreases by 1 with A unchanged).

Electron Capture



In **electron capture**, a nucleus captures one of the atom's own electrons, changing a proton to a neutron (Z decreases by 1 with A unchanged), and a **neutrino**, ν , is emitted.

Gamma Decay

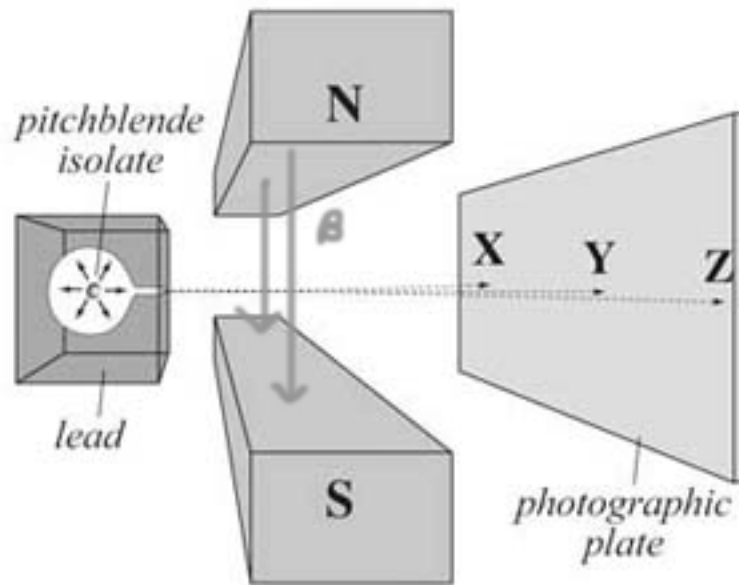


Gamma decay occurs when a nucleus in an excited energy state (very often as the result of a prior decay event) emits a very high energy photon, a **gamma ray**, as it transitions to a lower energy state.

β emitters
 ${}^{22}\text{P}$ ${}^{35}\text{S}$ ${}^{14}\text{C}$
 ${}^3\text{H}$ \uparrow radiolabels

PET scanning
 ${}^{18}_9\text{F} \longrightarrow {}^{18}_8\text{O} + \beta^+ + \nu$
 $\beta^+ + \beta^- \rightarrow \gamma$

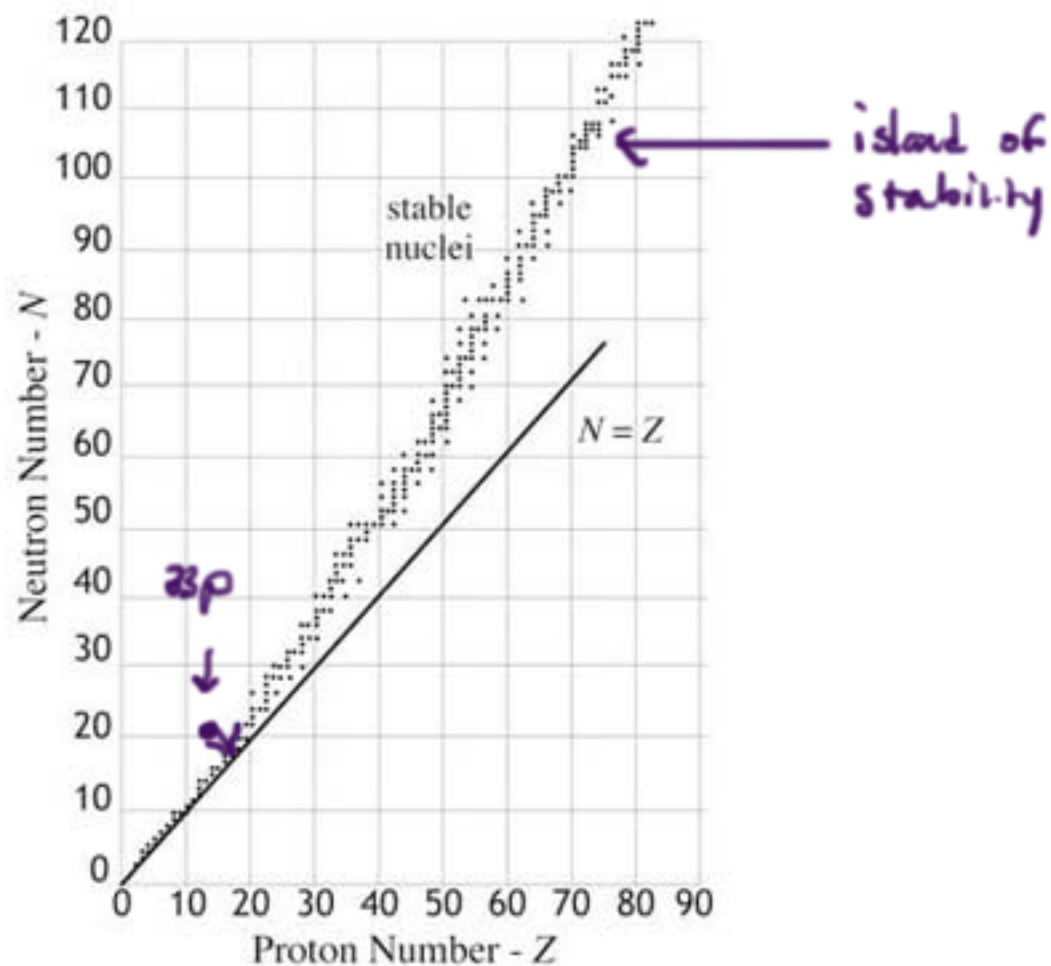
An isolate of the ore, pitchblende, is significantly radioactive. When the radiation is deflected by the magnetic field at right and detected photographically, one component of the radiation, **X**, is found to bend into the plane of the figure, and another component, **Z**, bends out of the plane. The third component, **Y**, is not affected by the magnetic field. Which of the following describes the components?



- a. **X** is composed of β^- rays; **Y** is γ rays; and **Z** is α rays
- b. **X** is composed of α rays; **Y** is anti-neutrinos; and **Z** is β^- rays
- c. **X** is composed of β^+ rays; **Y** is neutrinos; and **Z** is β^- rays
- ☒ d. **X** is composed of α rays; **Y** is γ rays; and **Z** is β^- rays

Stable nuclides are represented by a narrow band of proton-to-neutron ratios on the graph of neutron number vs. proton number. Nuclei falling outside this region are unstable and subject to radioactive decay. Unstable nuclei above the band are said to be neutron rich, and those below it are neutron poor. What type of decay would be expected for the isotope of phosphorus, $^{33}_{15}\text{P}$?

- a. α decay
- b. β^+ decay
- c. β^- decay
- d. electron capture



Activity and Half-Life

$$A = \frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t} = -\lambda N$$

A = activity (disintegrations per second)

N = number of radioactive nuclei

t = time

λ = decay constant

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

exponential decay

N = number of radioactive nuclei

N_0 = number of nuclei initially present

λ = decay constant

t = time

$$T_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda} = \frac{0.693}{\lambda}$$

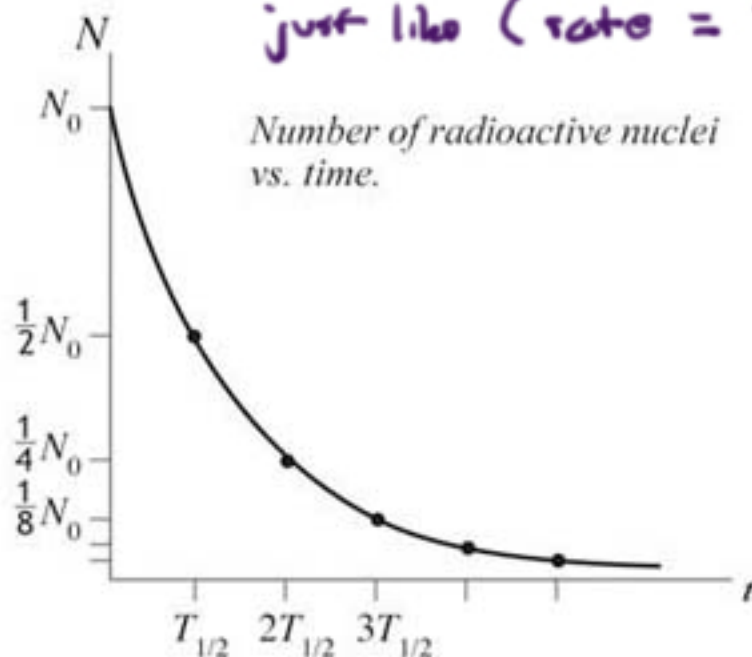
$T_{1/2}$ = half-life

λ = decay constant

$$A = -\lambda N$$

just like (rate = $k[X]$)

1st order kinetics

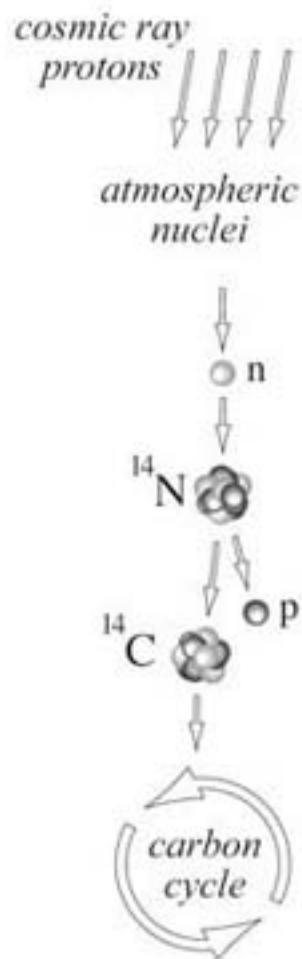


The half-life is the time required for half of an amount of a given radionuclide to undergo decay.

half-lives	1	2	3	4	5
#remaining	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{1}{32}$

In the upper atmosphere, cosmic ray protons collide with nuclei causing reactions that produce neutrons. These neutrons in turn lead to the transformation of ^{14}N into ^{14}C . This is a continuous process which maintains a ratio of ^{14}C to ^{12}C in the atmosphere that is fairly constant through millenia. After an organism dies, it ceases exchanging carbon with the atmosphere, and the ratio ^{14}C to ^{12}C decreases through the beta decay of ^{14}C which has a half-life of 5730 years.

Measuring the level of radioactive decay of ^{14}C in the preserved epidermal tissue of a mummy, it was found to sustain 20% of the activity of living tissue. What is the approximate age of the mummy?



$$\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{8} \end{array}$$

a. 1400 yrs

b. 13,500 yrs

c. 25,000 yrs

d. 30,000 yrs

Mass / Energy Equivalence in Nuclear Processes

Reaction Energy

$$Q = \Delta m c^2$$

Q = total energy released in a nuclear process

Δm = mass difference between products and reactants

c = speed of light (3×10^8 m/s)

The rest mass of
nucleons in a
stable nucleus is
lower.

Binding Energy

$$E_b = [Zm_p + Nm_n - M_{Nu}] \times c^2$$

Handwritten annotations:
- "free protons" with an arrow pointing to Zm_p
- "free neutrons" with an arrow pointing to Nm_n
- "nucleus" with an arrow pointing to M_{Nu}
- "mass defect" with a bracket under the entire bracketed term $[Zm_p + Nm_n - M_{Nu}]$

$$E_b = [Zm_p + Nm_n - M_{Nu}] \times 931.5 \text{ MeV/u}$$

E_b = nucleus binding energy

Z = atomic number

m_p = free proton mass

N = neutron number

m_{Nu} = free neutron mass

M_{Nu} = atomic mass of combined nucleus

c = speed of light (3×10^8 m/s)

The rest mass of a free neutron is 1.008665, and the rest mass of a free proton is 1.007276 u. Which of these two nuclei is the most stable?



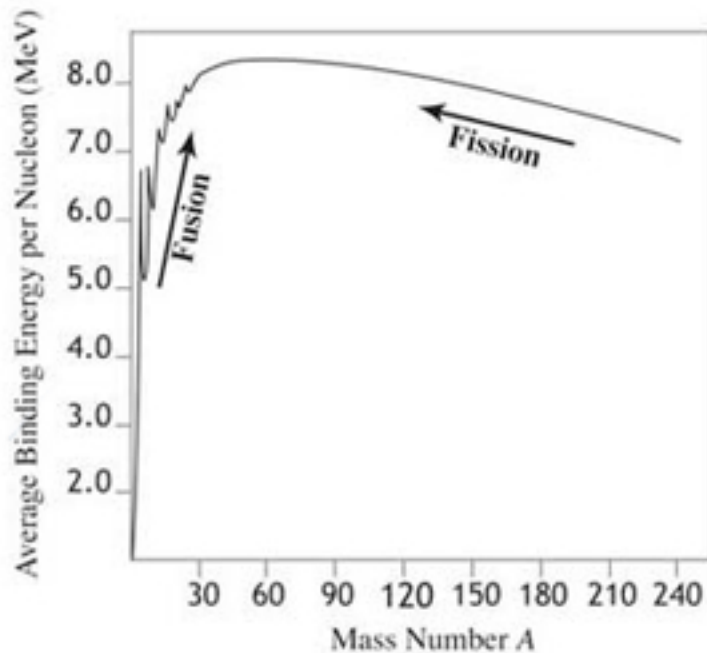
${}^{23}_{11}\text{Na}$
22.989770 u



${}^{23}_{12}\text{Mg}$
22.994127 u

- a. ${}^{23}_{11}\text{Na}$
- b. ${}^{23}_{12}\text{Mg}$
- c. Their stabilities are equal.
- d. ${}^{23}_{12}\text{Mg}$ is more stable against α decay, while ${}^{23}_{11}\text{Na}$ is more stable against β^- decay.

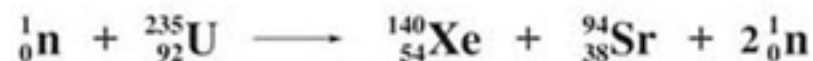
Fusion and Fission



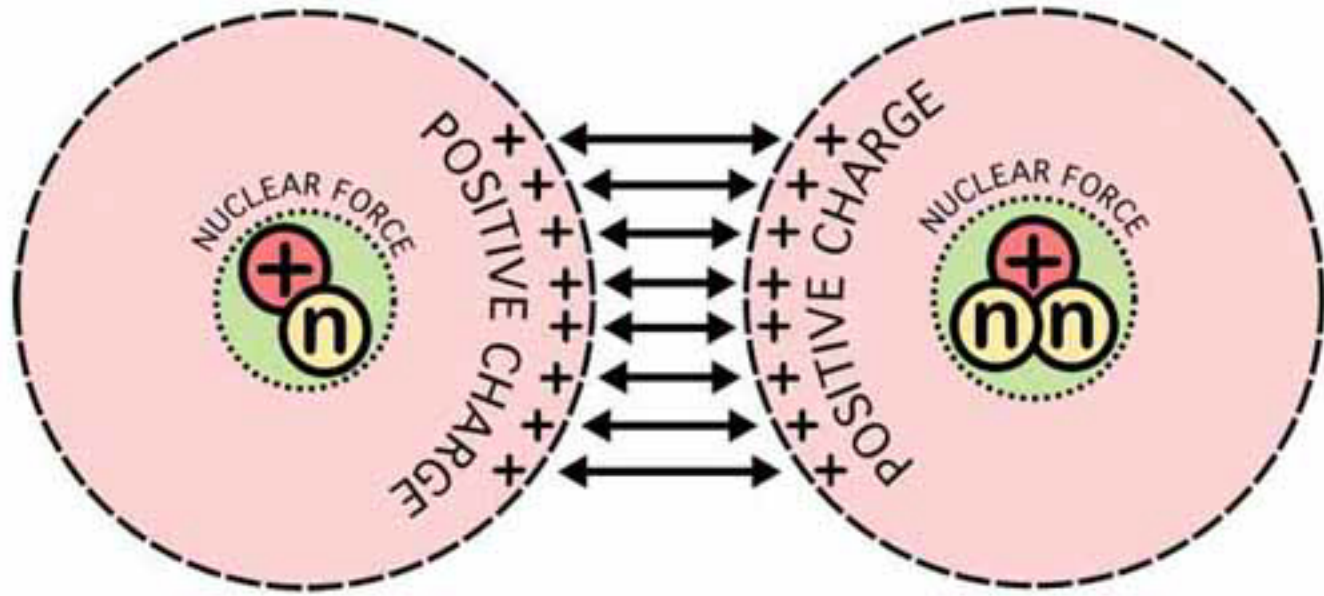
Fusion combines two light nuclei to produce a heavier nuclei. It requires very high concentrations of reactants and high temperature conditions.



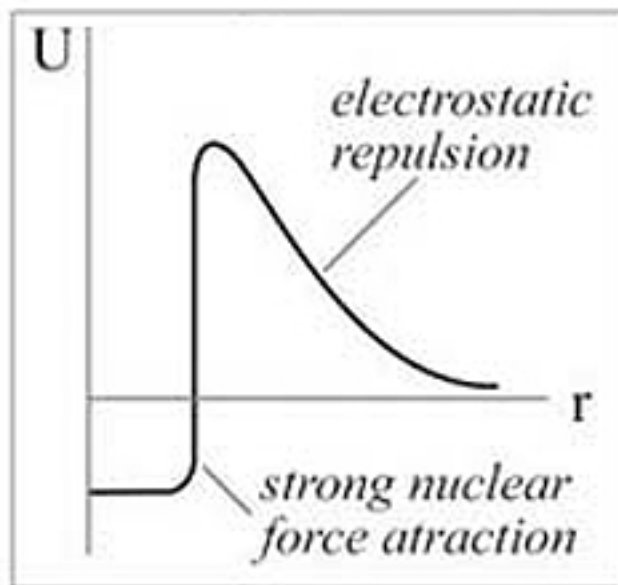
Fission is the splitting of a heavy nucleus into two lighter nuclei. In the reaction below, note that a neutron initiates fission and that more neutrons are produced by fission. Thus a nuclear *chain reaction* is possible if the mass of ${}^{235}_{92}\text{U}$ is sufficiently concentrated (critical mass).

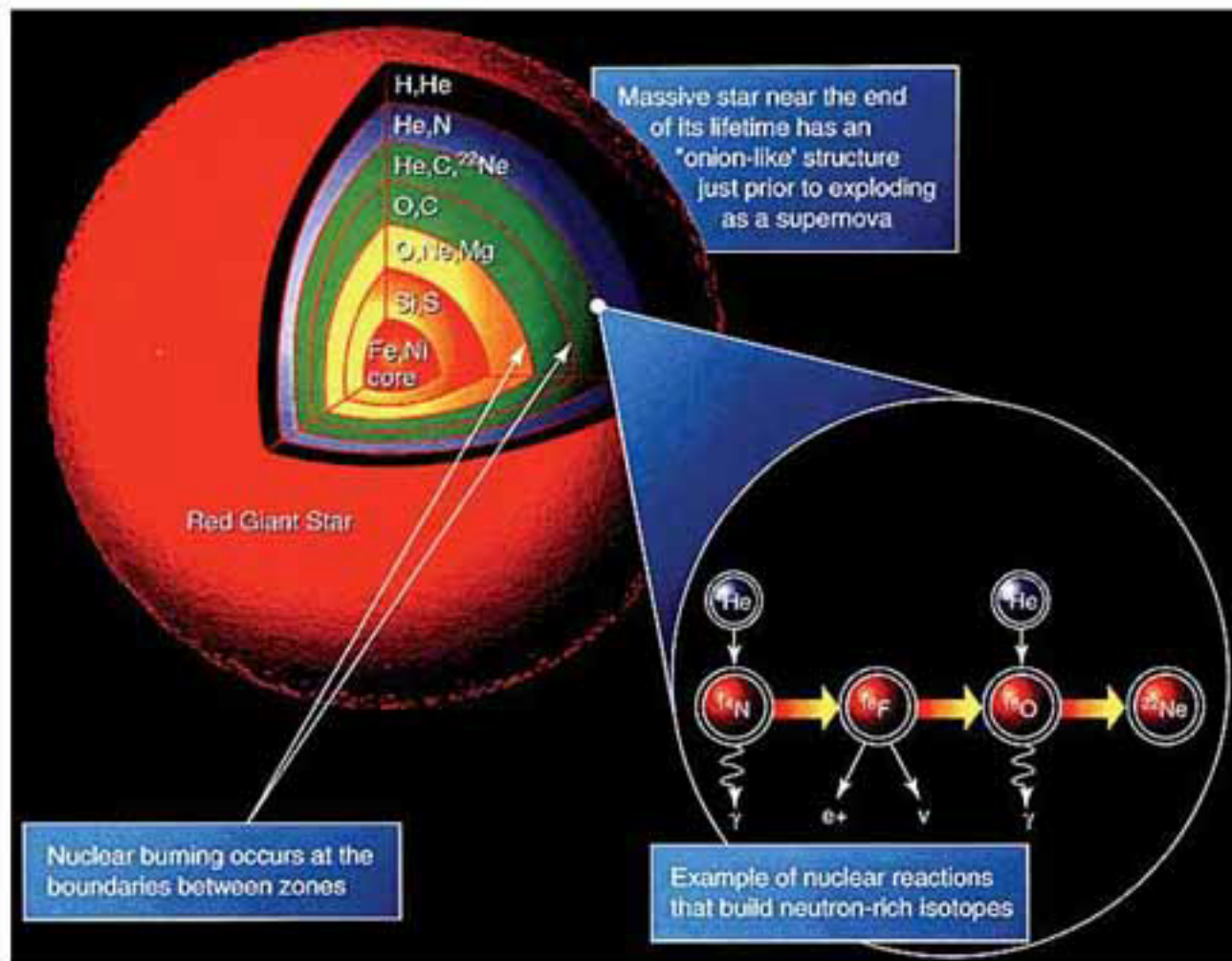


↑
thermal (slow)
neutron

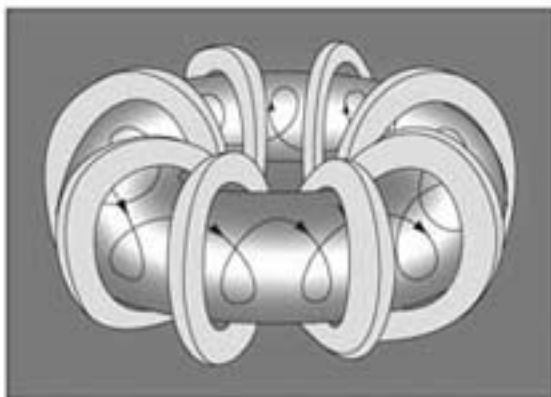


The graph at right shows potential energy vs. distance between a deuteron and a tritium nucleus. Before fusion can occur, the electrostatic force of repulsion between the two nuclei must be overcome by their kinetic energy. This allows the colliding nuclei to approach within a few femtometers (fm) ($1 \text{ fm} = 10^{-15} \text{ m}$) of each other where the strong nuclear force prevails and fusion can occur.





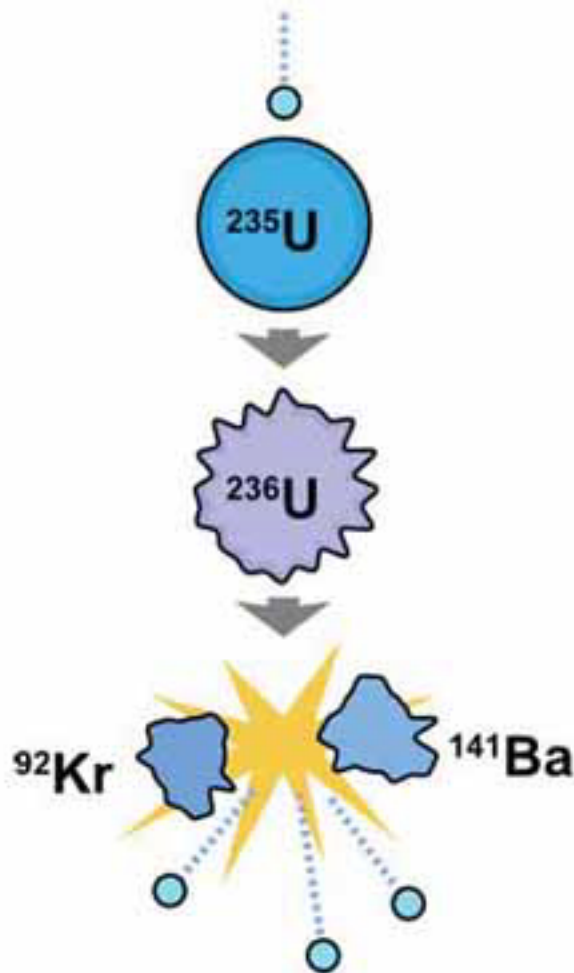
Most nuclear fusion reactions achieved in the laboratory require the reactant atoms to be in the form of a plasma. Plasma is a very high temperature form of matter in which the atoms are completely ionized. Which of the following best describes the required plasma temperature for the sustained fusion of deuterium and tritium?



The helical magnetic field of a tokamak fusion reactor traps the high temperature plasma, preventing it from contacting the container walls.

- a. the temperature necessary to fully ionize deuterium and tritium
- ☒ b. a temperature great enough for the kinetic energy of two typical colliding nuclei to exceed their electrostatic potential energy barrier
- c. the core temperature of the sun
- d. the temperature where the average particle speed produces a magnetic force greater than the electrostatic repulsion between nuclei

critical mass -
high enough ^{235}U %
to sustain chain
reaction

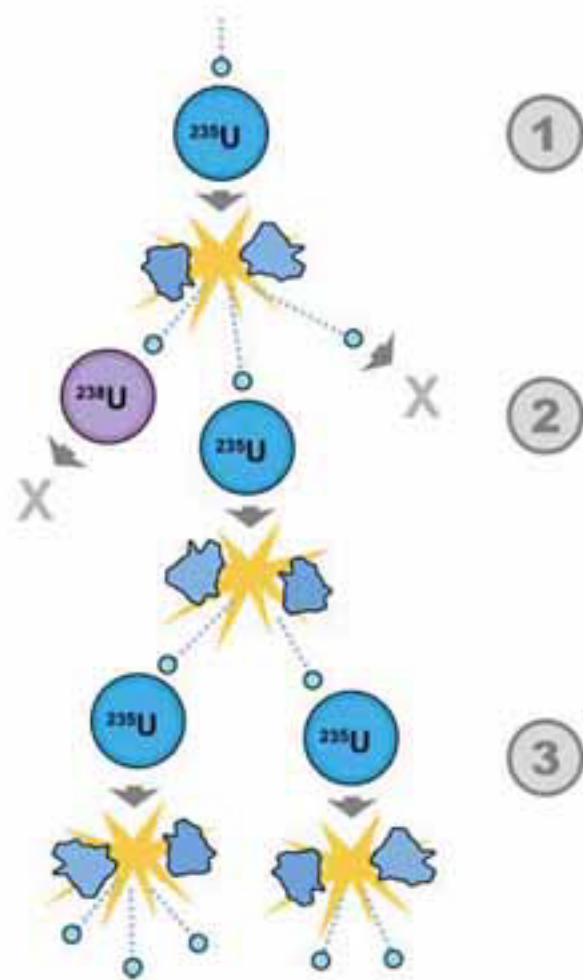


^{235}U

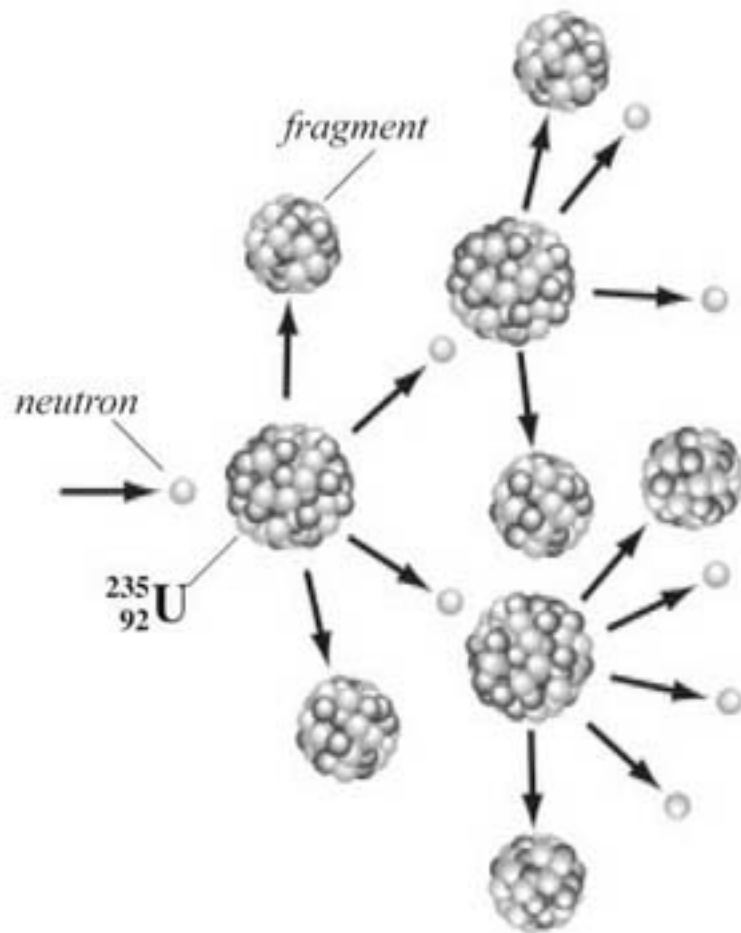
most common is

^{238}U

enriched uranium
high ^{235}U



Chain Reaction Fission of $^{235}_{92}\text{U}$



The $^{235}_{92}\text{U}$ nucleus undergoes fission after capturing a thermal neutron. The fission reaction produces two fission fragments and, depending upon the particular daughter nuclei, two or three neutrons. These neutrons, in turn, can trigger the fission of other nuclei, leading to

Typical $^{235}_{92}\text{U}$ Fission Reactions

