

Physics Chap Component 1 - 1.1 / Basic Physics

Base units - mass = kg
 - distance = m
 - time = s
 - current = A
 - quantity = mol
 - Temperature = K
 (+ candela)

Eg. Resistance in terms of base units

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega &= \frac{V}{A} = \frac{J}{C} \times \frac{1}{A} \\ &= \frac{Nm}{As} \times \frac{1}{A} \\ &= \frac{kg\ ms^{-2}\ m}{A^2\ s} = kg\ m^2\ s^3\ A^{-2} \end{aligned}$$

scalar = just magnitude

↳ e.g. speed, time, density, pressure

vector = magnitude and direction

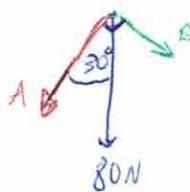
↳ displacement, velocity, acceleration, force

You can check equations by seeing if they are homogenous (base units are the same on both sides)

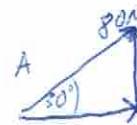
Vector component resolution

You can resolve a vector into two perpendicular components

e.g.



what are A and B?



$$\cos 30 = \frac{A}{80}$$

$$A = 69.3N$$



$$B = 40N$$

Density

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

Turning effect = moment = Force \times perpendicular distance from pivot

When a body is in equilibrium the resultant force is zero and the net moment is zero.

Physics Component 1 - 1.2 / Kinematics

speed, distance, acceleration

Displacement - the change in position of an object / m

mean speed - Total distance travelled by an object divided by the time it took to cover that distance / ms⁻¹

instantaneous speed - The speed of an object at a particular moment

velocity - The speed of something in a given direction / ms⁻¹

acceleration - The rate of change of velocity / ms⁻²

Suvat equations

$$\textcircled{5} \quad v = u + at$$

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

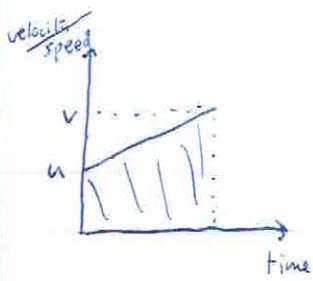
missing value

$$\textcircled{6} \quad v^2 = u^2 + 2as$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad s = vt - \frac{1}{2} at^2$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad s = \frac{1}{2}(u+v)t$$

↳ Derivations



$$\text{area} = \text{distance} = \frac{1}{2}(u+v)t$$

$$s = \frac{1}{2}(u+v)t \quad \textcircled{1}$$

$$\text{instant acceleration} = \frac{\Delta \text{velocity}}{t}$$

$$a = \frac{v-u}{t}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad v = u + at$$

sub subs \textcircled{2} into \textcircled{1}

$$\begin{aligned} s &= \frac{1}{2}(u+u+at)t \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(2u+at)t \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(2ut+at^2) \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\text{or } s = \frac{1}{2}(v-at+u)t$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(2vt-at^2)$$

$$s = vt - \frac{1}{2}at^2$$

$$\text{rearrange } \textcircled{1} \Rightarrow t = \frac{2s}{u+v}$$

$$\text{sub into } \textcircled{2} \quad v = u + a\left(\frac{2s}{u+v}\right)$$

$$v = u + \frac{2as}{u+v}$$

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

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

Physics Component 1 - 1.3 / Dynamics "Forces"

Newton's 3rd Law = Forces always exist in pairs such that if object B exerts a force on A, then A exerts an equal and opposite force on B, which is coplanar and of the same type.

$$\sum F = ma$$

when mass
is constant

$$P_{(\text{momentum})} = mv$$

$$\text{Impulse} = Ft = \Delta P$$

$$\therefore F = \frac{\Delta P}{\Delta t} \quad \therefore \text{Force} = \text{rate of change of momentum}$$

where mass is constant

Principle of conservation of momentum

In an isolated system with no external forces the initial total momentum of objects before a collision equals the final total momentum of objects after a collision

Newton's 2nd Law - An object's rate of change of momentum is directly proportional to the force acting upon it, and this change occurs in the direction of the force applied.

Physics Component 1 - 1.4 / Energy Concepts

Work:- Work is the product of a force and distance moved in the direction of the force when the force is constant.

$$\hookrightarrow W = Fd = (W = Fd \cos \theta, \theta = \text{angle between force and d})$$

- Conservation of energy is very important in this topic

$$G.P.E = mg\Delta h \quad E.P.E = \frac{1}{2}kx^2 \quad K.E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

- Power is the rate of energy transfer

$$P = \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t} \quad P = \frac{W}{\Delta t}$$

$$W = \Delta E$$

Dissipative forces like friction and drag cause energy to be transferred from a system and reduce the overall efficiency of the system.

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\text{useful energy transfer}}{\text{total energy input}} \times 100\%$$

Useful Equations

$$W = \frac{1}{2}Fx = \frac{1}{2}Kx^2 = E_p$$

$$W = \Delta E$$

$$P = mV$$

Physics Component 1 - 1.5 / Circular Motion

Period of rotation/orbit: The period is the time taken to complete one cycle/revolution

- Unit = seconds, symbol = T

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

Frequency: - The number of cycles/rotations per second

- unit = s^{-1} = Hz, symbol = f (or ν in black bodies topic)

Radians: - a measure of angle

$$- 1 \text{ rad} = \frac{180^\circ}{\pi} \quad 2\pi \text{ rads} = 360^\circ$$

Angular velocity: - defined by $\omega = \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \dot{\theta}$ ← Time derivative of θ = rate of change of θ

$$- \therefore \bar{\omega}_{\text{average}} = \frac{\Delta\theta}{\Delta t}$$

$$- \text{unit} = s^{-1} = \text{Hz} \text{ (or rpm)} \quad 1 \text{ rpm} = \frac{\pi}{30} \text{ rad/second}$$

- if circular motion is uniform, then $\dot{\theta} = \text{constant}$

∴

Centripetal force is the resultant force acting on a body moving at constant speed in a circle and ALWAYS POINTS TOWARDS THE CENTRE. This force does no work as it is perpendicular to the direction of movement. Centripetal acceleration is a result of the object's changing direction and also it is always directed towards the centre of the ~~area~~ circular motion.

Equations

$$f = \frac{1}{T} \quad \omega = \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \dot{\theta} = \frac{\Delta\theta}{\Delta t} \text{ (ans)} = \frac{V}{r} = \frac{2\pi}{T} = 2\pi f$$

$$(=\theta r \quad V_{\text{tangent}} = \omega r \quad a = \omega^2 r = \frac{V^2}{r})$$



$$F_c = \frac{mv^2}{r} = \omega^2 rm$$

centripetal
force

$$F_r = \mu N$$

friction

material's
friction
coefficient

normal
reaction
to weight

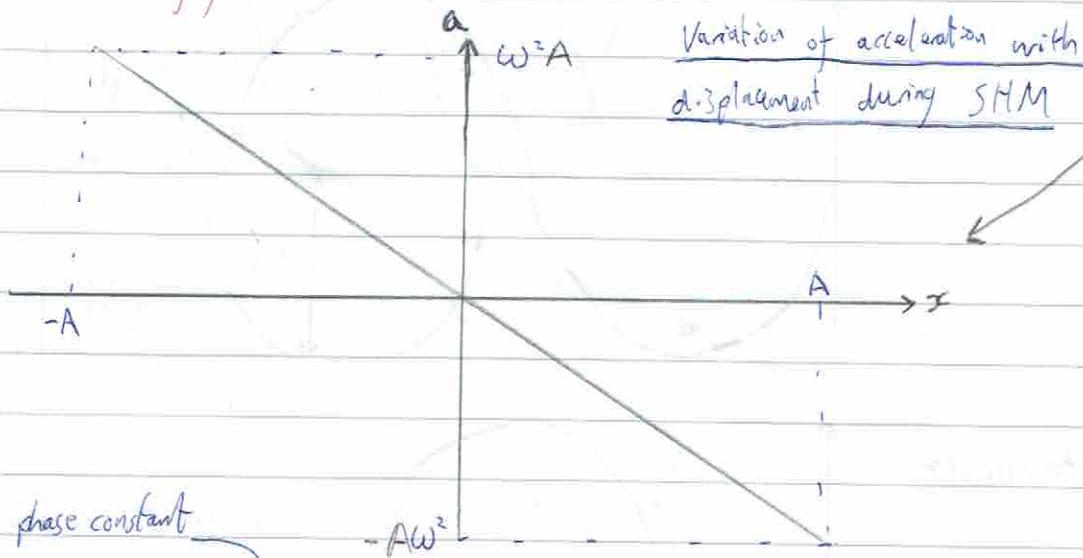
don't really
need
at all

Physics Component 1 - 1.0 / Vibrations (SHM)

Simple harmonic motion = When an object moves so that its acceleration is always directed towards a fixed point and is proportional to its displacement from that point
 = when an object is moving back and forth about a fixed point basically

(mathematically)

$$a = -\omega^2 x$$



phase constant

$$x = A \cos(\omega t + \varepsilon)$$

differentiate

$$v = -Aw \sin(\omega t + \varepsilon)$$

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T} \quad T = \frac{1}{f}$$

$$\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}} = \sqrt{\frac{F}{m}}$$

differentiate

$$a = -Aw^2 \cos(\omega t + \varepsilon) \quad a = -\omega^2 (A \cos(\omega t + \varepsilon))$$

$$a = -\omega^2 x$$

these equations work with SHM

Amplitude = maximum value of displacement

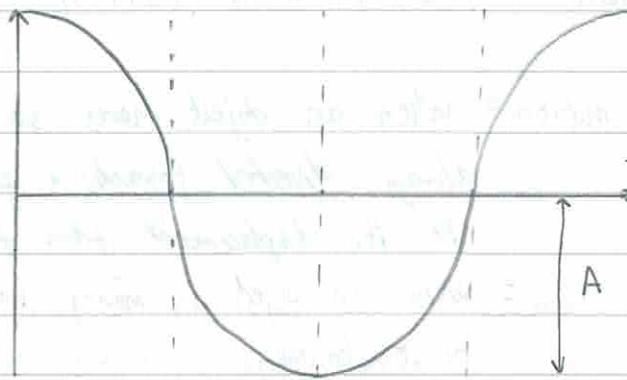
Period = the time for one cycle of oscillation

frequency = no. of oscillations per second = $\frac{1}{\text{period}}$

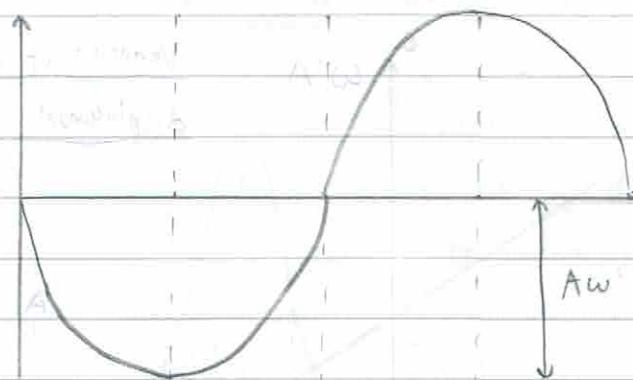
phase = stage in oscillation cycle at time t

phase constant = stage in oscillation at cycle at time $t=0$

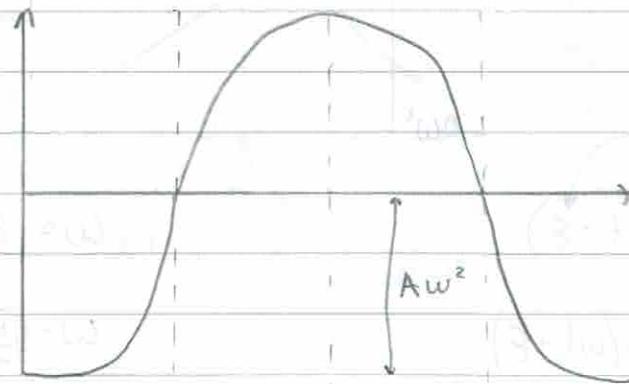
Displacement



Velocity



Acceleration



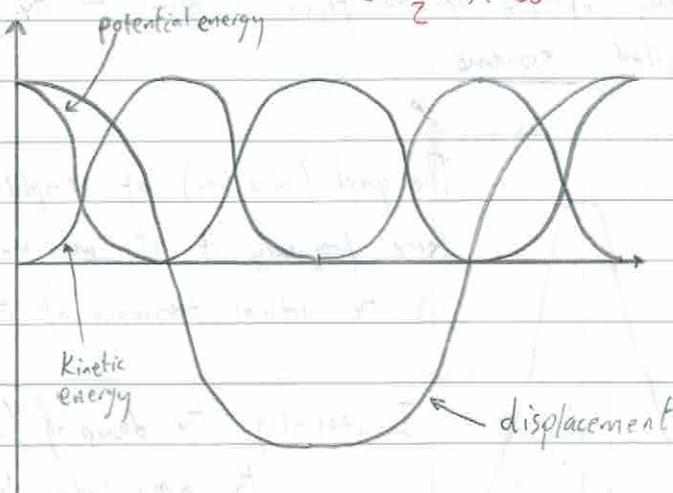
if asked to reproduce in exam do the first one then v is the gradient of s
and a is the gradient of v

Energy in SHM

potential energy = $U = \frac{1}{2} kx^2$ $\propto = \frac{1}{2} m\omega^2 A^2 \cos^2(\omega t + \phi)$ ← be useful

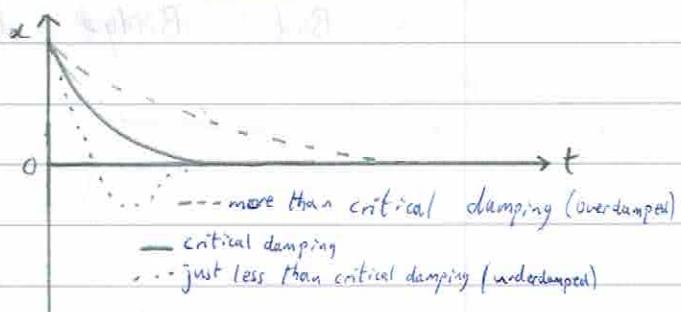
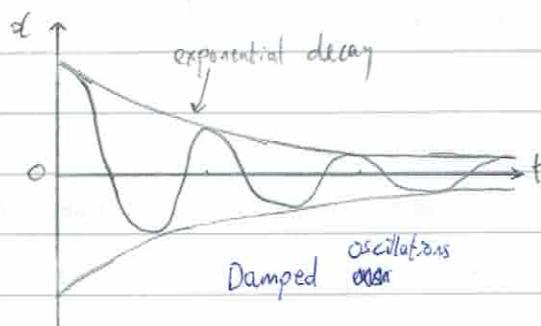
kinetic energy = $K = \frac{1}{2} mv^2 = \frac{1}{2} m\omega^2 A^2 \sin^2(\omega t + \phi)$ ←

Total energy = $E = K+U = \frac{1}{2} mv^2 + \frac{1}{2} kx^2 = \frac{1}{2} kA^2 = \frac{1}{2} mV_{max}^2$ ← ~~$= \frac{1}{2} m\omega^2 A^2$~~



Damped Oscillations (or natural/free oscillations)

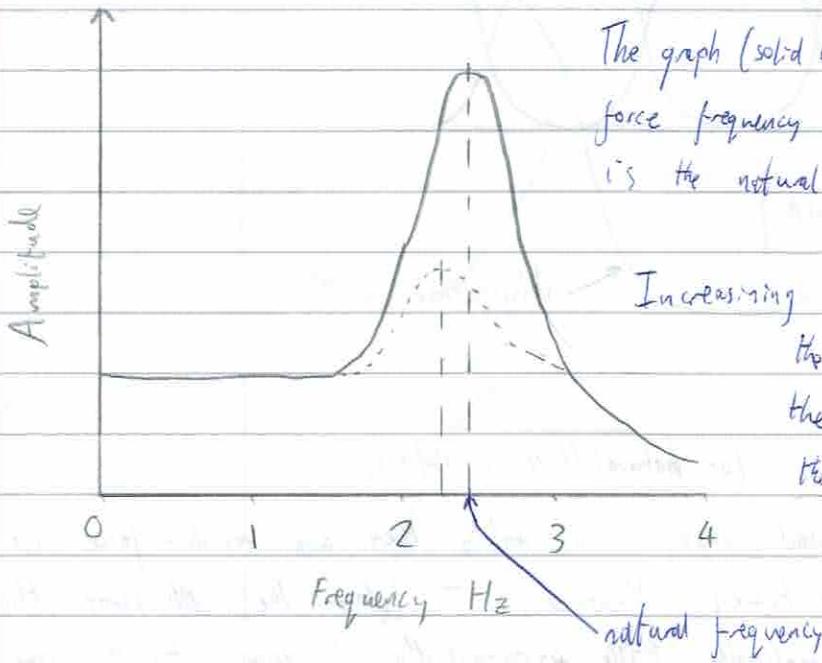
SHM is an ideal case, in reality there are resistive forces which causes Energy A to decrease over time. However, T stays the same throughout the motion. The amplitude falls exponentially (it decreases by the same fraction each cycle). The resistive forces also mean that the period is slightly higher than in an ideal situation (this effect is very small unless the damping is very heavy)



Critical damping is when the object doesn't oscillate but returns to equilibrium as fast as possible without overshoot. This can be very useful in cases like car suspension to prevent oscillations.

Forced Oscillations

When a system capable of oscillations is subject to a sinusoidally varying driving force forced oscillations occur. The system soon settles down to oscillating at the frequency of the driving force. The amplitude of the oscillations is largest when the frequency of the applied force is equal to the system's natural frequency. This is called resonance.



The graph (solid line) of amplitude against driving force frequency is at maximum when the frequency is the natural frequency of the system.

Increasing the damping (dotted line) reduces the amplitude but it also broadens the resonance curve. It also reduces the natural frequency slightly.

Resonance

Useful : microwave cooking, circuit tuning

Bad : Bridge design

Physics Component 1 - 1.7 / Kinetic Theory

Equation of state for an ideal gas: $pV = nRT$ (SI units)

n = no. of moles
 R = molar ideal gas constant

or

$$pV = NkT$$

N = no. of molecules
 k = Boltzmann constant

$$K = \frac{R}{N_A}$$

Assumptions:

Assumptions of the Kinetic Theory of gases

- Gas in question consists of a large number of identical particles, of negligible volume, in a state of random motion (constant velocity between collisions)
- Forces are only exerted on particles during collisions (no long-range interparticle forces or forces due to the presence of any type of field)
- All collisions are perfectly elastic (KE conserved)
- The duration of collisions are negligible compared to the time between them
- The laws of classical (rather than quantum) physics pertain at this scale
- Random distribution of energy among the molecules

The pressure exerted by a gas is due to molecular movement

$$p = \frac{1}{3} \rho \langle c^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{3} \frac{N}{V} m \langle c^2 \rangle$$

M = molar mass

M_r = relative molecular mass

M_T = mass of gas

N_A = Avogadro's number

$$\langle c^2 \rangle = c^2$$

ρ = density

n = no. of moles

N = no. of particles

m = mass of particle

$N = n N_A$

$M_T = N m$

$M_T = n N_A m$

elusive symbol
 M

$$\text{molar mass} = \frac{M_T}{n}$$

$$\text{molar mass (kg)} = \frac{m M_r}{1000}$$

$$n = \frac{\text{total mass}}{M} \frac{M_T}{M}$$

Avogadro's number/constant = The number of particles

The number of particles that are contained in one mole of a substance

$$= \boxed{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}}$$

You may need to combine $pV = \frac{1}{3} Nm \langle C^2 \rangle$ with $pV = nRT$ and show that total translational kinetic energy of a mole of a monatomic gas is given by $\frac{3}{2} RT$ (1) and the mean KE of a particle is $\frac{3}{2} KT$ (2) and that T is proportional to mean KE. (3)

$$P = \frac{1}{3} PC_{\text{rms}}^2$$

$$pV = \frac{1}{3} m Nm \langle C^2 \rangle \Rightarrow pV = \frac{1}{3} M_T C_{\text{rms}}^2$$

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \frac{m}{V} C_{\text{rms}}^2$$

$$pV = \frac{1}{3} m M_T C_{\text{rms}}^2 \rightarrow nRT = \frac{1}{3} M_T C_{\text{rms}}^2$$

$$pV = nRT$$

$$nRT = \frac{1}{3} (N_A) m C_{\text{rms}}^2$$

$$\frac{1}{3} N_A m C_{\text{rms}}^2 = RT$$

$$\text{or } \frac{1}{3} m C_{\text{rms}}^2 = \frac{RT}{N_A} \quad \left(\frac{R}{N_A} = k \right)$$

$$\frac{1}{3} m C_{\text{rms}}^2 = kT$$

$$m C_{\text{rms}}^2 = 3kT$$

$$\frac{1}{2} m C_{\text{rms}}^2 = \frac{3}{2} kT$$

$$\text{Avg KE of particles} = \frac{3}{2} kT$$

$$\underline{\langle KE \rangle = \frac{3}{2} kT} \quad (2)$$

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

$$N_A \frac{1}{3} m C_{\text{rms}}^2 = RT$$

$$\frac{3}{2} k = \text{constant}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} N_A m C_{\text{rms}}^2 = \frac{3}{2} RT$$

$$\therefore \langle KE \rangle = CT$$

$$\frac{1}{2} M C_{\text{rms}}^2 = \frac{3}{2} RT$$

$$\therefore T \propto \langle KE \rangle \quad (3)$$

$$N_A m = M$$

mass
of one
mole

Total translational

KE of a mole of $= \frac{3}{2} RT$
monatomic gas

$$\therefore \text{Total KE of 1 mole} = \frac{3}{2} RT$$

$$\langle KE \rangle = \frac{3}{2} kT$$

Physics Component 1-1.8 / Thermal Physics

The internal energy of a system is the sum of the kinetic energies (relative to its centre of mass) of its particles and the potential energy energies of interactions between them.

↳ absolute zero is the temperature of a system when it has minimum internal energy

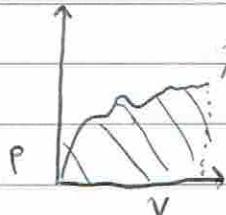
The internal energy of an ideal monatomic gas is wholly kinetic so it is given by $U = \frac{3}{2} nRT$

Heat enters or leaves a system through its boundary or container wall, according to whether the system's temperature is lower or higher than that of its surroundings, so heat is energy in transit and not contained within the system.

If no heat flows between two systems in contact, then they are said to be in thermal equilibrium and are at the same temperature.

Energy can also enter/leave a system by means of work, so work is also energy in transit.

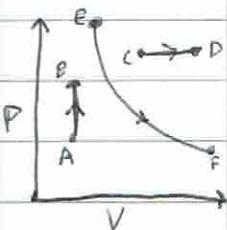
↳ To calculate the work done by a gas under constant pressure use: $W = p\Delta V$



↳ even if the pressure changes, W can be found using the area under the p - V graph

The first Law of Thermodynamics

w : area under plot



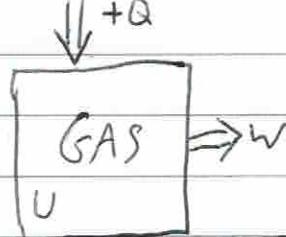
$$\Delta U = Q - W$$

The internal energy of a gas is equal to the heat added to the gas, minus the work done by the gas.

$$A \rightarrow B = \text{constant volume: } w=0$$

$$C \rightarrow D = \text{constant pressure: } Q=0$$

$$E \rightarrow F = \text{constant temp.} \\ = \text{isothermal} \\ \therefore \Delta U = 0$$



negative value	meaning
$(-\Delta U)$	loss in internal energy
$(-Q)$	heat lost from gas
$(-W)$	work done <u>on</u> gas

isothermal = a change that occurs at constant temp.

Also, is referring to 'rapid' expansion/compression, $Q=0$

work can be done by a gas during expansion, and can be done on a gas during compression

For a solid or liquid, W is usually negligible, so:

$$Q = \Delta U$$
 kinda obvious

Specific Heat Capacity

$$Q = mc \Delta\theta$$

↑ ↑ ↓ ↗
energy supplied mass S.H.C Temp. change
J kg $\text{J kg}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$ K

= defining specific heat capacity

↳ Thermal energy that must be supplied to increase the temp. of 1 kg of a substance by 1 K without state change

'specific' = per unit mass

Since $C = S.H.C$

mc = heat capacity