

PHYS 1P92. Electromagnetism, Optics, and Modern Physics.

Key Ideas from PHYS 1P91

- If \vec{v} is in the direction of acceleration then it is speeding up
- If \vec{v} is opposite to the acceleration then it is slowing down.
- Newton's Second Law: $a = \frac{\vec{f}}{m}$, \vec{f} is the cause, m is the response function, and a is the effect.
- Newton's First Law: If $\vec{f} = 0$, then $\vec{a} = 0$ and the object's trajectory is a straight line constant speed.
- Newton's Third Law: Forces come in pairs.
- Conservation of Mechanical Energy.
 - Kinetic Energy $\rightarrow KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$
 - Potential Energy $\rightarrow PE = U = -W_C$
 - Total mechanical energy is conserved when the work done by non-conservative forces is 0.
- Conservation of Linear Momentum
 - $P = m\vec{v}$
 - Momentum is conserved when the sum of the exterior forces is zero.

Oscillations and Waves

Net force

- Net force determines an object's trajectory.
- \vec{F}_{net}

Constant

Straight line is \vec{v} is \parallel to \vec{F} , parabola if not

Centripetal

Circular (it has constant magnitude but center facing at all times)

Spring force

Produces Oscillations

(Size + Direction vary)

Spring force

- Refer to Hooke's Law
- $F = -kx$, where x is the displacement from equilibrium, and k is the spring constant (N/m)
- Spring force produces oscillations

Uniform Circular Motion



- Position, $\theta = \omega t$, where ω is the angular velocity (rad/s)
- $\omega = 2\pi f$, f is frequency ($\frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{time}}$) and is measured in Hz ($\frac{1}{s}$)
- Velocity, $\vec{v} = -A\omega \sin(\omega t)$, A = amplitude (m)
- Acceleration, $\vec{a} = -\omega^2 A \cos(\omega t)$

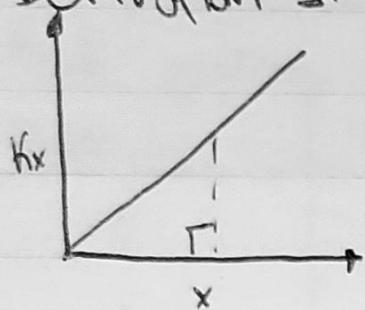
Important formulae

$$m\omega^2 = k$$

• Many substitutions can be made, i.e. ($\omega = 2\pi f$)

Energy in Simple Harmonic Oscillators.

- We can't use $W = \bar{F} d\cos\theta$ because it is an oversimplification for work
- And since the force is constantly changing we cannot accurately define it using that equation.
- Derivation of Energy in SHO and in Springs.



$$A = \frac{1}{2}bh \rightarrow W = \frac{1}{2}X(kx)$$
$$W = \frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}kx^2$$

} Graphically

- $E_{TOT} = K + U$
$$= \frac{1}{2}mu^2 + \frac{1}{2}kx^2 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}m(-A\omega\sin(\omega t))^2 + \frac{1}{2}k(A\cos(\omega t))^2$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}mA^2\omega^2\sin^2(\omega t) + \frac{1}{2}kA^2\cos^2(\omega t)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}KA^2\sin^2(\omega t) + \frac{1}{2}KA^2\cos^2(\omega t)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}KA^2(\sin^2(\omega t) + \cos^2(\omega t))$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}KA^2 \leftarrow \text{This means that when, } m, \text{ is at } A, \text{ all energy is potential}$$
- Never use kinematic equations when dealing with SHO, a is not constant.

Electrostatics

Atoms

- Made of nucleus, protons, neutrons, electrons.
- Protons and neutrons are in the nucleus.
- Atomic Number is the number of protons
- # of protons \approx # of neutrons.

Particle	Charge	Mass
p	+ e	1.67×10^{-27}
e ⁻	- e	9.11×10^{-31}
n	0	$m_n \approx m_p$

Charge and Properties of Charge.

- Charge is the state amplitude is in due to its count of p and e.
- 4 Properties of Charge
 - ① Charge can either be + / -
 - ② Charge is quantized
 - Elementary Charge = $e = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} C$
 - ③ Charge is conserved (Net charge of a system is constant)
 - ④ The force felt by charges that was discovered by Coulomb is calculated by $|F| = \frac{k q_1 q_2}{r^2}$ or $\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$

Nuclear/Particle Physics Reaction

- Electron - Positron Annihilation
- Positron is the anti-particle to e⁻ (same mass but opposite charge)
- $e^- + e^+ \rightarrow$ Gamma ray photon (Particle of light).



Coulombs Law

- like charges repel, unlike charges attract
- $\vec{F}_E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2} \rightarrow \frac{k q_1 q_2}{r^2}$, where k and ϵ_0 are constants
 q is the point charge(s), and r , \vec{r} is the distance between them
- $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \frac{C^2}{Nm^2}$, $k = 8.99 \times 10^9 \frac{Nm^2}{C^2}$

Comparing the Size of the Electric Force to Gravity

- Assume e^- performs uniform circular motion



- $\vec{F}_g = \frac{G m_e m_p}{r^2}$ $\vec{F}_E = \frac{k q_1 q_2}{r^2}$

- $\frac{\vec{F}_E}{\vec{F}_g} = \frac{k q^2}{G m_e m_p} \approx 10^{39}$

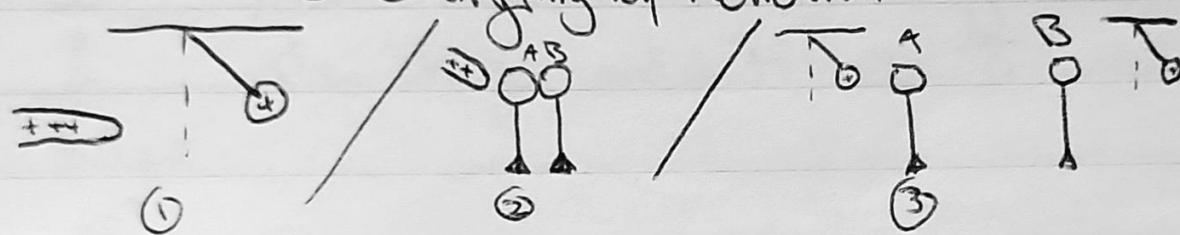
Metals and Insulators

Materials

- Metal - Some e^- are free to move
- Insulators - e^- are not free to move
- Charging Objects - can transfer δe^- (not p)

Charging Processes

- 2 Types : ① Charging by friction
② Charging by induction



- ① A positively charged rod repels the positively charged ball
- ② When the positively charged rod B+ is brought close to the 2 neutral spheres, the electrons move to the charged
- ③ When the balls are ~~separ~~ separated, they are now charged and either attract or repel the ball depending on their charge

18.4 Electric Field

Concept of a field.

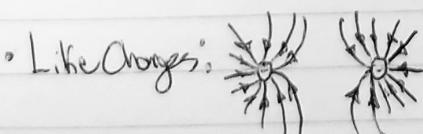
- A field is about conceptualizing and mapping a force that surrounds any object and acts on another object at a distance without apparent physical contact.
- In Coulomb's Law, $F = \frac{kq_1 q_2}{r^2}$ depends on a point charge and on a test charge.
- To simplify things we prefer that the field depends on the charge rather than the test charge.
- $\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{F}}{q}$, where \vec{F} is the electrostatic force, and q is the charge, and units are $\frac{N}{C}$.
- $\vec{E} = \frac{kq\hat{r}}{r^2}$
- $\vec{E} = \frac{kq}{r^2}$

18.5 Electric Field Lines.

- Drawing lines to represent electric fields around charged objects are useful in visual strength and direction since it is a vector.
- For a negative charge, if it is negative they point radially inward.



- For positive charges, they point radially outward.



Opposite Charge:



Electric field due to 'Continuous' Charge Distribution.

- Uniform line of charge $\lambda = \frac{\text{Charge}}{\text{Length}}$
- Uniform sheet of charge $\sigma = \frac{\text{Charge}}{\text{area}}$
- $\vec{E} = \underline{\lambda}$

$$2\pi E_0 d$$

- Infinite Plane (Electric field is perpendicular)

$$\vec{E} = \underline{\sigma}$$

$$2E_0$$

Motion of e^- , in constant \vec{E}

- When an e^- is placed in a constant electric field we can find its motion or acceleration from

$$\vec{F} = q\vec{E}$$

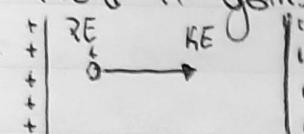
$$ma = q\vec{E}$$

$$a = \underline{qE}$$

m.

19 Electric Potential and Electric Field

19.1 Electric Potential Energy: Potential Difference

- When a free charge is accelerated in an electric field it gains kinetic energy.
- 

- The sign on the charge indicates in which way it will accelerate (+ charge \rightarrow -) (-charge \rightarrow +)
- We know $W = Fd \cos\theta$ and $F = qE$, so we define electric potential as $V = \frac{U}{q}$, where U is the potential energy and V is in volts (J/C)
- This is the electrical potential energy per unit charge
- Electron Volt
 - $1 \text{ eV} = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$.

19.2 Electric Potential in a Uniform Electric field.

- Parallel Plates allow for simple calculations to be made.
- For parallel plates, $E = \frac{V}{d}$, where E is the electric field.
 - Derivation $\rightarrow W = qV$ $qEd = qV$ $E = \frac{V}{d}$

- This is the relationship of the electric field and voltage for parallel plates and uniform electric field.

19.3 Electrical Potential Due to a Point Charge.

- The electric potential for a point charge is given by $V = \frac{kQ}{r}$, where k is $9 \times 10^9 \frac{N \cdot m^2}{C^2}$

19.4 Equipotential Lines.

- Electric fields and electric potential are heavily related.
- We can imagine this graphically by estimating drawing lines where the electric potential is constant.
- Electric field. Electric Potential

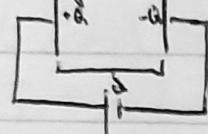


- When these two are combined we see that the electric field and the electric potential is perpendicular.
- The Electric potential lines are called equipotential lines.
- Parallel Plates Example.



19.5 Capacitors and Dielectrics

- A capacitor is a device that is used to store charge.



- The amount of charge a capacitor can store depends on two major factors which are the applied voltage and size.

- The parallel plate capacitor is the simplest form of this.

- Capacitance can be calculated by the formula $C = \frac{Q}{V}$ where Q is charge, and V is voltage, (C units = Farads (F) = $\text{A} \cdot \text{s}$)

- Coming back to the parallel plate capacitor, the capacitance can be found in the equation

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d}, \text{ where } A \text{ is Area of the plate, } d \text{ is the distance between them, and } \epsilon_0 \text{ is the permittivity of free space } \epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \frac{\text{F}}{\text{m}}$$

• Dielectric

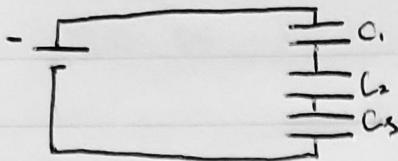
- You can only make the ~~thin~~ distance so small to increase capacitance.

- The space in between the capacitors can be filled with an insulator called a dielectric to increase capacitance.

- $C = \frac{k\epsilon_0 A}{d}$, where k is the dielectric constant.

19.6 Capacitors in Series and Parallel

- Capacitors in Series.

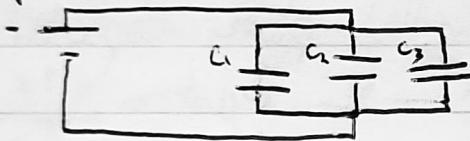


- $V_{\text{TOT}} = V_1 + V_2 + V_3$

$$\frac{Q}{C_{\text{TOT}}} = \frac{Q}{C_1} + \frac{Q}{C_2} + \frac{Q}{C_3}$$

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

- Capacitors in Parallel



- $Q_{\text{TOT}} = Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3$

$$C_{\text{TOT}}V = C_1V + C_2V + C_3V$$

$$C_{\text{TOT}} = C_1 + C_2 + C_3$$

19.7 Energy Stored in Capacitors.

- Capacitors store potential energy

- It's stored in the electric field.

- $U = \frac{1}{2}CV^2 = \frac{1}{2}QV = \frac{1}{2}\frac{Q^2}{C}$

- Q = Charge, V = Voltage, C = Capacitance.

20 Electric Current, Resistance, and Ohm's Law

20.1 Current

- Current is the rate at which charge flows
- $I = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t}$, where Q is charge (C), t is time, and I is measured in Amps ($A = \frac{C}{s}$)
- Drift Velocity
 - Electrons move very fast, sometimes at around 10^8 m/s
 - The average velocity of the electron is ≈ 0
 - Drift speed is introduced, which tells us the average velocity of the free charges.
 - $v_d = v_i + at$
- $v_d = \frac{qE}{m}t$, where q is the charge, E is the electric field, t is the time between collisions, and m is the mass.
- Drift Velocity and Current have a relationship together.
- $I = nqAv_d$, where n is the number of free charges per unit volume, q is the charge, A is the cross sectional area, and v_d is the drift velocity.

20.2 Ohm's Law: Resistance and Simple Circuits

- Ohm's Law
 - German Physicist Georg Simon Ohm demonstrated that current flows through most substances with an applied voltage.
 - He found $I \propto V$

• Resistance and Simple Circuits

- The electric property that impedes current is called resistance.
- Resistance is, $I \propto \frac{1}{R}$
- This gives the relationship $I = \frac{V}{R}$.
- Resistance is also measured in ohms (Ω) which is equal to $\frac{V}{A}$.

20.3 Resistance and Resistivity

- Material and Shape Dependence of Resistance.
- Resistance is proportional to its length, L , and inversely proportional to its area, A .
- All combine $R = \rho \frac{L}{A}$, where ρ is resistivity, L is length, and A is area of the cross section.

20.4 Electric Power and Energy

- $P = IV$, $\frac{V^2}{R}$, $I^2 R$, power is in watts.

20.5 Alternating Current vs Direct Current.

- Direct Current (DC) is the flow of electric charge in one direction

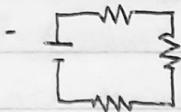
- Alternating Current (AC) is the flow of electric charge that periodically reverses direction.

- Average power = $\frac{1}{2}IV$, ...

21 Circuits and DC Instruments

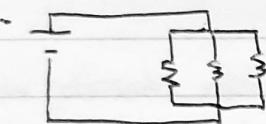
21.1 Resistors in Series and Parallel

• Resistors in Series



$$\begin{aligned}V_{\text{TOT}} &= V_1 + V_2 + V_3 \\X_{\text{TOT}} &= X_{R_1} + X_{R_2} + X_{R_3} \\R_{\text{TOT}} &= R_1 + R_2 + R_3\end{aligned}$$

• Resistors in Parallel



$$\begin{aligned}I_{\text{TOT}} &= I_1 + I_2 + I_3 \\ \frac{V}{R_{\text{TOT}}} &= \frac{V}{R_1} + \frac{V}{R_2} + \frac{V}{R_3} \\ \frac{1}{R_{\text{TOT}}} &= \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}\end{aligned}$$

21.3 Kirchhoff's Rules

• Kirchhoff's Current Rule (KCR)

- The sum of all currents entering a junction must equal the sum of all currents leaving the junction.

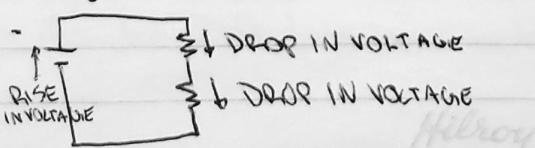
• Conservation of charge

$$I_1 = I_2 + I_3$$

• Kirchhoff's Voltage Rule (KVR)

- The algebraic sum of changes in potential around any closed circuit path (loop) must be zero.

$$V_0 - IR_1 - IR_2 = 0$$



21.4 DC Voltmeters and Ammeters.

• Voltmeters

- Voltmeters are connected in parallel with whatever devices voltage is being measured. A parallel connection is used because objects in parallel experience the same potential difference.
- Voltmeters have a very large resistance.
- $V = I(R + r)$, where R is large resistor and r is the small resistor

• Ammeters

- Ammeters are connected in series with whatever devices current is being measured. A series connection is used because objects in series have the same amount of current passing through them.
- Ammeters have small resistances.

$$\Delta V = \Delta V$$

$$I_1 R_1 = I_2 R_2$$

$$\frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{R_2}{R_1}$$

21.6 DC Circuits containing Resistors and Capacitors.

• RC Circuits

- An RC circuit is one containing a resistor and a capacitor

- Charging Capacitors

$$\Delta V_c = V_0(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{RC}}), \text{ where } t \text{ is time, } RC \text{ is resistance and capacitance.}$$

- Discharging Capacitors

$$\Delta V_c = V_0 e^{-\frac{t}{RC}}$$

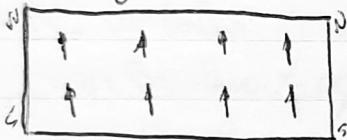
22 Magnetism

22.1 Magnets

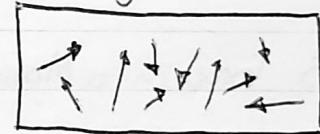
- Magnets have universal characteristics
- Like poles repel, unlike poles attract
- It is impossible to have separate poles (splitting magnets just makes smaller magnets)
- A bar magnet is a magnetic dipole.

22.2 Ferromagnets and Electromagnets.

- Few materials ~~have~~ have strong magnetic effects
- Those materials are ferromagnetic
- Ferro magnets can be magnetized or induced to be made magnetic.
- Ferromagnetic Structure



Paramagnetic Structure



- Electromagnetism is the use of current to make magnetic fields and it also makes temporary magnets.
- Current is the source of all magnetism

22.3 Magnetic fields



- 1- The direction of the magnetic field is tangent to the field
- 2- The strength of the field is proportional to the closeness of the lines
- 3- Magnetic field lines can never cross
- 4- Magnetic field lines ~~can~~ never are continuous, no beginning or end.

22.4 Magnetic Field Strength: Force on a Moving Charge.

- It is important to understand that moving charge (current) creates the magnetic field but charge also experiences the magnetic field
- This can be calculated and is seen in the equation $F_{\text{mag}} = qvB \sin\theta$, where q is charge, v is velocity, B is the magnetic field strength, and θ is the angle between B and v .
- The direction of the magnetic force can be found by the right hand rule.
- For a positive charge:


- Note: When a vector is shown going into the page it is represented by \otimes and when it comes out it is represented by \oplus

22.5 Force on a Moving Charge Applications.

- Magnetic force can cause a charged particle to move in a circular path.
- This relation links magnetic force and uniform centripetal motion.
$$F_{\text{int}} = ma_c$$
$$qvB = \frac{mv^2}{r}$$
- Since $v = \frac{2\pi r}{T} \Rightarrow T = \frac{2\pi m}{qB}$

22.6 The Hall Effect

- Magnetic field effects charges moving in a conductor
- The voltage across a current carrying conductor by a magnetic field ~~area~~ is known as the Hall Effect

$$qE = qvB$$

$$E = vB \quad V = \underline{I}$$

$$\underline{V} = vB$$

1

$V = vBI$, where V is the Hall emf, v is the velocity of the conductor

22.7 Magnetic Force on a Current-Carrying Conductor.

- The magnetic force on charge moving in a conductor is transmitted to the conductor itself

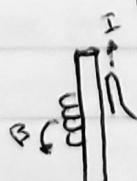
$$F_{\text{mag}} = qvB \sin \theta \quad v = \frac{\Delta}{t} = \frac{L}{t}$$
$$= qL B \sin \theta$$

+

$$= qL B \sin \theta \quad q = I \text{ current.}$$
$$+ \quad +$$

$$F_{\text{mag}} = ILB \sin \theta$$

- Direction magnetic field is found by the corkscrew rule



Thumb points parallel and in the direction of the current, fingers curl in direction of B .

22.9 Magnetic fields Produced by Currents

- Magnetic field created by a Long Straight Wire

- Same concept as corkscrew rule

- $|\vec{B}| = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$, where μ_0 is $4.7 \times 10^{-7} \frac{\text{Tm}}{\text{A}\cdot\text{mt}}$, I is current, and r is the distance from the wire

- ~~Explain?~~

- Magnetic field Created by a Single Loop



- $|\vec{B}| = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2r}$, where r is the radius of the loop

- Magnetic field Created by a Solenoid

- $|\vec{B}| = n \mu_0 I$, where n is the number of turns per unit length ($\frac{\text{turns}}{\text{m}}$)

- Note: Current in parallel but opposite directions repel



Current in parallel but like directions attract



23 Electromagnetic Induction, and AC Circuits

23.1 Induced Emf and Magnetic Flux

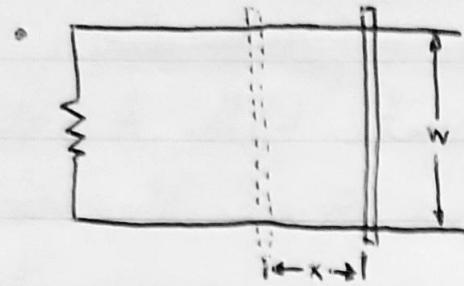
- Magnetic flux is a measurement of total magnetic field which passes through an area ~~with respect to time~~.
- $\Phi = BA \cos\theta$, where B is the magnetic field, A is the area and θ is the angle between B and the normal.
- The three ways to change flux would be by changing the size of B , changing the area, or changing the angle.
- Magnetic flux also produces an emf or voltage/potential difference.
- V or $E = -\frac{\Delta \Phi}{\Delta t}$, Φ = flux, t = time
- This is called Faraday's Law and is described as the change in flux over time.

23.2 Faraday's Law of Induction: Lenz's Law.

- Faraday's Law = $E = -N \frac{\Delta \Phi}{\Delta t}$, Where N is the number of turns in the coil.
- The negative sign in the equation was introduced by Lenz's Law which states the direction of the current induced by a changing magnetic field will create a field that opposes it.
- If Φ increasing, induce B in opposite direction
- If Φ decreasing, induce B in same direction

23.3 Motional Emf.

- This chapter shows how a rod in a circuit can be used to calculate things like speed of the rod etc.



$$\mathcal{E} = -\frac{\Delta \Phi}{\Delta t}$$

$$= -\frac{\Delta B \Delta A \cos \Delta \theta}{\Delta t}$$

$$= -\frac{B_w (\pi \Delta x)}{\Delta t}$$

$$= -B_w \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}$$

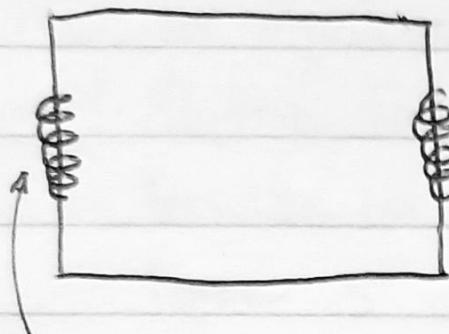
$$\mathcal{E} = -B_w v.$$

23.5 Electric Generators

- Electric generators turn mechanical energy into electrical energy
- This is all based on changes in the angle.
- $\mathcal{E} = -NBAw \sin \omega t$, $\omega = \frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta t}$, $w = 2\pi f$.
- ω is angular frequency.
- Period should be able to be found.

23.7 Transformers

- Transformers do what their name implies, they transform voltages from one value to another.
- They do this by having coils to introduce a flux.



Secondary Coil (V_2).
- N_2 turns

Primary Coil (V_1)

- N_1 turns

- The flux in the coils are equal as well, this allows us to write the expression.

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

- Also if we assume there is no power loss we find the relation

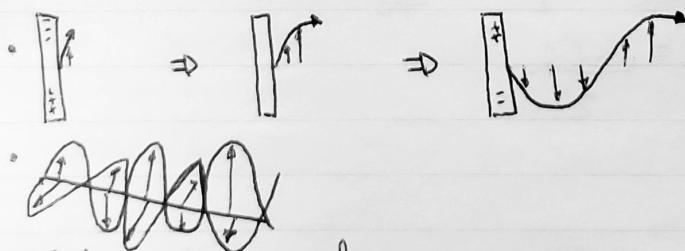
$$\frac{V_1}{V_2} = \frac{I_2}{I_1} = \frac{N_1}{N_2}$$

24 Electro magnetic Waves.

24.1 Maxwell's Equations

- James Clark Maxwell made a set of equation that show the relationship of electromagnetism.
- Maxwell's Equations
 - 1- Electric field lines originate on positive charges and terminate on negative charges. The strength of the force is also related to the electrical constant ϵ_0 .
 - 2- Magnetic fields are continuous and magnetic monopoles don't exist. The strength of the magnetic force is related to the magnetic constant μ_0 .
 - 3- A changing magnetic field induces an electric field and the direction of it opposes the change.
 - 4- Magnetic fields are generated by moving charges or by changing electric field.
- Maxwell also found that $\frac{1}{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}$ is equal to the speed of light.
- Heinrich Hertz observed electromagnetic waves by having a transmitter and receiver and both had a spark gap that the current flowed across.

24.2 Production of Electro magnetic Waves.



- Electro and magnetic waves propagate perpendicular to each other.
- Electro magnetic waves are transverse waves.
- $E = cB$, where E is the electric field, c is the speed of light, B is the magnetic field.

24.3 The Electromagnetic Spectrum.

- Frequency, wavelength, and speed have a relationship together.
- It is $c = \lambda f$, where c is the speed of light, λ is wavelength, f is Frequency.

Type of EM	Production	Applications	f (Hz)
Radio/TV	Accelerating charges	Communications	$10^6 \rightarrow 10^{12}$
Microwaves	Accelerating charges & thermal agitation	Communications, ovens, Radar	$10^8 \rightarrow 10^{12}$
Infrared	Thermal agitations & electronic transmission	Heat Imaging.	$10^{10} \rightarrow 10^{14}$
Visible Light	"	All pervasive	10^{15}
Ultraviolet	"	Cancer Control	$10^{15} \rightarrow 10^{18}$
X-Rays	Electronic transitions and collisions	Medical	$10^{16} \rightarrow 10^{20}$
Gamma Rays	Nuclear Decays	Medical	$10^{18} \rightarrow \dots$

24.4 Energy in Electromagnetic Waves.

- Energy Density = $E_{\text{energy}} = \frac{\epsilon E^2}{\text{volume}} + \frac{B^2}{2\mu_0}$
- Intensity = Power = $\frac{E_0 E^2 c}{\text{Area}}$

27 Wave Optics

27.1 The Wave Aspect of Light: Interference.

- Electromagnetic light obeys the equation $c = \lambda f$.
- It also reacts with the medium it's in.
- The wavelength in a medium can be seen as $\lambda_n = \frac{\lambda}{n}$

where n is the index of refraction.