

# AP Physics C Review

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# Part I

## Vectors

### 1 Basics

The Unit Vectors

$$\hat{i} + \hat{j} + \hat{k}$$

Alternate notation:

$$\vec{v} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$$

$\hat{i}$  = positive  $x$  direction

$\hat{j}$  = positive  $y$  direction

$\hat{k}$  = positive  $z$  direction

### 2 Vector Operations

#### 2.1 Adding Vectors

To add 2 or more vectors together, simply add the separate components of each vector.

ex:

$$\text{let } \vec{A} = 4.2\hat{i} - 1.5\hat{j}$$

$$\text{let } \vec{B} = -1.6\hat{i} + 2.9\hat{k}$$

$$\vec{A} + \vec{B} = 4.2\hat{i} - 1.6\hat{i} - 1.5\hat{j} + 2.9\hat{k} = 3.6\hat{i} - 1.5\hat{j} + 2.9\hat{k}$$

#### 2.2 Vector Multiplication

There are two ways to multiply vectors, one of which produces a scalar and the other another vector:

- Dot Product:  $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \text{Scalar}$
- Cross Product:  $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \text{Vector}$

##### 2.2.1 Dot Product

The dot product takes two vectors as arguments and returns a scalar. It is defined in two ways:

- $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \|a\| \|b\| \cos(\theta)$   
Where  $\|v\|$  is the length of a vector  $v$  ( $\sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2}$ ), and  $\theta$  is the angle between the two vectors.
- $\hat{a} \cdot \hat{b} = (a_x b_x + a_y b_y + a_z b_z)$

**Properties** Some basic properties of the dot product are as follows

- $\hat{i} \cdot \hat{i} = \hat{j} \cdot \hat{j} = \hat{k} \cdot \hat{k} = 1$
- $\hat{i} \cdot \hat{j} = \hat{k} \cdot \hat{j} = \hat{k} \cdot \hat{i} = 0$

### 2.2.2 Cross Product

The cross product takes two vectors and produces a third that is perpendicular to both initial vectors, thus it must be performed in 3d space. This is the basis of the right hand rule, which will be expanded upon later:

- $\hat{i} \times \hat{j} = \hat{k}$
- $\hat{j} \times \hat{k} = \hat{i}$
- $\hat{k} \times \hat{i} = \hat{j}$

In general, the cross product is defined as

$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \|a\| \|b\| \sin \theta \vec{c}$$

Where  $\|v\|$  is the length of a vector  $\vec{v}$  ( $\sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2}$ ),  $\theta$  is the angle between the two vectors, and  $\vec{c}$  is a unit vector perpendicular to both  $a$  and  $b$ . This is not easily implemented though. Thus, the formula is also given by:

$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \langle a_y b_z - a_z b_y, a_z b_x - a_x b_z, a_x b_y - a_y b_x \rangle$$

This isn't much better, but there is another way to determine the cross product:

$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} a_y & a_z \\ b_y & b_z \end{bmatrix} \hat{i} - \begin{bmatrix} a_x & a_z \\ b_x & b_z \end{bmatrix} \hat{j} + \begin{bmatrix} a_x & a_y \\ b_x & b_y \end{bmatrix} \hat{k}$$

Where,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = ad - bc$$

## Part II

# Electrostatics and Magnetism

## 1 Field & Voltage Basics

### 1.1 Coulomb's Law

#### 1.1.1 Force

The force that two charge particles exert on each other is defined as:

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

where  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  are the charge values of each particle,  $r$  is the distance between them, and  $k = 9e^9 \frac{Nm^2}{C^2} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$  where  $\epsilon_0$  is the vacuum permittivity ( $\epsilon_0 = 8.854e^{-12} \frac{C^2}{Nm^2}$ )

#### 1.1.2 Field

The electric field generated by a point charge of  $Q$  is given by

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{F}}{q} = \frac{kQ}{r^2} = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}$$

#### 1.1.3 Properties of Field

- Electric field may be defined as change in electric potential

## 1.2 Electric Potential

Electric Potential is defined as the work required to bring a positive unit charge ( $q$ ) from a reference point to a specific point within an electric field. The reference point is often infinity, where there is effectively no influence from the field on a charge. The electric potential created by a point charge  $Q$  at distance  $r$  is given by:

$$V = \frac{kQ}{r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r}$$

For constant fields (e.g. parallel plates), the electric potential at distance  $d$  from the positive plate in an electric field  $E$  is given by

$$V = Ed$$

### 1.2.1 Electric Potential and Work

The change in electric potential is simply the work  $W_F$  done by an external force divided by the charge  $q$  of the particle that has moved. This can also be seen as a simple change in electrostatic potential energy  $U_e$ . Thus, it is also the opposite of the work  $W_E$  done by Coulomb force.

$$\Delta V = \frac{W_F}{q} = \frac{-W_E}{q} = \frac{\Delta U_e}{q}$$

### 1.2.2 Equipotential Surfaces

The collection of all point within an electric field that have equal potential is called an equipotential surface. The surfaces always form on a plane perpendicular to electric field lines, and no work is done in moving along an equipotential surface, only between them.

## 2 Field and Potential Using Calculus

### 2.1 Ring Charge

[image goes here]

#### 2.1.1 Setting Up The Integral

Since

$$E = \frac{kQ}{r^2}$$

thus,

$$dE = \frac{k dq}{r^2}$$

Since the horizontal components of the field cancel out, the only remaining parts are the vertical components. Thus, the effective field integral is:

$$dE = \frac{k \cos \theta dq}{r^2}$$

Since  $\cos \theta = \frac{Z}{r}$ ,

$$dE = \frac{k Z dq}{r^3}$$

We want  $E$ , not  $dE$ , so we apply the integral:

$$\int dE = \int \frac{kZdq}{r^3}$$

### 2.1.2 Integrating

$$E = \int \frac{kZdq}{r^3} = \frac{kZQ}{r^3}$$

Since  $r = \sqrt{Z^2 + R^2}$ ,

$$E = \frac{kZQ}{(Z^2 + R^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$$

## 2.2 Part of a Ring

image goes here

### 2.2.1 Setting Up the Integral

$$\int dE = \int k dq r^2$$

Assuming the linear charge density  $\lambda$  is uniform,  $\lambda = \frac{Q}{s} = \frac{dq}{ds}$  where  $s$  is the arc length of the segment of the ring. Thus,  $dq = \lambda ds$  Therefore:

$$E = \int \frac{k\lambda ds}{r^2}$$

Since the components not parallel with the line drawn from the center of the arc cancel each other out, the actual field that is given by

$$E = \int \frac{k\lambda \cos \theta ds}{r^2}$$

We then need to put the equation in terms of  $\theta$  so that it can be integrated. Since  $s = r\theta$ ,  $ds = r d\theta$  Thus:

$$E = \int_a^b \frac{k\lambda \cos \theta d\theta}{r}$$

Where  $a$  and  $b$  are the angle bounds of the arc relative to the normal



### 2.2.2 Integration

$$E = \frac{k\lambda}{r} \int_a^b \cos \theta d\theta$$

$$E = \frac{k\lambda}{r} (\sin b - \sin a)$$

## 3 Gauss' Law

Gauss' law states that the total electrical flux  $\phi$  through the a Gaussian surface  $A$  is equal to the enclosed charge  $q_{enc}$  over the vacuum permittivity  $\epsilon_0$ . Since  $\phi = E_{\perp}A$ , This is given by:

$$\oint E_{\perp} dA = \frac{q_{enc}}{\epsilon_0}$$

Here is a quick reference for symbols of charge density:

- $\lambda$ : Linear Charge Density
- $\sigma$ : Area Charge Density
- $\rho$ : Volumetric Charge Density

### 3.1 Field within Insulating Spheres

#### 3.1.1 Uniform Charge Density

If the insulating sphere with radius  $R$  and a uniform volume charge density  $\rho$ , then calculus is not needed to determine the charge enclosed by a Gaussian sphere of radius  $r$

$$\rho = \frac{Q}{V} = \frac{dq}{dV}$$

$$\rho = \frac{Q}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3} = \frac{q_{enc}}{\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3}$$

$$q_{enc} = \frac{Qr^3}{R^3}$$

### 3.1.2 Non-Uniform Charge Density

If the charge density  $\rho$  varies as a function of  $r$ , then to find the charge enclosed you must use calculus.

$$\rho(r) = \frac{dq}{dV}$$

$$\rho(r)dV = dq$$

Since  $V_r = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$ ,  $dV = 4\pi r^2 dr$ ,

$$\rho(r)4\pi r^2 dr = dq$$

$$Q_R = \int_0^R \rho(r)4\pi r^2 dr$$

Where  $R$  is the radius inside the nonuniform charge density that you are evaluating.

### 3.1.3 Field Inside of the Sphere

Using Gauss' Law, and the equations for the charge enclosed at a certain radius, we can find the field at a given point. Recall that the charge enclosed  $q_{enc}$  in a gaussian surface is:

- $\frac{Qr^3}{R^3}$  for a uniform charge density
- $\int_0^r \rho(x)4\pi r^2 dx$  for a nonuniform charge density  $\rho(x)$
- $Q$  whenever  $r_{Gauss} > R_{Sphere}$

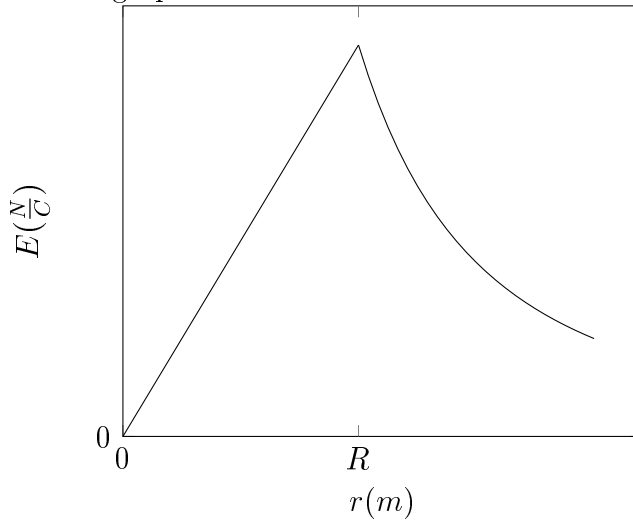
Applying this to Gauss' Law, we see that:

$$\oint E dA = \frac{q_{enc}}{\epsilon_0}$$

Applying the dimensions of a sphere to this gives us:

$$E = \frac{q_{enc}}{4\pi r^2 \epsilon_0}$$

The graph of the field resembles:



### 3.2 Field Within a Conducting Sphere

Since electrons repel each other, if they are allowed to move, they will move to the furthest distance that they can get from each other. For a conducting sphere, this is the outermost level of the sphere. Thus, a charged conducting sphere is for all intents and purposes, a shell of charge. Applying Gauss' law in this situation tells us that there is 0 field everywhere within the sphere, as there is no charge enclosed in any Gaussian surface made in the sphere. The field generated from the sphere beyond the sphere itself however, behaves the same way as that of an insulating sphere, as the charge enclosed is the same. There are a few things to note about conducting spheres:

- The charge will always stay totally on the outside shell of the sphere
- Even if there is a hole within the sphere, field will still be 0
- Field will compensate if there is charge inside of the conductor, say on the inner shell, so that there is no internal field no matter what.

## Part III

# Mechanics

## 1 Kinematics Review

Some quick identities

- $v = \frac{dx}{dt}$
- $a = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = \frac{dv}{dt}$