

# **WELCOME TO AP PHYSICS C**

# AP Physics C Exams

There are two calculus-based AP Physics C exams, which are usually taken together on the same day, in the first or second week of May of each year.

- Mechanics
- Electricity and Magnetism

# **Class 1: Kinematics**

## Advanced Placement Physics C

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Olympiads School

# Kinematics

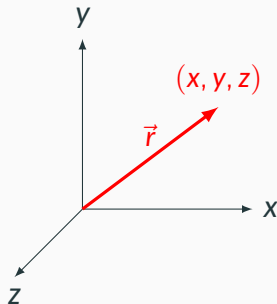
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# Position

**Position** ( $\vec{r}(t)$ ) is the location of an object in a coordinate system, as a function of time. It is measured in **meters** (m).

$$\vec{r}(t) = x(t)\hat{i} + y(t)\hat{j} + z(t)\hat{k}$$

- **IJK notation:**  $\hat{i}$ ,  $\hat{j}$  and  $\hat{k}$  are **basis vectors** indicating the directions of the x, y and z axes. Basis vectors are **unit vectors** (i.e. length 1)
- The IJK notation does not explicitly give the magnitude or the direction of the vector (needs to be calculated using the Pythagorean theorem)



# Position

**Position** ( $\vec{r}(t)$ ) describes the location of an object in a predefined coordinate system, as a function of time. The SI unit for position is **meter**, m.

$$\vec{r}(t) = x(t)\hat{i} + y(t)\hat{j} + z(t)\hat{k}$$

Vectors in 2D/3D Cartesian space are generally using the **IJK notation**

- $\hat{i}$ ,  $\hat{j}$  and  $\hat{k}$  are **basis vectors** indicating the directions of the x, y and z axes. Basis vectors are **unit vectors** (i.e. length 1)
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# Displacement

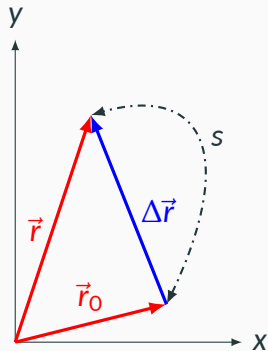
**Displacement**  $\Delta\vec{r}(t)$  is the change in position from the initial position  $\vec{r}_0$  within the same coordinate system:

$$\Delta\vec{r}(t) = \vec{r}(t) - \vec{r}_0 = (x - x_0)\hat{i} + (y - y_0)\hat{j} + (z - z_0)\hat{k}$$

# Distance

**Distance**  $s(t)$  is a quantity that is *related* to displacement.

- The *length of the path* taken by an object when it travels from  $\vec{r}_0$  to  $\vec{r}(t)$
- A scalar quantity
- Always positive, i.e.  $s \geq 0$
- Although the magnitude of the displacement vector is also a scalar, it is not necessarily the same as distance
- $s \geq |\Delta\vec{r}|$





# Instantaneous & Average Velocity

**Instantaneous velocity**  $\vec{v}(t)$  is the time rate of change in position. It is related to position  $\vec{r}(t)$  by:

$$\vec{v}(t) = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} \quad \vec{r}(t) = \int \vec{v}(t) dt + \vec{r}_0$$

The constant of integration  $\vec{r}_0$  evaluated at  $t = 0$ . Likewise, the **average velocity**  $\bar{\vec{v}}(t)$  is the change in position  $\Delta\vec{r}(t)$  over a finite time interval  $t$ :

$$\bar{\vec{v}}_{\text{ave}}(t) = \frac{\Delta\vec{r}}{t} = \frac{\vec{r}(t) - \vec{r}_0}{t} = \frac{\int_0^t \vec{v} dt}{t}$$

The SI unit of velocity is **meters per second** (m/s)

# Instantaneous & Average Speed

**Instantaneous speed**  $v$  is the time rate of change of *distance*. It is the *magnitude* of instantaneous velocity (i.e.  $v = |\vec{v}|$ )

$$v = \frac{ds}{dt}$$

Since  $s \geq 0$ , instantaneous speed must also be positive, i.e.  $v \geq 0$ . **Average speed**  $\bar{v}(t)$  is the distance  $s(t)$  travelled over a finite time interval  $t$ :

$$v_{\text{avg}}(t) = \frac{s(t)}{t} = \frac{\int_0^t v dt}{t}$$

The SI unit of speed is also meters per second m/s.

## Instantaneous & Average Acceleration

In the same way that velocity is the time rate of change in position, **instantaneous acceleration**  $\vec{a}(t)$  is related to instantaneous velocity by:

$$\vec{a}(t) = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = \frac{d^2\vec{r}}{dt^2} \quad \vec{v}(t) = \int \vec{a}(t)dt + \vec{v}_0$$

The SI unit of velocity is **meters per second squared** ( $\text{m/s}^2$ ). **Average acceleration**  $\vec{a}_{\text{avg}}(t)$  is the finite change in velocity  $\Delta\vec{v}(t)$  over a finite time interval  $t$ :

$$\vec{a}_{\text{avg}}(t) = \frac{\Delta\vec{v}(t)}{t} = \frac{\vec{v}(t) - \vec{v}_0}{t} = \frac{\int_0^t \vec{a}dt}{t}$$

Note that acceleration only requires a *change* in velocity. It does *not* necessarily mean an object speeds up or slows down (e.g. uniform circular motion).

## Special Notation When Differentiating With Time

Physicists and engineers often use a special notation when the derivative is taken with respect to *time*, by writing a dot above the variable. For example:

$$\vec{v} = \dot{\vec{r}}$$

$$\vec{a} = \dot{\vec{v}} = \ddot{\vec{r}}$$

We will use this notation whenever it is convenient

# Linear Independence

The  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$  components of  $\vec{r}$  along the  $\hat{i}$ ,  $\hat{j}$  and  $\hat{k}$  directions are *linearly independent*, therefore the time derivative and integral can be separated into components:

$$\vec{v}(t) = \frac{dx}{dt}\hat{i} + \frac{dy}{dt}\hat{j} + \frac{dz}{dt}\hat{k} = v_x\hat{i} + v_y\hat{j} + v_z\hat{k}$$
$$\vec{a}(t) = \frac{dv_x}{dt}\hat{i} + \frac{dv_y}{dt}\hat{j} + \frac{dv_z}{dt}\hat{k} = a_x\hat{i} + a_y\hat{j} + a_z\hat{k}$$

## If You Are Curious

The time derivative of acceleration is called **jerk**, with a unit of  $\text{m/s}^3$ :

$$\vec{j}(t) = \frac{d\vec{a}}{dt} = \frac{d^2\vec{v}}{dt^2} = \frac{d^3\vec{r}}{dt^3}$$

The time derivative of jerk is **jounce**, or **snap**, with a unit of  $\text{m/s}^4$ :

$$\vec{s}(t) = \frac{d\vec{j}}{dt} = \frac{d^2\vec{a}}{dt^2} = \frac{d^3\vec{v}}{dt^3} = \frac{d^4\vec{r}}{dt^4}$$

The next two derivatives of snap are called **crackle** and **pop**, but these higher derivatives of position vector are rarely used. We will *not* be using them.

# Acceleration as Functions of Velocity and Position

Acceleration may be expressed as functions of velocity and position rather than of time, if motion is driven by these forces:

- Gravitational or electrostatic forces:  $a(r) = \frac{Gm_s}{r^2}$      $a(r) = \frac{kq_1q_2}{mr^2}$
- Spring force:  $a(r) = -\frac{k}{m}r$
- Damping force:  $a(v) = -bv$
- Aerodynamic lift and drag:  $a(v) = \left[ \frac{\rho C_L A}{2m} \right] v^2$  and  $a(v) = \left[ \frac{\rho C_D A}{2m} \right] v^2$

In these cases, solving for  $r(t)$ ,  $v(t)$  and  $a(t)$  will require solving a differential equation (see handout).

# Kinematic Equations

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# Kinematic Equations

While kinematic problems in AP Physics C exams often require calculus, these basic kinematic equations for constant acceleration are still a powerful tool.

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

$$v = v_0 + a t$$

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

For AP Physics, you will only be given three kinematic equations in your equation sheet. You will still be required to integrate when acceleration is not constant.

# Motion Graphs

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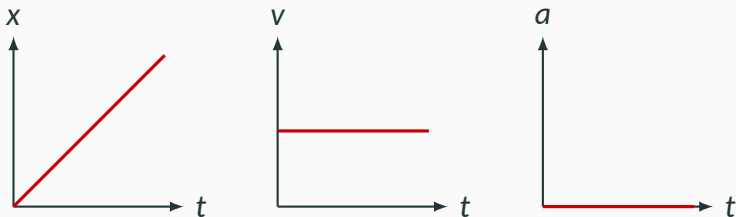
# Motion Graphs

You should already be familiar with the basic motion graphs for 1D motion:

- Position vs. time graph
- Velocity vs. time graph
- Acceleration vs. time graph

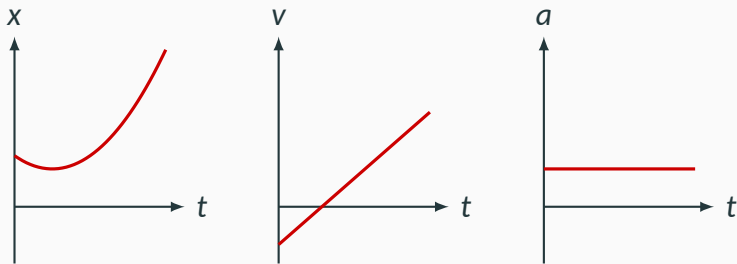
However, depending on the situation, it may be more useful to plot motion using other quantities as well.

# Uniform Motion: Constant Velocity



- Constant velocity has a straight line in the  $x - t$  graph
- The slope of the  $x - t$  graph is the velocity  $v$ , which is constant
- The slope of the  $v - t$  graph is the acceleration  $a$ , which is zero in this case

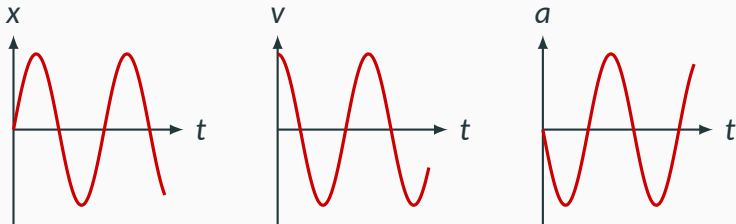
# Uniform Acceleration: Constant Acceleration



- The  $x - t$  graph for motion with constant acceleration is part of a *parabola*
  - If the parabola opens up, then acceleration is positive
  - If the parabola opens down, then acceleration is negative
- The  $v - t$  graph is a straight line; its slope (a constant) is the acceleration

# Simple Harmonic Motion

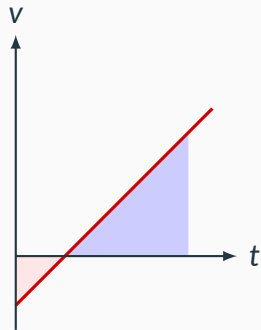
For **harmonic motions**, neither position, velocity nor acceleration are constant:



Bottom line: regardless of the type motion,

- The  $v - t$  graph is the slope of the  $x - t$  graph
- The  $a - t$  graph is the slope of the  $v - t$  graph

# Area Under Motion Graphs



The area under the  $v - t$  graph is the displacement  $x - x_0$ .

- Area *above* the time axis:  $+$  displacement
- Area *below* the time axis:  $-$  displacement

Likewise, the area under the  $a - t$  graph is the change in velocity  $v - v_0$ .

# Velocity Squared vs. Displacement

If velocity information is given as a function of position<sup>1</sup> then a motion graph can be plotted using this kinematic equation:

$$\underbrace{v^2}_y = \underbrace{v_0^2}_b + \underbrace{2a}_m \underbrace{(x - x_0)}_x$$

by plotting  $v^2$  on the y-axis and displacement  $\Delta x = x - x_0$  on the x-axis. The slope of the graph is  $m = 2a$ . The square of the initial velocity ( $v_0^2$ ) is the y-intercept.

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<sup>1</sup>Depends on experimental set up



# Graphing “Linear” Functions

This concept extends to graphing other physical quantities not relating to motion:

- To find the index of refraction of a material using Snell's law, plot  $\sin \theta_i$  vs.  $\sin \theta_2$  (rather than  $\theta_1$  vs.  $\theta_2$ ). The slope is the index  $n$ :

$$\underbrace{\sin \theta_1}_y = \underbrace{n}_m \underbrace{\sin \theta_2}_x$$

- To relate the period of oscillation of a simple pendulum to the length of the pendulum, plot  $T^2$  vs.  $L$ :

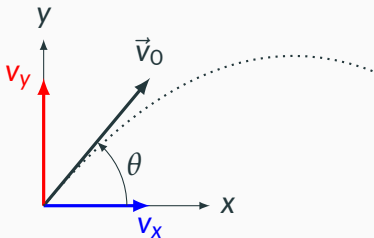
$$\underbrace{T^2}_y = \frac{4\pi^2}{\underbrace{g}_m} \underbrace{L}_x$$

# Projectile Motion

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# Projectile Motion

A **projectile** is an object that is launched with an initial velocity of  $\vec{v}_0$  along a parabolic trajectory and accelerates only due to gravity.



- x-axis is the *horizontal* direction, with the (+) direction pointing *forward*
- y-axis is the *vertical* direction, with the (+) direction pointing *up*
- The reference point is where the projectile is launched
- Consistent with the right-handed Cartesian coordinate system
- The launch angle  $\theta$  is measured above the the horizontal.

## Horizontal (x) Direction

There is no acceleration (i.e.  $a_x = 0$ ) along the horizontal direction, therefore horizontal velocity is constant. The kinematic equations reduce to:

$$x(t) = v_x t = [v_0 \cos \theta] t$$

where  $x(t)$  is the horizontal position at time  $t$ ,  $v_0$  is the magnitude of the initial velocity,  $v_x = v_0 \cos \theta$  is its horizontal component.

## Vertical (y) Direction

Constant acceleration due to gravity alone along the vertical direction, i.e.  $a_y = -g$ . (Acceleration is *negative* due to the way we defined the coordinate system.) The important equation is this one:

$$y(t) = [v_0 \sin \theta] t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

These two kinematic equations may also be useful:

$$v_y = [v_0 \sin \theta] - gt$$

$$v_y^2 = [v_0 \sin \theta]^2 - 2gy$$

# Solving Projectile Motion Problems

Horizontal and vertical motions are independent of each other, but there are variables that are shared in both directions, namely:

- Time  $t$
- Launch angle  $\theta$  (above the horizontal)
- Initial speed  $v_0$

When solving any projectile motion problems

- Two equations with two unknowns
- If an object lands on an incline, there will be a third equation describing the relationship between  $x$  and  $y$

## Symmetric Trajectory

A projectile's trajectory is symmetric if the object lands at the same height as when it launched. These equations are *not* provided in the AP Exam equation sheet, but it can save you a lot of time if you can use them, instead of deriving them during the exam.

- Time of flight

$$T = \frac{2v_0 \sin \theta}{g}$$

- Range

$$R = \frac{v_0^2 \sin(2\theta)}{g}$$

- Maximum height

$$H = \frac{v_0^2 \sin^2 \theta}{2g}$$

## Maximum Range

$$R = \frac{v_0^2 \sin(2\theta)}{g}$$

- Maximum range occurs at  $\theta = 45^\circ$
- For a given initial speed  $v_0$  and range  $R$ , launch angle  $\theta$  is given by:

$$\theta_1 = \frac{1}{2} \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{Rg}{v_0^2} \right)$$

But there is another angle that *gives the same range!*

$$\theta_2 = 90^\circ - \theta_1$$



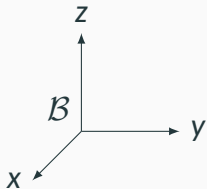
# Relative Motion

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All motion quantities must be measured relative to a *frame of reference*

- **Frame of reference:** the *coordinate system* from which all physical measurements are made.
- In *classical* mechanics, the coordinate system is the Cartesian system
- There is no absolute motion/rest: all motions are relative
- **Principle of Relativity:** All laws of physics are equal in all inertial (non-accelerating) frames of reference

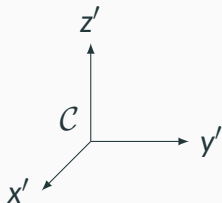
# Relative Motion



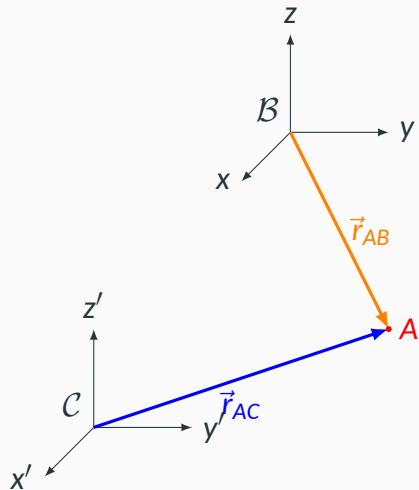
Two frames of reference

- $\mathcal{B}$  with axes  $x, y, z$
- $\mathcal{C}$  with axes  $x', y', z'$

The two reference frames may (or may not) be moving relative to each other. The motion of the two reference frames affect how motion of  $\bullet A$  is calculated.



# Relative Motion

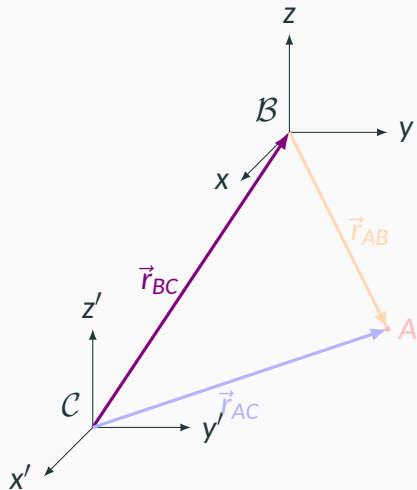


The position of **A** can be described by

- $\vec{r}_{AB}(t)$  (relative to frame B)
- $\vec{r}_{AC}(t)$  (relative to frame C)

It is obvious that  $\vec{r}_{AB}(t)$  and  $\vec{r}_{AC}(t)$  are different vectors

# Relative Motion



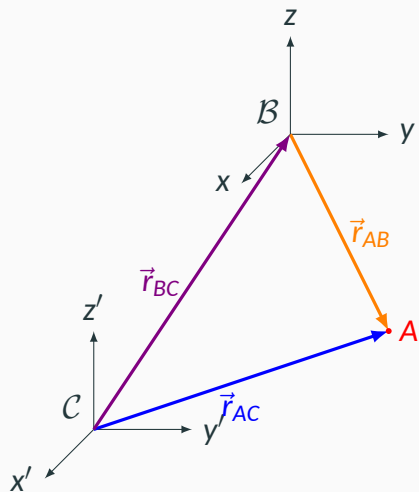
The position vector of the origins of the two reference frames is given by  $\vec{r}_{BC}$

- The vector pointing from the origin of frame C to the origin of frame B
- If the two frames are moving relative to each other, then  $\vec{r}_{BC}$  is also a function of time

Even without using vector notations, the relationship between the vectors is obvious:

$$\vec{r}_{AC} = \vec{r}_{AB} + \vec{r}_{BC}$$

# Relative Motion



Starting from the definition of **relative position**:

$$\vec{r}_{AC} = \vec{r}_{AB} + \vec{r}_{BC}$$

Differentiating all terms with respect to time, we get the equation for **relative velocity**:

$$\vec{V}_{AC} = \vec{V}_{AB} + \vec{V}_{BC}$$

Differentiating with respect to time again, and we obtain the equation for **relative acceleration**:

$$\vec{a}_{AC} = \vec{a}_{AB} + \vec{a}_{BC}$$

# Relative Velocity

In classical mechanics, the equation for relative velocities follows the **Galilean velocity addition rule**, which applies to speeds much less than the speed of light:

$$\vec{V}_{AC} = \vec{V}_{AB} + \vec{V}_{BC}$$

The velocity of A relative to reference frame C is the velocity of A relative to reference frame B, plus the velocity of B relative to C. If we add another reference frame D, the equation becomes:

$$\vec{V}_{AD} = \vec{V}_{AB} + \vec{V}_{BC} + \vec{V}_{CD}$$

## Typical Problems

In an AP Physics C exam, questions involving only kinematics usually appear in the multiple-choice section. The problems themselves are not very different compared to the Grade 12 Physics problems, but:

- You have to solve problems faster because of time constraint
- You can use  $g = 10 \text{ m/s}^2$  in your calculations to make your lives simpler
- Many problems are *symbolic*, which means that they deal with the equations, not actual numbers
- Will be coupled with other types (e.g. dynamics and rotational) in the free-response section
- You *will* be given an equation sheet