Vector

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Scalar

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Distance

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Displacement

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A quantity which has both magnitude and direction

A quantity which only has magnitude

The overall ground covered by an object during its motion

The separation between two points in a named direction

Speed

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Velocity

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Acceleration

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Momentum

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The distance travelled per unit time

The rate of change of displacement

The rate of change of velocity

The product of a body's mass and velocity

The Principle of Conservation of Momentum

 \mathcal{A}

In a closed system where no external forces act, momentum before is equal to momentum after

Force

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Newton (unit)

Weight

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That which changes the velocity of an object

A force of 1 newton gives an acceleration of 1ms⁻² to a mass of 1kg

The force at which a mass is attracted to the Earth

Friction

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Newton's First Law

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The force that opposes motion between surfaces in contact

A body remains at rest or in constant motion unless acted on by a resultant force

Newton's Second Law

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The rate of change of momentum is directly proportional to the applied force and takes place in the same direction in which the force acts

Newton's Third Law For every action, there is an equal and opposite reaction

Work

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Energy

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Done when a force causes a body to be moved

The ability to do work

Potential Energy

Stored energy that a body can have due to its state or position

Kinetic Energy Energy a body can have due to its motion

LC Physics – Key Definitions

Joule (unit)

The Principle of Conservation of Energy _{studyclix.ie}

Power

Watt

(unit)

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1 Joule is the work done when an object is displaced by 1 meter by a force of 1 newton

Energy can neither be created nor destroyed, but can change from one form to another

The rate at which is work is done OR The rate at which energy is converted

Doing work equal to 1 Joule per second is the rate of 1 Watt of power



Produced by a source which will not run out or be exhausted, eg wind, solar, tidal

Non-renewable Energy

Produced by a source which will eventually run out, eg oil, coal, natural gas

Machine Efficiency

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Lever

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Energy output as a percentage of energy input

A rigid body which is free to rotate about a fixed point

Centre of Gravity

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Torque

(the moment of a force)

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A Couple

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Conditions for Equilibrium

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The point of an object through which the weight of that object appears to act

The product of the force applied and the perpendicular distance to the fulcrum

Two parallel and equal forces that act in opposite directions

- 1. The clockwise moments must equal the anticlockwise moments
- 2. Total downward forces must equal total upward forces

Hooke's Law

Simple Harmonic Motion

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Newton's Law of Universal Gravitation

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Centripetal Force

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When an object is bent, stretched or compressed by a displacement S, the restoring force F is directly proportional to the displacement – Provided the elastic limit is not exceeded

Motion where the object's acceleration is directly proportional to its displacement from a mean position and is always directed towards this mean position

The force felt between two bodies is directly proportional to the product of their masses and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them

The force acting towards the center that is needed to keep a body moving in a circle

Centripetal Acceleration

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Angular Velocity

Periodic Time

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Kepler's Third Law The acceleration that a body which is moving in a circle has towards the center of the circle

The angle (measured in radians) swept out per second

The time taken to complete one full revolution

States that the square of the period of a satellite is directly proportional to the cube of its radius of orbit and inversely proportional the mass of the planet it is orbiting

Density

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Pressure

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Archimedes' Principle

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Law of Flotation

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Mass per unit volume

Force per unit area

When a body is fully or partially immersed in a fluid, it experiences an upthrust which is equivalent to the weight of the fluid displaced

A floating body will displace its own weight of fluid



a constant temperature, volume is inversely proportional to pressure

change

Thermometric Property

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Heat Capacity

Specific Heat Capacity

Latent Heat

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Any physical property that changes measurably with temperature

The heat energy needed to raise the temperature of a substance by 1 K [Symbol: C]

The heat energy needed to raise the temperature of 1 kg of a substance by 1 K [Symbol: c]

The heat energy needed to change the state of a substance without a change in temperature [Symbol: L]

Specific Latent Heat

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Specific Latent Heat of Fusion

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Specific Latent Heat of Vaporisation

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Conduction

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The heat energy needed to change the state of 1 kg of a substance without a change in temperature [Symbol: I]

The amount of heat energy needed to change 1 kg of a substance from a solid to a liquid without a change in temperature (i.e. Its melting point) [Symbol: L_f]

The amount of heat energy needed to change 1 kg of a substance from a liquid to a gas without a change in temperature (i.e. Its boiling point) [Symbol: L_v]

The transfer of heat through kinetic energy between adjacent particles of a medium, but the medium itself does not move (eg heat transfer through metal)



Radiation

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U-Value

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Solar Constant

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The transfer of heat through a fluid by the physical movement of the fluid (eg Boiling a pot of water)

The transfer of heat by electromagnetic waves (eg the sun heating the Earth)

The amount of heat energy passing through 1 m² of a substance per second when there is a temperature difference of 1 K between each side

Average sun energy falling per second on 1 m² of the atmosphere of Earth. Value: 1.35kWm⁻²

Light

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Self-Luminous

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Electromagnetic radiation that is detectable by the human eye Wavelength: 400nm-700nm

An object that produces its own light (eg the sun)

Non-Luminous

Reflection

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An object that does not produce its own light and so reflects light from its surface, making it visible

The bouncing of light off a surface

LC Physics – Key Definitions



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Real Image

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Virtual Image

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Parallax

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- The incident ray, the reflected ray and the normal at the point of incidence all lie in the same plane
- 2. The angle of incidence equals the angle of reflection

Image formed by the actual intersection of rays

Image formed by the apparent intersection of rays

The apparent movement of one object relative to another. This is due to the motion of the observer.

Refraction

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Laws of Refraction

Refractive index

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Critical Angle

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The bending of light as it passes from one medium to another

- The incident ray, the refracted ray and the normal all lie in the same plane
- For a given pair of media, the sine of the angle of incidence is proportional to the sine of the angle of refraction (Snell's Law)

The ratio of the sine of the angle of incidence to the sine of the angle of refraction when light travels from air into the medium

The angle of incidence in the denser medium when the angle of refraction in the rarer medium is 90°

Total Internal Reflection

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Optic Fibre

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Accommodation

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Power of a Lens

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This occurs when the angle of incidence in the denser medium is larger than the Critical Angle, and so the light is reflected back into the denser medium

Very thin, long and transparent material through which light travels by total internal reflection

The ability of the eye to focus on objects at varying distances by changing the shape of the lens

The reciprocal of the lens focal length, i.e. ¹/_f



Wave

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Medium

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Mechanical Waves The ratio of the image distance/height to the object distance/height

A disturbance that transfers energy through a medium, without any net movement of the medium

Required to carry a wave, with the exception of electromagnetic waves

Those which require a medium to travel

Electromagnetic Waves

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Electromagnetic Spectrum

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Transverse Wave

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Longitudinal Wave

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Those which do not require a medium in which to travel. EM waves travel in a vacuum at the speed of light.

The range of EM waves. From lowest to highest frequency: Radio waves, Microwaves, Infra-red, Visible light, Ultraviolet, X-rays, Gamma rays

One in which the vibrations are perpendicular to the direction in which the wave is travelling, eg light waves

One in which the vibrations are parallel to the direction in which the wave is travelling, eg sound waves

Travelling Wave

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Reflection

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Refraction

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Coherent Sources

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Transfers energy as it travels from the source producing it to all areas which it passes

The bouncing of a wave off the surface of obstacles in its path

The change in direction in which a wave is travelling when it travels from one medium to another

Those that are in phase and have the same frequency



Interference Pattern

Occurs when two or more waves meet. The resulting disturbance has an amplitude that is the algebraic sum of the individual amplitudes of each interfering wave.

Forms when two (or more) coherent sources meet

Constructive Interference

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Destructive Interference

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Occurs when two waves meet and the amplitude of the resultant wave is greater than the amplitude of each individual wave

Occurs when two waves meet and the amplitude of the resultant wave is less than the amplitude of each individual wave



Polarisation

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Stationary/Standing Wave

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Nodes

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The sideways spreading of waves into the region after passing through/around a small gap/obstacle

When the vibrations of a wave are confined to one plane only

Formed when two waves meet which are travelling in opposite directions but have the same amplitude and frequency

Points along a stationary wave that remain at rest



Doppler Effect

Points along a stationary wave which experience maximum vibration and amplitude

The apparent change in frequency of a wave due to the relative motion of the source or the observer

Wavelength

Frequency

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The distance between two successive crests or troughs

The number of complete oscillations of a wave per second

Velocity

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Amplitude

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Periodic Time

Dispersion

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The distance travelled by a wave per second

The maximum displacement of a point on a wave from the mean position

The time taken for one complete oscillation of a wave

The separation of the different wavelengths/colours present in light

Spectrometer

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Primary Colours

Secondary Colours

Complementary Colours

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Instrument used in optics to examine spectra and measure the wavelength of light

Form white light when combined. They are red, blue and green.

Formed by mixing two primary colours in equal intensity. They are yellow, magenta and cyan.

A primary colour and a secondary colour that form white when they are combined. These are: Blue with yellow, green with magenta and red with cyan.

Infra-red Light

Light that is emitted by warm objects

Fluorescence

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Monochromatic Light

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Sound

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When a body absorbs UV radiation and re-emits it as visible light

Light of one wavelength/colour only

Mechanical waves produced by a vibrating object, eg tuning fork

Acoustics

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Fundamental Frequency

Harmonics

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Overtones

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The study of sound

The frequency at which a body tends to vibrate if free to do so

Frequencies that are multiples of the fundamental frequency. If f = fundamental frequency, then f = 1st harmonic.

Frequencies that are multiples of the fundamental frequency. If f = fundamental frequency, then 2f = 1st overtone.



The Threshold of Hearing

When a body is forced to vibrate at its own natural frequency, resulting in large amplitude oscillations

The smallest intensity audible by the human ear at a frequency of 1000 Hz. It has a value of 1x10⁻¹² Wm⁻²

Sound Intensity

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Sound Intensity Level

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The power carried by sound waves per unit area in a direction perpendicular to that area

Measured in decibels, it gives the intensity of a sound relative to the threshold of hearing



Negative Charge

Properties of charged particles when they are at rest

Occurs when an object gains electrons

Positive Charge

Coulomb's Law

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Occurs when an object loses electrons

The force between two point charges is directly proportional to the product of their charges and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them

Electric Field

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Electric Field Strength

A region of space where a positive electric charge experiences a force other than gravity

The force per unit charge at a certain point in an electric field

The work done in bringing

Potential Difference

Insulator

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unit positive charge from one point to another

> A substance through which electric charge cannot flow

Conductor

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Coulomb

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Volt

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Capacitance

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A substance through which electric charge can flow

Unit of electric charge. It is the quantity of charge that passes when a current of 1 A flows for 1 second.

The potential difference between two points is 1 volt if 1 joule of work is done in bringing 1 coulomb from one point to another

The ratio of charge to potential in a conductor



The line along which a positive charge would travel in an electric field

Current

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The rate of flow of charge

Ammeter

Alternating Current

(AC)

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Device that measures current

Current that constantly changes direction



Current that flows in one direction only

Electromotive Force (EMF) studyclix.ie

Potential difference between terminals of a battery when no current is being drawn from the battery

Voltmeter

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Resistance

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Device that measures potential difference across a component or a circuit

The ratio of the voltage across a conductor to the current flowing through it

Ohm

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Ohm's Law

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Resistivity

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Joule's Law

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Unit of resistance. A conductor has 1 ohm of resistance if a current of 1 A passes through it when a potential difference of 1 V is applied across it.

If the temperature remains constant, the current flowing through a conductor is directly proportional to the potential difference across it

> The potential a material has for resistance

The rate of heat produced in a conductor is proportional to the square of the current flowing through it: $P \propto l^2$

lon studyclix.ie An atom/group of atoms that have lost or gained one or more electrons

Electrolysis

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Fuse

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Miniature Circuit Breaker (MCB) Causing a chemical reaction by passing a current through a liquid

A safety device consisting of a wire which melts when a current above a pre-set value passes through it, interrupting the circuit and preventing electrocution

A safety device which breaks a circuit if a current above a pre-set value is detected

Residual Current Device (RCD) studycliscier

> Radial Circuit

Ring Circuit

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Bonding

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A safety device which breaks a circuit if a current difference between live and neutral above a pre-set value is detected

One where a separate live and neutral wire are connected from the distribution box to an appliance which uses a large amount of current, eg an electric shower

One where the live, neutral and earth terminal of each socket are connected to three corresponding wires arranged in a loop with each end of said loop connected to the distribution box

Whereby all metal pipes, taps and tanks are earthed as a safety precaution

Kilowatt-Hour

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Semiconductor

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Holes

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Doping

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The amount of energy used per hour by a 1000 W appliance

A substance whose resistivity is between that of a good conductor and that of a good insulator

Positively charged spaces in a substance which remain when electrons break free from a covalent bond

Increasing the conductivity of a semiconductor by the addition of impurities

Intrinsic Conduction

Extrinsic Conduction Increased conduction in a semiconductor due to the addition of impurities

Occurs in pure semiconductors

due to electrons moving from

negative to positive and an equal

number of holes moving in the

opposite direction

Thermistor

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Light Dependant Resistor (LDR) A semiconductor whose resistance decreases as the temperature increases

A semiconductor whose resistance decreases as light intensity increases



Parallel

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Wheatstone Bridge

P-Type Semiconductor

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A circuit where there is no split

A circuit where there is a split

A circuit used to find an unknown value of a resistor through the use of ratios

One in which the impurity added produces extra holes which are available for conduction, eg adding boron to silicon

N-Type Semiconductor

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P-N Junction

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Depletion Layer

Junction Voltage One in which the impurity added produces more free electrons available for conduction, eg adding phosphorous to silicon

When a P and an N type semiconductor are joined together they form a single semiconductor which allows current to flow in only one direction only

The insulative region at the meeting of the p-n junction where there are no majority charge carriers

The potential difference across a p-n junction caused by holes and electrons moving across the junction when it was formed

Forward-Biased p-n junction

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Reverse-Biased p-n junction

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Positive terminal of battery to p-type and negative terminal of battery to ntype. Conducts electricity.

Positive terminal of battery to n-type and negative terminal of battery of battery to p-type. Does not conduct electricity.

Rectification

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Light-Emitting Diode (LED) studyclix.ie The conversion of alternating current (AC) to direct current (DC)

A diode that emits light when in forward bias

Magnetic Field

Magnetic Field Line

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A region of space where magnetic forces can be felt

A tangent on any point of a magnetic field line gives the magnetic field direction at this point

Right-Hand Grip Rule

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Fleming's Left-Hand Rule

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If the right hand grasps a wire with the thumb pointing in the direction of the current, the fingers coiled around the wire show the magnetic field direction around it

If the thumb, index finger and middle finger are all perpendicular to each other, with the index finger pointing in the direction of the magnetic field and the middle finger pointing in the direction of the current, then the thumb points in the direction of the force

Magnetic Flux Density (B)

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Tesla

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Weber

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Electromagnet

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A vector at any point in the magnetic field whose magnitude is equivalent to the force experienced by a conductor of length 1 m, carrying current of 1 A, at right angles to the field at that point and has the same direction as the magnetic field lines

Unit of magnetic flux density. Magnetic flux density at a point is 1 if a 1 m long conductor carrying a current of 1 A experiences a force of 1 N when placed perpendicular to the field.

Unit of magnetic flux. The magnetic flux over 1 m² is 1 Wb if placed in a field of magnetic flux density 1 T.

Made of a solenoid and a soft iron core. When current passes though the solenoid, the core becomes magnetic.



Electromagnetic Induction

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Faraday's Law

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Lenz's Law

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That constant current which, if maintained in two straight parallel conductors of infinite length, of negligible cross section and placed 1 m apart in a vacuum, would produce a force on each conductor of 2 x 10^{-7} newtons per meter of length

Inducing an electromotive force by changing the magnetic flux in a closed loop

The size of the induced emf is directly proportional to the rate of change of flux

The direction of an induced current is always such as to oppose the change producing it

Electrical Generator

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Mutual Induction

Transformer

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Self-Induction

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Uses electromagnetic induction to convert mechanical energy to electrical energy

When a changing magnetic field in one coil causes an induced emf to appear in a nearby coil

Device that changes the value of an alternating voltage

Occurs when a changing magnetic field in a coil induces an emf in the coil itself

Electron

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Thermionic Emission

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Cathode Rays

The electronvolt (eV)

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Sub-atomic negativelycharged particle that orbits the nucleus

When electrons are released from the surface of a hot metal

Steams of extremely fast electrons travelling from the cathode to the anode in an evacuated tube

The energy gained/lost by an electron as it moves through a p.d. of 1 V. Its value is 1.6 x 10⁻¹⁹ J.

Photoelectric Effect

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Photon

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Threshold Frequency

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Work Function The release of electrons from a metal surface when EM radiation of a certain frequency falls on it

A packet of electromagnetic energy, its energy is dependent on its frequency

The minimum frequency needed for photoemission to occur, every metal has a unique value

The minimum energy needed by a photon to remove an electron from the surface of a metal



Emission Spectrum

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High frequency EM radiation produced when high speed electrons strike a metal target

Created when light from a luminous source is dispersed

Atomic Number (Z)

Mass Number (A) The number of protons in an element's nucleus

The total number of protons and neutrons in the nucleus of an atom of a certain element



Radioactivity

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Energy Level

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Alpha (α) Radiation

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Atoms that have the same atomic number but different mass numbers because of more/less neutrons present in the nucleus

The spontaneous disintegration or decay of the nucleus of certain atoms with the emission of one or more types of radiation

A fixed energy level that an electron can have in an atom

Fast-moving helium nuclei ejected from the nuclei of radioactive atoms

Beta (β) Radiation

Gamma (γ) Radiation

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High speed electrons ejected from the nuclei of radioactive atoms

High frequency electromagnetic radiation emitted from the nuclei of radioactive atoms

Ionisation

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Activity

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When an atom or molecule acquires a charge by gaining or losing electrons to form ions

The number of nuclei of a substance decaying per second



Law of Radioactive Decay

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Half-Life

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Nuclear Fission

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The unit of Activity. Equivalent to 1 disintegration per second.

The activity of a sample is directly proportional to the amount left undecayed

The time taken for half a sample's present atoms to decay

The splitting up of a large nucleus into two smaller nuclei of similar size with the release of energy and neutrons

Nuclear Fusion

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Moderator

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Control Rods

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Cosmic Rays

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The joining of two smaller nuclei to form a larger nucleus with the release of energy

Usually graphite or heavy water, used in a nuclear reactor, to slow down neutrons so that they can cause fission reactions

Used in a nuclear reactor to absorb neutrons and therefore control the rate of reaction

High-energy particles that originate in very distant parts of the universe. They mostly decay high in the Earth's atmosphere.

Linear Accelerator

Pair Annihilation

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Strong Nuclear Force

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Weak Nuclear Force An instrument used to accelerate charged particles in straight lines

Happens when a particle and its antiparticle meet and annihilate each other

The force that binds neutrons and protons together in the nucleus

Involved in beta decay and the decay of neutrons to protons

Antiparticle

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Quarks

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Leptons

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Hadrons

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A particle that has the same mass as its corresponding particle but opposite charge, eg electron and positron

Fundamental particles that are constituents of baryons and mesons (hadrons)

Fundamental particles that are not subject to the strong nuclear forces but are subject to the weak nuclear force and gravitational force

Particles that are subject to the strong nuclear force

Meson

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Baryon

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Neutrino

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Pair Production A particle that is subject to the strong nuclear force and is composed of a quark and an antiquark

A particle that is subject to the strong nuclear force and is composed of three quarks

A lepton with zero charge and nearly zero rest mass. There is a different type of neutrino associated with each type of lepton.

A process whereby a particle and its antiparticle are produced