

PHYSICS

Main Concepts: Physical and Non-Physical Quantities

1. Physical Quantities

- **Definition:** Quantities that can be **measured** directly or indirectly using tools or instruments.
- **Examples:** Length, volume, density, time, temperature.
- **Importance:** These are the foundation of **physics**; laws and principles are based on them.

2. Non-Physical Quantities

- **Definition:** Quantities that **cannot be measured** with instruments; based on human perception or emotions.
 - **Examples:** Love, fear, wisdom, beauty.
 - **Use:** Help understand **human behavior** and **social interactions**; studied through **qualitative methods** or surveys.
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3. Need for Standard Units

- In the past, people used body parts (hand, foot) for measurement — caused **confusion**.
 - A **standard unit** ensures measurements are **consistent and reliable**.
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4. What is Measurement?

- **Definition:** A measurement includes **two parts**:
 - A **number** (value)
 - A **unit** (standard quantity)
 - **Note:** A number alone is meaningless without a unit.
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5. International System of Units (SI Units)

- **Why needed?** Different countries used different units → caused problems in **trade** and **scientific communication**.
- **Established in 1961** by the international committee.
- SI system includes **7 base units** used **worldwide**.

- SI units allow **easy comparison and sharing** of scientific data.
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6. Derived Units

- **Derived units** are units that are **formed using base units**.
- They are used to measure physical quantities like **area, volume, speed, force, pressure, and electric charge**.
- These units are **not basic** themselves but are made by **combining base units**.

Examples:

- **Area** = Length \times Width = metre \times metre = **metre² (m²)**
 - **Speed** = Distance / Time = metre / second = **m/s**
 - **Volume** = metre \times metre \times metre = **m³**
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7. SI Prefixes

- The **SI system** is a **decimal system**.
- **Prefixes** are used to write very large or very small values **using powers of 10**.
- This makes numbers **easier to read and write**.

Examples:

- **50,000,000 m** = **5×10^7 m**
 - **0.00004 m** = **4×10^{-5} m**
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8. Scientific Notation

☐ What is Scientific Notation?

- A **short way to write very large or very small numbers**.
 - It helps in **saving space, easy reading, and quick calculations**.
 - Numbers are written as:
 $a \times 10^n$, where:
 - **a** is a number between **1 and 9**
 - **n** is the **power of 10**
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9. How to Write in Scientific Notation?

1. **Move the decimal point** until there's only **one non-zero digit** on the left.
2. **Count the number of places** you moved the decimal:
 - Move **left** \rightarrow exponent is **positive**

- Move **right** → exponent is **negative**

✓**Examples:**

- 138,000,000 km
→ $1.38 \times 10^8 \text{ km}$ (Decimal moved 8 places to the left)
- 0.000000000052 m (Diameter of hydrogen atom)
→ $5.2 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}$ (Decimal moved 11 places to the right)

Important Notes:

- **Addition/Subtraction Rule:** Exponents **must be same**.
- **Prefix Care:** Always use proper **symbols** (e.g., *s*, *m*, *kg*) not abbreviations.
- **No Plurals in Symbols:**
✓ 10 mN
✗ 10 mNs
- **Capitalization Rule:**
 - Unit names = lowercase (metre, second)
 - Unit symbols = lowercase (m, s), **except L for litre**
 - Only **Celsius** uses capital (°C)

Vernier Callipers – Simple Explanation

10. What is a Vernier Callipers?

Vernier Callipers is a tool used to **measure small lengths** very accurately — up to **0.1 mm** (1/10th of a millimeter).

It is used to measure:

- **Thickness** of an object
- **Inner and outer diameter**
- **Depth** of a hollow object

11. Parts of Vernier Callipers

1. **Main Scale**
 - Fixed scale
 - Each division = **1 mm**
2. **Vernier Scale**
 - Sliding scale
 - 9 mm long, divided into 10 parts
 - Each part = **0.9 mm**
3. **Least Count**

- Smallest value the instrument can measure
 - **Least Count** = $1\text{ mm} - 0.9\text{ mm} = 0.1\text{ mm}$
 - 4. **Jaws A & B**
 - Measure **external** size (like the thickness of a rod)
 - 5. **Jaws C & D**
 - Measure **internal** size (like the diameter of a hole)
 - 6. **Depth Rod**
 - Measures **depth** of a hollow object (like a tube)
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12. How to Measure with Vernier Callipers

1. **Place** the object between the jaws.
2. **Note the main scale reading** just before the "0" of Vernier scale.
3. **Find the matching line** on the Vernier scale that lines up exactly with a line on the main scale.
4. Use the formula:

$$\square \text{Length} = \text{Main Scale Reading} + (\text{Vernier Scale Reading} \times \text{Least Count})$$

Example:

Main scale = 4.3 cm

Vernier scale = 4th line matches

Least Count = 0.01 cm

Length = $4.3 + (4 \times 0.01) = 4.34\text{ cm}$

13. Zero Error

Sometimes the instrument shows an error even when it should show zero.

- If Vernier 0 is **right of main 0** → **Positive Error** (Subtract from result)
- If Vernier 0 is **left of main 0** → **Negative Error** (Add to result)

How to Find Zero Error:

1. Check which Vernier division lines up with the main scale.
 2. Multiply that number by the least count.
 3. Apply correction (+ or -) based on error type.
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Fun Fact

- ☐ **Inventor:** Pierre Vernier (France), in **1631**
- ☐ **Parallax Error:** Happens when eye is not straight with the scale. Always view from straight above.

Measuring Tape: It can measure 1 mm to several metres. Its least count is 1 mm. It is used to measure longer distances.

□ Activity to Try

Find thickness of one coin:

1. Stack 10 coins → Measure total height with a meter rule
2. Divide by 10 → Average thickness
3. Measure one coin with Vernier Callipers
4. Compare both results in class!

Micrometer Screw Gauge - Easy Notes

What is it used for?

- To measure very **small things**, like the **diameter of a wire** or **thickness of a metal sheet**.
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14. Important Parts:

1. **Main Scale**
 - Found on the **sleeve**.
 - Each marking = **0.5 mm** (sometimes **1 mm**).
 2. **Circular Scale**
 - Found on the **thimble**.
 - Has **50 divisions** (sometimes **100 divisions**).
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15. Pitch of Screw Gauge:

Distance moved by spindle in one full turn of thimble.

Example: **0.5 mm** per full turn.

16. Least Count (L.C.):

The smallest measurement that can be read.

Formula:

Least count = Pitch of the screw gauge / No. of divisions on the circular scale

$$0.5 \text{ mm} / 50 = 0.01 \text{ mm}$$

17. Zero Error:

- **No Zero Error:**
 - Zero of circular scale is exactly at horizontal line.
 - **Positive Zero Error:**
 - Zero of circular scale is **above** the horizontal line.
 - **Add** the error to the reading.
 - **Negative Zero Error:**
 - Zero of circular scale is **below** the horizontal line.
 - **Subtract** the error from the reading.
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18. How to Measure with Screw Gauge:

1. Read the **main scale** (sleeve) marking just before thimble.
2. Read the **circular scale** marking which lines up with the main scale.
3. Formula:

$$\text{Thickness} = \text{Main scale reading} + (\text{Circular scale reading} \times \text{Least Count})$$

Example:

- Main Scale: 6.5 mm
- Circular Scale: 25 divisions
- L.C.: 0.01 mm

Calculation:

$$6.5 + (25 \times 0.01) = 6.5 + 0.25 = 6.75 \text{ mm}$$

Extra Tip:

- The most accurate balance for measuring mass is the **digital electronic balance**.
 - It can measure mass as small as **0.1 mg**.
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Mass Measuring Instruments - Easy Notes

19. Important Points:

- **Mass** and **Weight** are **different** in Physics.
 - **Mass:** Amount of matter in an object.
 - **Weight:** Force with which Earth pulls an object (can be measured with a **spring balance**).

- **Mass is measured by comparing** it with known masses.
 - This process is called **weighing**.
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20. Physical Balance:

- Used in **laboratories** to measure mass **accurately**.
 - Works on the **principle of levers**.
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Steps to Use a Physical Balance:

1. **Level the balance** using the **levelling screws** until the **plumb line** is exactly above the mark.
 2. **Raise the pans** by turning the knob.
 3. Check if the **beam is horizontal** and the **pointer** is at the **center**.
 - If not, adjust using **balancing screws**.
 4. **Place the object** to be measured on the **left pan**.
 5. **Place known standard weights** on the **right pan** using **forceps** (special tool for holding weights).
 6. Adjust until the **pointer is at zero** or swings equally on both sides.
 7. The **total weight** placed on the right pan = **mass of the object**.
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21. Key Definitions:

- **Mass:**
 - The amount of matter in an object.
 - **Weight:**
 - The gravitational force acting on an object.
 - **Weighing:**
 - Finding the mass by comparing it with standard known masses.
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22. Time Measuring Instruments - Easy Notes

Important Points:

- **Stopwatch** is used to measure the **duration** of an event.
- It has **two needles**:
 - One for **seconds**
 - One for **minutes**
- The **dial** is divided into **30 big divisions**.
 - Each big division has **10 small divisions**.

- Each small division = 1/10 second.
- **Least Count:**
 - The smallest time that can be measured is **one-tenth (1/10) of a second**.

23. How to use a Mechanical Stopwatch:

2. Press the top knob to **start** the watch.
 3. Press the knob again to **stop** the watch.
 4. Press again to **reset** the needles to zero.
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24. Digital Stopwatch:

- Modern **digital stopwatches** are also available.
 - They can measure even smaller time intervals:
 - **One-hundredth (1/100) of a second**.
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25. Volume Measuring Instruments

Measuring Cylinder

A **measuring cylinder** is a transparent tube (glass or plastic) marked with a scale in **millilitres (mL)** or **cubic centimetres (cm³)**. It is commonly used to measure the **volume of liquids** and **irregular solids** (via water displacement).

26. How to Use It Correctly:

- Place the cylinder on a **flat surface**.
- Keep your eye **level with the liquid surface**.
- **Liquids form a curved surface** called a **meniscus**.
 - **Water (concave meniscus):** Read from the **bottom** of the curve.
 - **Mercury (convex meniscus):** Read from the **top** of the curve.

Note:

To measure the volume of a **non-dissolving solid**, note the **rise in water level** after submerging the solid. The difference gives the solid's volume.

27. Displacement Can Method

When a solid is too large to fit into a measuring cylinder, a **displacement (or overflow) can** is used to measure its volume.

Procedure:

1. **Place** the can on a **level surface**.
2. **Fill** it with water until it begins to overflow from the side spout.
3. **Wait** until overflow stops, ensuring the water level is exactly at the spout.
4. **Tie** a thread to the solid and **lower it gently** into the can.
5. **Collect** the displaced water in a beaker.
6. **Measure** the collected water using a **measuring cylinder**.

✓ The volume of displaced water equals the **volume of the solid**.

Concept:

This method is based on **Archimedes' principle**—a solid submerged in a liquid displaces a volume of liquid equal to its own volume.

Errors in Measurement**Do You Know?**

Even with the widespread use of SI units, some old units are still in use—e.g., font size is measured in **points**, where **1 point = 1/72 inch = 0.35 mm**.

28. Why Do Errors Occur?

No measurement is perfectly accurate. All instruments have limitations, and human involvement introduces errors. We aim to **minimize** these errors and always mention the **estimated uncertainty** in any scientific measurement.

Types of Experimental Errors**29. Human Errors**

- Caused by carelessness, poor technique, or misreading instruments (e.g., wrong eye position, reaction time).
- **Minimized** by training, focusing, and using **digital tools**.

30. Systematic Errors

- Affect all measurements consistently due to a fixed cause (e.g., zero error, poor calibration).
- **Minimized** by comparing with standard instruments and applying correction.

31. Random Errors

- Unpredictable changes due to environmental factors (e.g., temperature, voltage).
 - **Minimized** by taking **multiple readings** and using **average values**.
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32. Uncertainty in Measurement

Every measuring instrument has a **least count**—the smallest division it can measure. Uncertainty is often \pm **half of the least count**.

For example:

- If a ruler is marked in mm, and a length lies between 10.3 cm and 10.4 cm, the uncertainty is ± 0.05 cm.

Use **averages** in repeated measurements (e.g., timing 30 oscillations instead of one) to reduce uncertainty.

33. Significant Figures

Significant figures show how reliable a measurement is. They include:

- All **certain digits**, and
- **The first uncertain digit**.

34. Rules:

- Digits 1–9 are significant.
 - Zeros **between** digits are significant: 5.06 \rightarrow 3 s.f.
 - Zeros **before** digits are not: 0.0034 \rightarrow 2 s.f.
 - Zeros **after** decimal are significant: 2.40 \rightarrow 3 s.f.
 - In scientific notation, all digits before $\times 10$ are significant.
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35. Precision vs Accuracy

- **Precision** = Repeated values are close to each other.
- **Accuracy** = Values are close to the **true value**.

Example:

Arrows on a target:

- Grouped together = Precise
- Hitting bulls eye = Accurate
- Both = Precise and Accurate

Smaller least count → Higher **precision**

More significant figures → Better **accuracy**

36. Rounding Off Rules

- If the digit after rounding place is **>5**, increase the last kept digit.
- If **<5**, keep the last digit as it is.
- If **exactly 5**:
 - If previous digit is **odd**, round up.
 - If **even**, leave unchanged.

Examples:

- 2.512 → 2.5 (to 2 s.f.)
 - 3.4567 → 3.46 (to 3 s.f.)
 - 4.45 → 4.4, but 4.55 → 4.6 (to 2 s.f.)
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Key Takeaway

Every measurement involves uncertainty.

Always aim for **precision**, **accuracy**, and **clarity** using appropriate instruments, significant figures, and rounding rules.