

Electrostatics

Very Important

BY AP Sir, Sakaar Classes

Formula Name / Topic

Formula

Conditions / Remarks

1. Coulomb's Law

Force between two point charges

$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$$

Valid for **point charges** at rest in vacuum/air.

Force in a medium

$$F_m = \frac{F_{air}}{K}$$

K (or ϵ_r) is the dielectric constant of the medium.

or



$$F_m = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 K} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$$

Vector Form

$$\vec{F}_{12} = \frac{kq_1 q_2}{r^3} \vec{r}_{21}$$

Force on q_1 due to q_2 . Direction is along the line joining them.

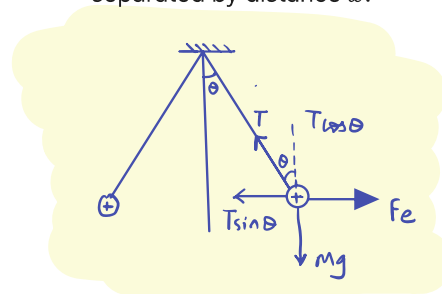
Specific Question Case:
Equilibrium of suspended charges

$$T \sin \theta = F_e$$

Two identical pith balls suspended by strings of length l , separated by distance x .

$$T \cos \theta = mg$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{F_e}{mg} = \frac{kq^2}{x^2 mg}$$



Specific Question Case:
Immersion in liquid

$$K = \frac{\rho_{ball}}{\rho_{ball} - \rho_{liquid}}$$

Condition: Angle of divergence θ remains unchanged when immersed in liquid.

2. Electric Field (E)

Point Charge



$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r^2}$$

Field at distance r from source charge Q .

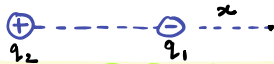
Null Point (Two like charges)



$$x = \frac{r}{\sqrt{q_2/q_1} + 1}$$

Distance x from smaller charge q_1 (where $q_2 > q_1$).

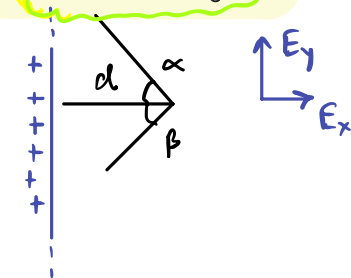
Null Point (Two unlike charges)



$$x = \frac{r}{\sqrt{q_2/q_1} - 1}$$

Distance x from smaller charge q_1 (outside the line segment).

Finite Line Charge



$$E_x = \frac{k\lambda}{d} (\sin \alpha + \sin \beta)$$

d = perpendicular distance. α, β = angles subtended by ends at the point.

$$E_y = \frac{k\lambda}{d} (\cos \beta - \cos \alpha)$$

Infinite Line Charge

$$E = \frac{2k\lambda}{r} = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

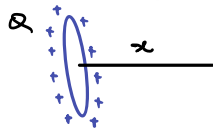
Long wire ($\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$).

Semi-Infinite Line Charge

$$E_{net} = \frac{\sqrt{2}k\lambda}{d}$$

At one end of the wire ($\alpha = 90^\circ, \beta = 0^\circ$). Angle with normal is 45° .

Uniformly Charged Ring



$$E_{axis} = \frac{kQx}{(R^2 + x^2)^{3/2}}$$

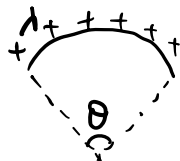
At distance x on the axis.

Max Field on Ring Axis

$$E_{max} = \frac{2kQ}{3\sqrt{3}R^2}$$

Condition: At $x = \pm \frac{R}{\sqrt{2}}$.

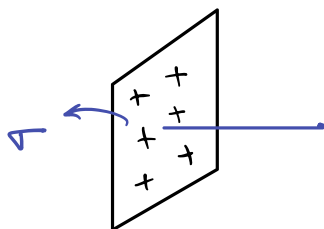
Charged Arc



$$E = \frac{2k\lambda}{R} \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

At the center of curvature. θ is the angle subtended by the arc.

Infinite Plane Sheet



$$E = \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0}$$

Independent of distance (for non-conducting sheet).

Conducting Plate Surface

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$$

Near the surface of a charged conductor.

3. Electric Potential (V)

Point Charge

Main

$$V = \frac{kQ}{r}$$

Scalar quantity.

Relation between E and V

$$E = -\frac{dV}{dr}$$

E flows from Higher Potential to Lower Potential.

or

Take partial derivative to find E_x E_y E_z

Pot. Diff (ΔV)

$$\Delta V = -\int_{r_1}^{r_2} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

Potential Difference

$$V_B - V_A = \frac{W_{ext}(A \rightarrow B)}{q_0}$$

Work done by external agent against electrostatic force.

Charged Ring

$$V_{axis} = \frac{kQ}{\sqrt{R^2 + x^2}}$$

At distance x on the axis.

Not Zero at Centre याद रखो.

Concentric Shells (Inner r_1 , Outer r_2)

$$V_{center} = \frac{Q_1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_1} + \frac{Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_2}$$

Potential at the common center.

4. Spheres (Conducting vs Non-Conducting)

Conducting Sphere / Shell

Outside ($r > R$):

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

Charge resides only on the surface.

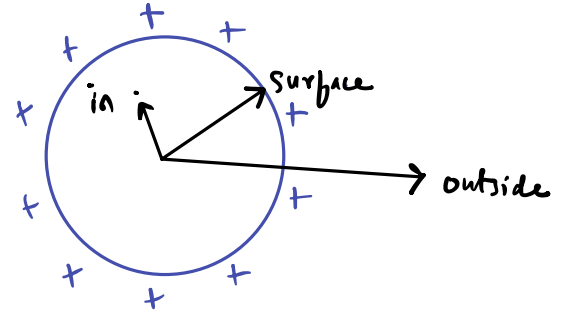
same as point charge

$$V = \frac{kQ}{r}$$

Surface ($r = R$):

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

$$V = \frac{kQ}{R}$$



Inside ($r < R$):

$$E = 0$$

$$V = \frac{kQ}{R}$$

(Constant)

same as surface

Non-Conducting Solid Sphere

Outside ($r > R$): Same as conducting.

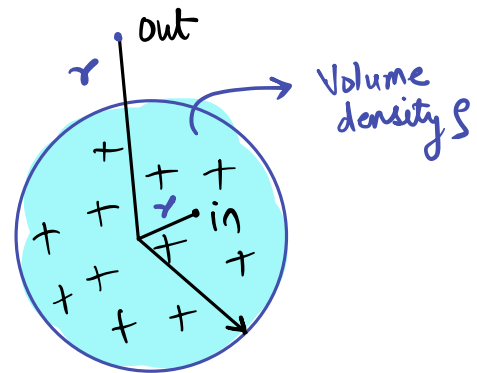
Charge is distributed uniformly throughout the volume.

Inside ($r < R$):

$$E = \frac{kQr}{R^3} = \frac{\rho r}{3\epsilon_0}$$

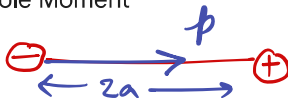
imp

$$V = \frac{kQ}{2R^3}(3R^2 - r^2)$$



5. Electric Dipole

Dipole Moment



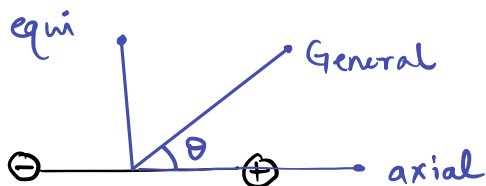
$$\vec{p} = q(2\vec{a})$$

Direction: Negative ($-q$) to Positive ($+q$).

Field on Axial Line

$$E_{axial} \approx \frac{2kp}{r^3}$$

For $r \gg 2a$. Direction along \vec{p} .



Field on Equatorial Line

$$E_{eq} \approx \frac{kp}{r^3}$$

For $r \gg 2a$. Direction opposite to \vec{p} .

Field at General Point

$$E = \frac{kp}{r^3} \sqrt{1 + 3 \cos^2 \theta}$$

θ is angle between \vec{r} and \vec{p} . Angle with radius vector
 $\tan \alpha = \frac{1}{2} \tan \theta$.

Torque on Dipole

$$\vec{\tau} = \vec{p} \times \vec{E} = pE \sin \theta$$

Rotational effect in uniform field.

Potential Energy

$$U = -\vec{p} \cdot \vec{E} = -pE \cos \theta$$

Stable equilibrium at $\theta = 0^\circ$ ($U_{min} = -pE$). Unstable at $\theta = 180^\circ$.

Imp!

Work Done in Rotation

$$W = pE(\cos \theta_1 - \cos \theta_2)$$

Work to rotate from θ_1 to θ_2 .

Dipole Oscillation (SHM)

$$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{I}{pE}}$$

For small angular displacement ($\sin \theta \approx \theta$). I = Moment of Inertia.

6. Flux and Gauss's Law

Electric Flux

Cube Cases (Charge q)

$$\phi = \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q_{in}}{\epsilon_0}$$

q_{in} is the net charge enclosed.

Center: $\phi_{total} = q/\epsilon_0$,
 $\phi_{face} = q/6\epsilon_0$

Based on symmetry and contribution to the closed Gaussian surface.

Face Center: $\phi_{total} = q/2\epsilon_0$

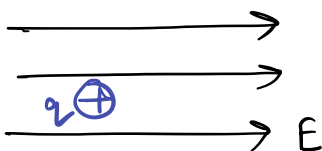
Corner: $\phi_{total} = q/8\epsilon_0$

7. Motion of Charged Particle

Acceleration

$$a = \frac{qE}{m}$$

In uniform Electric field.



Kinetic Energy gained

$$K = qV$$

Particle accelerated through potential difference V .

Trajectory in E-field

$$y = \frac{qE}{2mu^2}x^2$$

Parabolic path (similar to projectile).

Specific Question Case:

Soap Bubble

$$P_{\text{excess}} = P_{\text{in}} - P_{\text{out}} = \frac{4T}{r} - \frac{\sigma^2}{2\epsilon_0}$$

When charged, the bubble expands because electrostatic pressure acts outwards.

Closest Distance of Approach

$$r_0 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{2Ze^2}{K_{\text{initial}}}$$

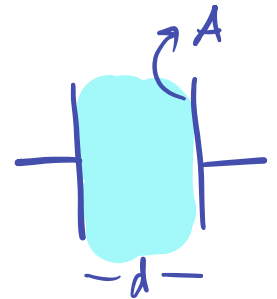
Alpha particle scattering ($K_{\text{initial}} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$).

8. Capacitance

Parallel Plate Capacitor

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d}$$

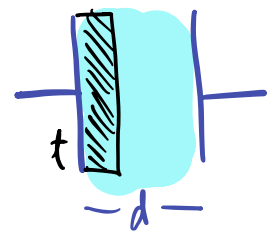
Air filled.



With Dielectric Slab

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d - t + t/K}$$

Slab thickness $t < d$.



With Conducting Slab

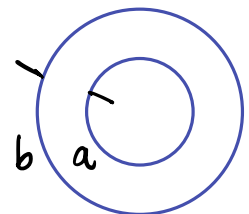
$$C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d - t}$$

Metal slab thickness t .

Spherical Capacitor

$$C = 4\pi\epsilon_0 \left(\frac{ab}{b - a} \right)$$

Inner radius a , Outer radius b (Outer earthed).



Isolated Sphere

$$C = 4\pi\epsilon_0 R$$

Earth can be considered a sphere of $C \approx 711\mu F$.

Energy Stored

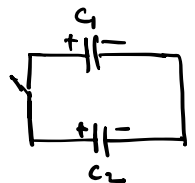
$$U = \frac{1}{2}CV^2 = \frac{Q^2}{2C} = \frac{1}{2}QV$$

Energy density $u = \frac{1}{2}\epsilon_0 E^2$.

Common Potential

$$V_{\text{common}} = \frac{C_1 V_1 + C_2 V_2}{C_1 + C_2}$$

When two charged capacitors are connected in parallel.



Heat Loss (Redistribution)

$$\Delta H = \frac{C_1 C_2}{2(C_1 + C_2)} (V_1 - V_2)^2$$

Always positive (Energy is lost).

Specific Question Case:

Dielectric Insertion

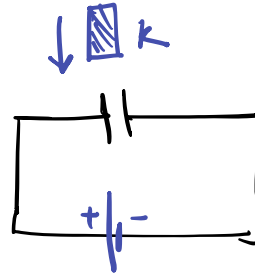
(Battery Connected)

$$C' = KC$$

$$Q' = KQ$$

$$V' = V$$

(Constant)

Battery maintains Potential V .

$$U' = KU$$

Specific Question Case:

Dielectric Insertion

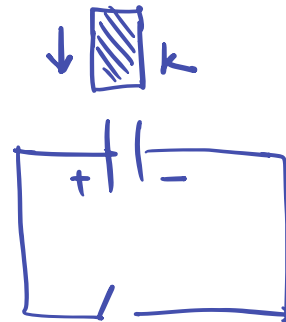
(Battery Disconnected)

$$C' = KC$$

$$Q' = Q$$

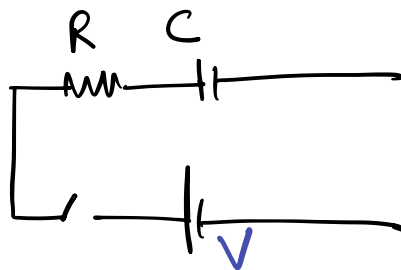
(Constant)

Conservation of Charge applies.



$$V' = V/K$$

RC Circuits



BY AP Sir, Sakaar Classes

This sheet covers the transient analysis (charging/discharging), steady-state analysis, and energy concepts required for NEET and JEE.

Topic / Formula Name

Formula(e)

Conditions & Usage

1. Time Constant (τ)

$$\tau = \tau = R_{eq}C_{eq}$$

The time required for the charge to grow to 63.2% of its max value (charging) or decay to 36.8% (discharging). Units: Seconds.

2. Charging: Charge vs Time

$$q(t) = q_0 (1 - e^{-t/\tau})$$

Used when a completely uncharged capacitor is connected to a battery of EMF ε through a resistor R at $t = 0$.

$$q_0 = C\varepsilon$$

3. Charging: Current vs Time

$$i(t) = i_0 e^{-t/\tau}$$

The current decreases exponentially with time. i_0 is the maximum current at the instant the switch is closed ($t = 0$).

$$i_0 = \frac{\varepsilon}{R}$$

4. Potential Drop (Charging)

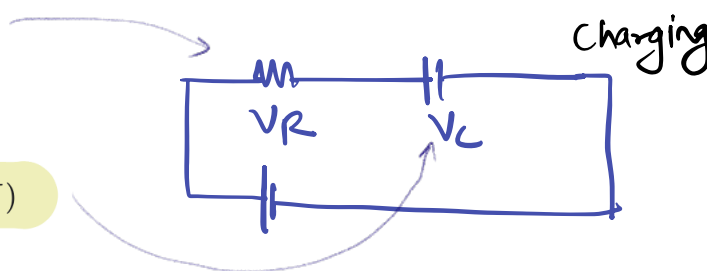
Across Resistor:

$$V_R = \varepsilon e^{-t/\tau}$$

Across Capacitor:

$$V_C = \varepsilon(1 - e^{-t/\tau})$$

Note that $V_R + V_C = \varepsilon$ at any instant t .



5. Discharging: Charge vs Time

$$q(t) = q_i e^{-t/\tau}$$

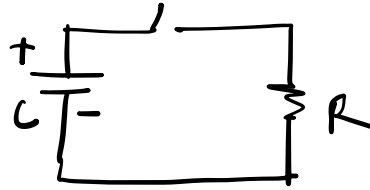
Used when a capacitor with initial charge q_i is discharged through a resistor (Battery removed).

**6. Discharging:
Current vs Time**

$$i(t) = i_0 e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$i_0 = \frac{q_i}{RC}$$

Current flows in the **opposite direction** compared to charging.



**7. Behavior at
 $t = 0$ (Initial
State)**

Replace Capacitor with a plain wire
(Short Circuit).

Valid for uncharged capacitors. At $t = 0$, the capacitor offers zero resistance to current flow.

**8. Behavior at
 $t = \infty$ (Steady
State)**

Replace Capacitor with an open switch (Broken wire).

After a long time, the capacitor is fully charged, and no current flows through the branch containing the capacitor.

**9. Work & Energy
(Charging)**

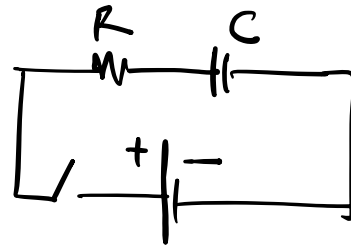
Work by Battery:

$$W_b = q_0 \varepsilon = C \varepsilon^2$$

Valid for a full charging cycle (0 to ∞).
Note: Only 50% of battery work is stored; the rest is lost as heat in the resistor.

Energy Stored in C:

$$U = \frac{1}{2} C \varepsilon^2$$



Heat Dissipated:

$$H = \frac{1}{2} C \varepsilon^2$$

**10. General Heat
Loss Formula**

$$H = \text{Work}_{\text{battery}} - \Delta U_{\text{stored}}$$

The Golden Rule for JEE/NEET: Use this for ANY circuit change.
 $\Delta U = U_f - U_i$.

**11. τ in Complex
Circuits**

$$\tau = R_{th} \times C$$

To find time constant in complex grids:

1. Short-circuit all batteries (replace with wire).

2. Find equivalent Resistance (R_{th}) across the two terminals where C is connected.

12. Specific Time Intervals (Shortcuts)

$$t_{50\%} \approx 0.693\tau$$

(Half Life)

1. Time to reach 50% charge (or drop to 50%).

2. Time to reach 90% charge.

$$t_{90\%} \approx 2.3\tau$$

3. Time usually considered "fully charged" in engineering.

$$t_{99\%} \approx 4.6\tau$$

13. Redistribution of Charge

Common Potential:

$$V = \frac{C_1 V_1 + C_2 V_2}{C_1 + C_2}$$

Used when two charged capacitors are connected parallel to each other (Positive plate to Positive plate).

Heat Loss:

$$\Delta H = \frac{C_1 C_2}{2(C_1 + C_2)} (V_1 - V_2)^2$$

14. Opposite Polarity Connection

Common Potential:

$$V = \frac{C_1 V_1 - C_2 V_2}{C_1 + C_2}$$

Used when two charged capacitors are connected with **reverse** polarity (Positive to Negative).

Heat Loss:

$$\Delta H = \frac{C_1 C_2}{2(C_1 + C_2)} (V_1 + V_2)^2$$

15. Leakage Current

$$i = \frac{Q}{RC} = \frac{Q}{\rho \epsilon_0 K / C \cdot C} = \frac{Q\sigma}{K \epsilon_0}$$

Condition where a capacitor discharges through its own dielectric material (imperfect insulator).
Resistance of dielectric $R = \frac{\rho d}{A}$.

16. LC Oscillations (Ideal)

Frequency:

$$\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$$

When a charged capacitor discharges through a pure inductor (Zero Resistance). Energy oscillates between Electric and Magnetic fields.

#

Max Current:

$$I_{max} = \omega Q_{max}$$

Note to Students:

- For **Steady State** questions (very common in exams), ignore the exponential formulae. Just redraw the circuit with the capacitor branch cut open.
- For **Transient** questions (asking for current at $t = 2s$), use the exponential formulae.

Current Electricity

BY AP Sir, Sakaar Classes

Topic / Formula Name

Formula(e)

Conditions / Context / Usage

1. Basic Current Definitions

$$I_{avg} = \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta t}$$

General definition of current.

If current is a function of time.

$$I_{inst} = \frac{dq}{dt}$$

Quantization of charge ($q = ne$).



$$I = \frac{ne}{t}$$

Frequency/Rotational Current

$$I = q \cdot f = \frac{q}{T} = \frac{q\omega}{2\pi}$$

Current due to a charge q moving in a circle with frequency f .

Current Density

$$J = \frac{I}{A}$$

Current per unit area (Vector quantity).



Direction is along Electric Field.

$$\vec{J} = nq\vec{v}_d$$

2. Drift Velocity

$$\vec{v}_d = -\frac{e\vec{E}}{m}\tau$$

τ = Relaxation time.

Relation between Current (I) and Drift Velocity (v_d).

$$v_d = \frac{I}{nAe}$$

Mobility (μ)

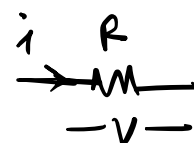
$$\mu = \frac{v_d}{E} = \frac{e\tau}{m}$$

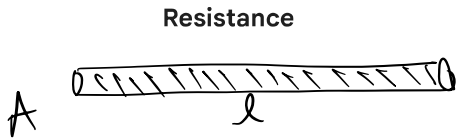
Ability of charge carriers to move.

3. Ohm's Law

$$V = IR$$

Scalar form.





Resistance (Stretching Wire)

Resistance (Compressing)

Percentage Change (Small)

Temperature Dependence

4. Colour Code

5. Combination of Resistors

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

$$R = \rho \frac{L}{A}$$

$$R' = n^2 R$$

$$R' = \frac{R}{n^2}$$

$$\frac{\Delta R}{R} \% = 2 \frac{\Delta L}{L} \%$$

$$R_T = R_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T)$$

$$\rho_T = \rho_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T)$$

$$R = AB \times 10^C \pm D\%$$

$$R_{eq} = R_1 + R_2 + \dots$$

$$V \propto R$$

$$\frac{1}{R_{eq}} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \dots$$

Vector form (Microscopic view). σ = Conductivity.

ρ = Resistivity (Specific Resistance).
Depends only on material and temp.

If a wire is stretched to n times its original length. (Volume constant).

If wire radius increases n times (or area increases n^2 times).

Valid only for very small changes in length ($< 5\%$).

R_0 at reference temp, R_T at temp T .

α = Temp coefficient of resistance.

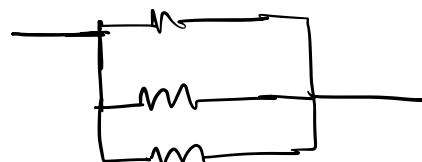
BBROYGBVGW (Black 0, Brown 1... White 9).

Tolerance (D): Gold $\pm 5\%$, Silver $\pm 10\%$.

Series Combination. Current is same, Voltage divides.

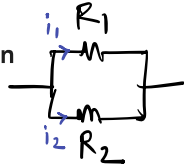


Parallel Combination. Voltage is same, Current divides.



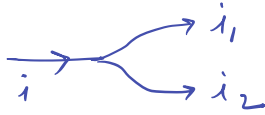
$$I \propto \frac{1}{R}$$

Two Resistors in Parallel



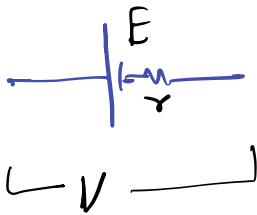
$$R_{eq} = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

Current Divider Rule



$$I_1 = I \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right)$$

6. EMF and Terminal Voltage



$$V = E - Ir$$

$$V = E + Ir$$

$$V = E$$

Internal Resistance (r)

$$r = \left(\frac{E - V}{V} \right) R$$

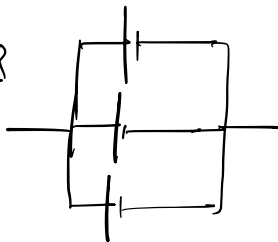
7. Grouping of Cells

Series



$$I = \frac{nE}{R + nr}$$

parallel



$$I = \frac{E}{R + r/m} = \frac{mE}{mR + r}$$

$$I = \frac{mnE}{mR + nr}$$

Max Power Transfer (Mixed)

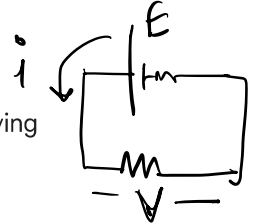
$$R = \frac{nr}{m}$$

Parallel Cells (Different EMF)

$$E_{eq} = \frac{\frac{E_1}{r_1} + \frac{E_2}{r_2}}{\frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{r_2}}$$

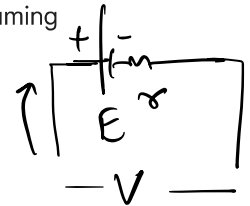
Specific shortcut for two resistors.

For two resistors in parallel, finding current in branch 1.



Discharging (Battery supplying energy). $V < E$.

Charging (Battery consuming energy). $V > E$.



Open Circuit ($I = 0$).

Using voltmeter and external resistance R .

Series Grouping (n identical cells).

Max current when $R \gg nr$.

Parallel Grouping (m identical cells).

Max current when $r/m \gg R$.

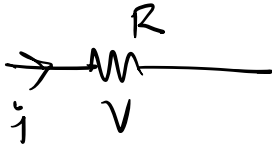
Mixed Grouping (n in series, m rows).

Condition for maximum current/power in mixed grouping.
External R = Total Internal r .

Two cells with different EMF and internal resistance connected in parallel.

$$r_{eq} = \frac{r_1 r_2}{r_1 + r_2}$$

8. Electrical Power & Energy



$$P = VI = I^2 R = \frac{V^2}{R}$$

Power dissipated.

Joule's Heating Effect.

$$H = I^2 R t$$

Bulbs in Series



$$P_{total} = \frac{P_1 P_2}{P_1 + P_2}$$

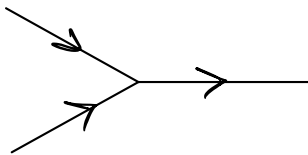
Brightness $\propto P_{consumed} \propto R$. (Low power bulb glows brighter).

Bulbs in Parallel

$$P_{total} = P_1 + P_2$$

Brightness $\propto P_{rated}$. (High power bulb glows brighter).

9. Kirchhoff's Laws



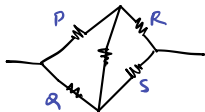
$$\sum I_{in} = \sum I_{out}$$

KCL (Junction Rule). Conservation of Charge.

$$\sum \Delta V = 0$$

KVL (Loop Rule). Conservation of Energy.

10. Wheatstone Bridge



$$\frac{P}{Q} = \frac{R}{S}$$

Balanced Condition ($I_g = 0$).
Galvanometer shows no deflection.

11. Measuring Instruments



$$S = G \left(\frac{I_g}{I - I_g} \right)$$

Ammeter conversion. S (Shunt) connected in parallel to Galvanometer.

$$R = \frac{V}{I_g} - G$$

Voltmeter conversion. R (High multiplier) connected in series with Galvanometer.

Meter Bridge

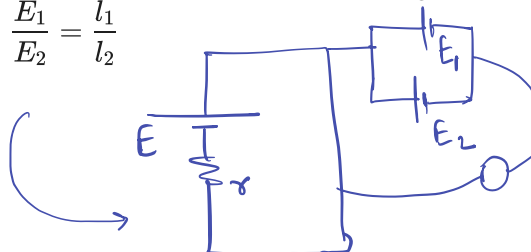
$$X = R \left(\frac{100 - l}{l} \right)$$

Application of Balanced Wheatstone bridge. X is unknown.

Potentiometer (Comparison)

$$\frac{E_1}{E_2} = \frac{l_1}{l_2}$$

Comparing EMF of two cells.



**Potentiometer (Internal
r)**

$$r = R \left(\frac{l_1}{l_2} - 1 \right)$$

l_1 = balancing length for open circuit.

l_2 = balancing length when closed
with R .

12. Special / Tricky Cases

Shortcuts for Symmetry & Geometry

**Skeleton Cube
Resistance**

$$R_{edge} = \frac{7}{12}R$$

Across the **Edge** (Side) of a cube.
(Mnemonic: 1-2 edge ends with 12).

$$R_{face} = \frac{3}{4}R$$

Across **Face Diagonal**. (Mnemonic:
3-4).

$$R_{body} = \frac{5}{6}R$$

Across **Body Diagonal**. (Mnemonic:
5-6).

**Infinite Ladder (Same
R)**

$$R_{eq} = \frac{R}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$$

Series-Parallel repeating units of R .
(Golden Ratio).

Symmetry Rule (Mirror)

If circuit is symmetric
perpendicular to current flow.

Points on the axis of symmetry are
equipotential. Remove connections
between them.

**Symmetry Rule
(Folding)**

If circuit is symmetric along the
current flow.

Fold the circuit. Overlapping
potentials are equal. Parallel resistors
can be merged.

Magnetic Effects of Current

BY AP Sir, Sakaar Classes

Formula Name / Topic

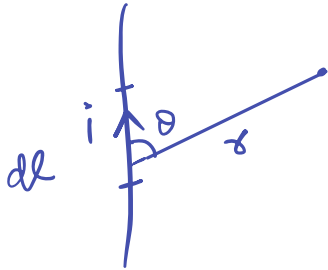
Formula(e)

Conditions / Specific Cases

1. Biot-Savart Law

$$d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{I(d\vec{l} \times \vec{r})}{r^3}$$

• Used for small current element $I d\vec{l}$.



$$|d\vec{B}| = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{Idl \sin \theta}{r^2}$$

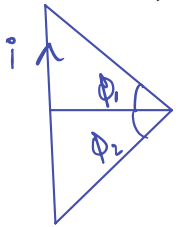
• θ is angle between current element and position vector \vec{r} .

• $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ T} \cdot \text{m/A}$.

2. Magnetic Field due to Straight Wire (Finite)

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi d} (\sin \phi_1 + \sin \phi_2)$$

• d : Perpendicular distance from wire to point P .



• ϕ_1, ϕ_2 : Angles subtended by ends at point P (measured from the perpendicular).

3. Infinite Straight Wire

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi d}$$

• Condition: $\phi_1 = \phi_2 = 90^\circ$.



• Very long wire relative to distance d .

4. Semi-Infinite Wire

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi d}$$

• One end at infinity, point P opposite to the other end ($\phi_1 = 90^\circ, \phi_2 = 0^\circ$).

5. Point on Axis of Straight Wire

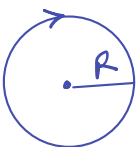
$$B = 0$$

• $d\vec{l}$ and \vec{r} are parallel or anti-parallel ($\theta = 0^\circ$ or 180°).

6. Circular Loop (At Center)

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 N I}{2R}$$

• N : Number of turns.

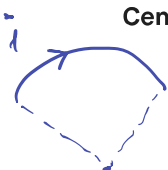


• R : Radius of loop.

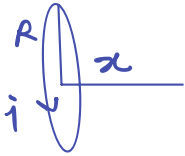
7. Circular Arc (At Center)

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi R} \theta$$

• θ must be in **Radians**.



8. On the Axis of Circular Loop



$$B = \frac{\mu_0 N I R^2}{2(R^2 + x^2)^{3/2}}$$

9. Axis of Loop (Far Point)

$$B \approx \frac{\mu_0 N I R^2}{2x^3} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{2M}{x^3}$$

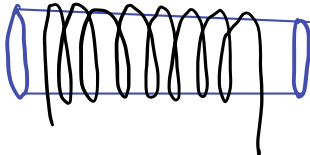
10. Ampere's Circuital Law



$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I_{\text{enclosed}}$$

11. Solenoid (Ideal/Long)

$$B = \mu_0 n I$$



12. Solenoid (Finite Length)

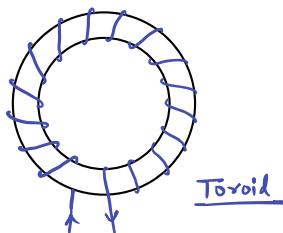
$$B = \frac{\mu_0 n I}{2} (\cos \theta_1 - \cos \theta_2)$$

13. Solenoid (At Ends)

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 n I}{2}$$

14. Toroid

$$B = \mu_0 n I$$



- For semi-circle: $\theta = \pi \Rightarrow B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4R}$.

- For quadrant: $\theta = \pi/2 \Rightarrow B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{8R}$.

- x : Distance from center along the axis.

- Direction is along the axis (Right Hand Thumb Rule).

- Condition: $x \gg R$.

- Behaves like a magnetic dipole.

- Line integral over a closed loop.

- I_{enclosed} is net current piercing the loop surface.

- Inside the solenoid (near center).

- $n = N/L$ (turns per unit length).

- Field outside is approx 0.

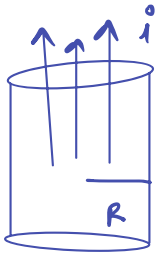
- θ_1, θ_2 are angles subtended by ends at the point on axis.

- For a very long solenoid, at the exact edge/end face.

- $n = \frac{N}{2\pi r}$ (turns per unit length of mean circumference).

- $B = 0$ outside the toroid and in the empty space inside.

15. Solid Cylinder (Thick Wire)



Outside ($r > R$): $B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$

- Current is uniformly distributed over cross-section.

Surface ($r = R$): $B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi R}$

- Inside field $\propto r$.

Inside ($r < R$): $B = \frac{\mu_0 I r}{2\pi R^2}$

- Outside field $\propto 1/r$.

16. Hollow Cylinder (Pipe)

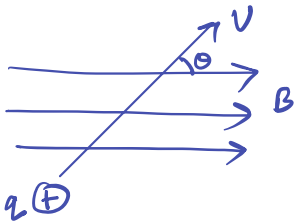


Inside ($r < R$): $B = 0$

- No current inside the hollow region.

Outside ($r > R$): $B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$

17. Magnetic Force on Moving Charge (Lorentz Force)



$$\vec{F}_m = q(\vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

- Force is perpendicular to both velocity \vec{v} and field \vec{B} .

$$F = qvB \sin \theta$$

- If $v \parallel B$, Force = 0.

- Work done by magnetic force is always **Zero**.

18. Motion in Uniform B-Field (Path)

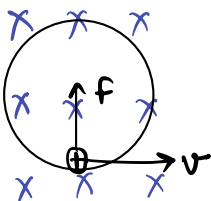
1. $\theta = 0^\circ, 180^\circ$: **Straight Line**

- Speed v remains constant (Kinetic Energy constant).

2. $\theta = 90^\circ$: **Circular Path**

3. Other θ : **Helical Path**

19. Circular Motion Parameters



Radius:

$$r = \frac{mv}{qB} = \frac{p}{qB} = \frac{\sqrt{2mK}}{qB}$$

- p : Momentum.

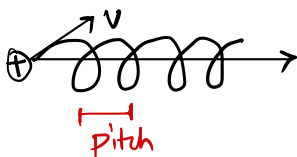
Time Period: $T = \frac{2\pi m}{qB}$

- K : Kinetic Energy.

Frequency: $f = \frac{qB}{2\pi m}$

- T and f are independent of speed v and radius r .

20. Helical Motion Parameters



Radius: $r = \frac{mv_{\perp}}{qB} = \frac{mv \sin \theta}{qB}$

- v_{\perp} component responsible for circle.

Pitch:

$$P = v_{\parallel} \times T = (v \cos \theta) \frac{2\pi m}{qB}$$

- v_{\parallel} component moves particle along the axis.

21. Velocity Selector

$$v = \frac{E}{B}$$

- Condition for charge to pass undeflected through crossed \vec{E} and \vec{B} fields ($F_{net} = 0$).

22. Force on Current Carrying Wire

$$\vec{F} = I(\vec{l} \times \vec{B})$$

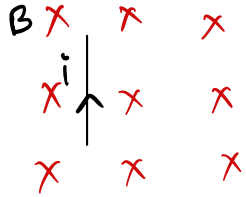
- \vec{l} is vector along current direction.

$$F = IlB \sin \theta$$

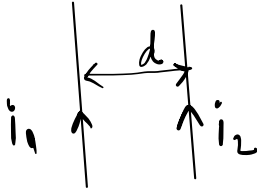
- For arbitrary shape in uniform field, \vec{l} is vector from start to end point.

$$F/l = \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2}{2\pi d}$$

- Force per unit length.



23. Force Between Parallel Wires

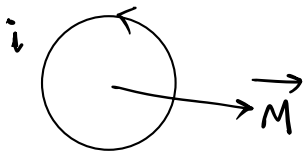


- **Attraction:** Currents in same direction.

- **Repulsion:** Currents in opposite directions.

24. Magnetic Dipole Moment (M)

$$\vec{M} = NIA\vec{A}$$



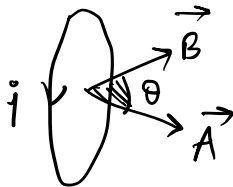
- Direction given by Right Hand Rule (curl fingers with I , thumb gives \vec{M}).

- For revolving electron:
 $M = \frac{evr}{2} = \frac{e}{2m} L$.

25. Torque on Current Loop

$$\vec{\tau} = \vec{M} \times \vec{B} = NIA\vec{A} \times \vec{B}$$

- θ is angle between **Area Vector** (normal to plane) and \vec{B} .



$$\tau = MB \sin \theta$$

- If coil plane is parallel to field, $\theta = 90^\circ$ (Max Torque).

26. Potential Energy of Dipole

$$U = -\vec{M} \cdot \vec{B} = -MB \cos \theta$$

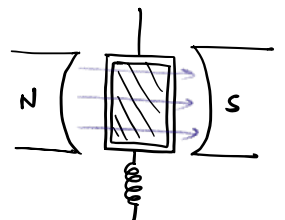
- Stable Equilibrium: $\theta = 0^\circ$ ($U_{min} = -MB$).

- Unstable Equilibrium: $\theta = 180^\circ$ ($U_{max} = +MB$).

27. Moving Coil Galvanometer

$$I = \left(\frac{k}{NBA} \right) \phi$$

- ϕ : Angle of twist/deflection.

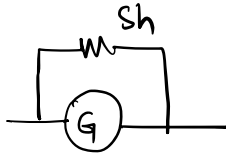


28. Sensitivities

Current: $S_i = \frac{\phi}{I} = \frac{NBA}{k}$

Voltage: $S_v = \frac{\phi}{V} = \frac{NBA}{kR_g}$

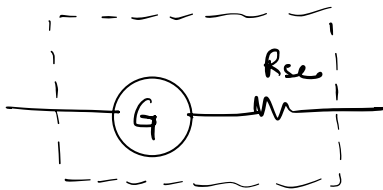
29. Conversion: Galv to Ammeter



$$S = \frac{I_g R_g}{I - I_g}$$

30. Conversion: Galv to Voltmeter

$$R = \frac{V}{I_g} - R_g$$



- k : Torsional constant of spring.
- Radial magnetic field ensures linear scale (τ is independent of θ).
- To increase sensitivity: Increase N , B , A or decrease k .
- Shunt S connected in **Parallel**.
- I : Range of Ammeter required.
- $R_A \approx S$ (very low).
- Resistance R connected in **Series**.
- V : Range of Voltmeter required.

Magnetism and Matter

BY AP Sir, Sakaar Classes

Formula Name /
Topic

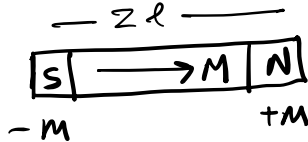
Formula(e)

Conditions / Specific Use Cases

Magnetic Moment
(\vec{M})

$$\vec{M} = m \cdot 2\vec{l}$$

\vec{M} is a vector from South pole to North pole.



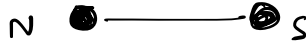
m = pole strength, $2l$ = magnetic length.

Coulomb's Law in
Magnetism

$$F = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2}$$

Force between two isolated magnetic poles (theoretical).

$$\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ T} \cdot \text{m/A}.$$



Magnetic Field of a
Monopole

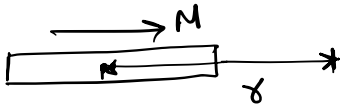
$$B = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{m}{r^2}$$

Field at distance r from a single pole of strength m .

Field on Axial Line

$$B_{axial} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{2Mr}{(r^2 - l^2)^2}$$

"End-on" position.



Direction of \vec{B} is along \vec{M} .

Field on Axial Line
(Short Dipole)

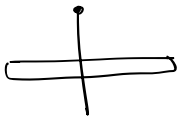
$$B_{axial} \approx \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{2M}{r^3}$$

Used when $r \gg l$ (Standard approximation for most questions).

Field on Equatorial
Line

$$B_{eq} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{M}{(r^2 + l^2)^{3/2}}$$

"Broad-side on" position.



Direction of \vec{B} is opposite to \vec{M} .

Field on Equatorial
Line (Short Dipole)

$$B_{eq} \approx \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{M}{r^3}$$

Used when $r \gg l$. Note that $B_{axial} = 2B_{eq}$ for same distance.

Field at General
Point

$$B = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{M}{r^3} \sqrt{3 \cos^2 \theta + 1}$$

Short dipole. θ is the angle between \vec{M} and position vector \vec{r} .

Direction at
General Point

$$\tan \alpha = \frac{1}{2} \tan \theta$$

α is the angle the magnetic field vector \vec{B} makes with the position vector \vec{r} .

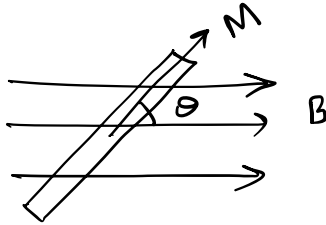
Torque on Magnetic Dipole

$$\vec{\tau} = \vec{M} \times \vec{B}$$

$$\tau = MB \sin \theta$$

Potential Energy (U)

$$U = -\vec{M} \cdot \vec{B} = -MB \cos \theta$$



Dipole in a uniform magnetic field.

Max torque at $\theta = 90^\circ$.

Ref (Zero PE) at $\theta = 90^\circ$.

Stable Equilibrium: $\theta = 0^\circ$ ($U = -MB$).

Unstable Equilibrium: $\theta = 180^\circ$ ($U = +MB$).

Work Done in Rotation

$$W = \Delta U = MB(\cos \theta_1 - \cos \theta_2)$$

Work done by external agent to rotate dipole from angle θ_1 to θ_2 in uniform field.

Gauss's Law for Magnetism

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{S} = 0$$

Net magnetic flux through any closed surface is zero. (Isolated magnetic monopoles do not exist).

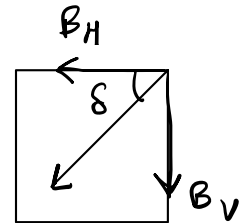
Earth's Magnetic Elements

$$B_H = B_{Earth} \cos \delta$$

$$B_V = B_{Earth} \sin \delta$$

B_H : Horizontal Component.

B_V : Vertical Component.



δ : Angle of Dip (Inclination).

Angle of Dip (δ)

$$\tan \delta = \frac{B_V}{B_H}$$

At Magnetic Equator, $\delta = 0^\circ$ ($B_V = 0$).

At Magnetic Poles, $\delta = 90^\circ$ ($B_H = 0$).

Apparent Dip (δ')

$$\tan \delta' = \frac{\tan \delta}{\cos \alpha}$$

Used when the dip circle is in a plane at an angle α to the magnetic meridian.

Perpendicular Dip Planes

$$\cot^2 \delta = \cot^2 \delta_1 + \cot^2 \delta_2$$

δ = True dip.

δ_1, δ_2 are apparent dips in two mutually perpendicular vertical planes.

Magnetization (\vec{M})

$$M = \frac{m_{net}}{V}$$

Net magnetic moment per unit volume.
Unit: A/m .

Magnetic Intensity (\vec{H})

$$\vec{H} = \frac{\vec{B}}{\mu_0} - \vec{M}$$

B is the total magnetic field inside the material. Unit: A/m .

Magnetic Susceptibility (χ)

$$\chi = \frac{M}{H}$$

Measures how easily a substance is magnetized. Dimensionless.

Permeability Relations

$$\mu = \mu_0(1 + \chi)$$

μ_r is Relative Permeability.

$$\mu_r = 1 + \chi$$

Diamagnetic: $\chi < 0$ (small), $\mu_r < 1$.

Paramagnetic: $\chi > 0$ (small), $\mu_r > 1$.

Ferromagnetic: $\chi \gg 0$ (large), $\mu_r \gg 1$.

Only for Paramagnetic materials. C is Curie's constant.

For Ferromagnetic materials above Curie Temperature ($T > T_c$).

Time period of a bar magnet oscillating in Earth's field.

I = Moment of Inertia.

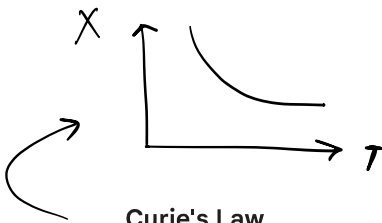
Comparing two magnets with same moment of inertia I .

Cutting perpendicular to length. Pole strength remains same.

Cutting along the length. Pole strength becomes half.

Vibration Magnetometer.

T_1 : Like poles together (Sum).



Curie's Law

$$\chi = \frac{C}{T} \text{ or } \chi T = \text{const}$$

Curie-Weiss Law

$$\chi = \frac{C}{T - T_c}$$

Oscillation Magnetometer

$$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{I}{MB_H}}$$

Comparison of Moments

$$\frac{M_1}{M_2} = \frac{T_2^2}{T_1^2}$$

Cutting a Magnet (Transverse)

$$m' = m, L' = L/2, M' = M/2$$

Cutting a Magnet (Longitudinal)

$$m' = m/2, L' = L, M' = M/2$$

Sum and Difference Method

$$\frac{M_1}{M_2} = \frac{T_2^2 + T_1^2}{T_2^2 - T_1^2}$$

T_2 : Unlike poles together (Diff).

**Tangent
Galvanometer**

$$I = K \tan \theta$$

K is the Reduction Factor. Used to measure current. Field at center
 $B = B_H \tan \theta$.

$$K = \frac{2RB_H}{\mu_0 N}$$

**Deflection
Magnetometer
(Tan A)**

$$\frac{M}{B_H} = \frac{4\pi}{\mu_0} \frac{(d^2 - l^2)^2}{2d} \tan \theta$$

End-on position (Arms East-West).

**Deflection
Magnetometer
(Tan B)**

$$\frac{M}{B_H} = \frac{4\pi}{\mu_0} (d^2 + l^2)^{3/2} \tan \theta$$

Broad-side position (Arms North-South).

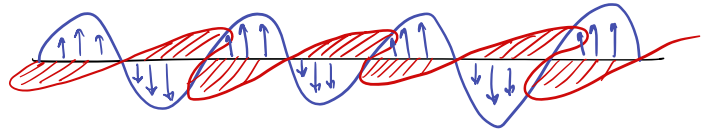
Hysteresis Loss

$$W = \text{Area of B-H Loop} \times V \times f$$

Energy loss per second.

V = Volume, f = frequency. Area unit is J/m^3 .

EM Waves



BY AP Sir, Sakaar Classes

Formula Name / Topic	Formula	Condition / Context
1. Maxwell's Equations		
Gauss's Law (Electrostatics)	$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{A} = \frac{Q_{in}}{\epsilon_0}$	valid for closed surface (Gaussian surface). Relates electric flux to enclosed charge.
Gauss's Law (Magnetism)	$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{A} = 0$	Always true. Indicates magnetic monopoles do not exist; magnetic field lines are closed loops.
Faraday's Law (EMI)	$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = -\frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$	Relates induced electric field to the rate of change of magnetic flux.
Ampere-Maxwell Law	$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \mu_0 I_c + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{d\Phi_E}{dt}$	I_c is conduction current, $\frac{d\Phi_E}{dt}$ is related to displacement current. Valid for time-varying electric fields.
2. Displacement Current		
Displacement Current (I_d)	$I_d = \epsilon_0 \frac{d\Phi_E}{dt} = \epsilon_0 A \frac{dE}{dt}$	Used when Electric flux Φ_E varies with time (e.g., between capacitor plates during charging/discharging).
Total Current	$I = I_c + I_d$	Continuity requires I_c (in wire) = I_d (in gap) for a capacitor circuit.
3. Wave Properties		
Speed of Light (Vacuum)	$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}} \approx 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$	In free space/vacuum.
Speed of Light (Medium)	$v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu \epsilon}} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{\mu_r \epsilon_r}} = \frac{c}{n}$	In a material medium with refractive index n .
Refractive Index (n)	$n = \sqrt{\mu_r \epsilon_r}$	Relation between optical and electromagnetic properties.

Relation between E and B	$\frac{E_0}{B_0} = c$ or $E = cB$	E and B are instantaneous values; E_0, B_0 are peak values. Magnitudes only.
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Wave Equations	$E_y = E_0 \sin(kx - \omega t)$	Wave propagating in $+x$ direction. E along y , B along z .
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$$B_z = B_0 \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

Angular Frequency (ω)	$\omega = 2\pi\nu = \frac{2\pi}{T}$	ν is frequency in Hz.
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Propagation Constant (k)	$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{\omega}{c}$	Also called Wave Number.
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Direction of Propagation	Direction of vector $\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}$	The wave travels in the direction perpendicular to both E and B .
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4. Energy Density

Electric Energy Density (u_E)	$u_E = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E^2$	Instantaneous energy per unit volume due to Electric Field.
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Magnetic Energy Density (u_B)	$u_B = \frac{1}{2\mu_0} B^2$	Instantaneous energy per unit volume due to Magnetic Field.
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Average Total Energy Density (u_{avg})	$u_{avg} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 = \frac{B_0^2}{2\mu_0}$	Important: Contribution from E and B is equal ($u_{E,avg} = u_{B,avg}$).
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5. Intensity & Momentum

Intensity (I)	$I = u_{avg} \times c = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 c$	Power per unit area (P/A). Energy crossing unit area per unit time.
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Intensity in terms of B_0	$I = \frac{B_0^2 c}{2\mu_0}$	Alternative form using magnetic field amplitude.
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Momentum (p)	$p = \frac{U}{c}$	Total momentum delivered when energy U is absorbed by a surface.
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Poynting Vector (\mathbf{S})	$\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B})$	Magnitude represents Intensity (\$\$)
----------------------------------	---	---------------------------------------

Specific Formulae for Specific Questions (Problem Solving)

Case / Question Type	Formula to Use	Context
Radiation Pressure (P_{rad})		
Perfectly Absorbing Surface	$P_{rad} = \frac{I}{c}$	Surface absorbs all radiation (e.g., black body). Momentum transfer $\Delta p = U/c$.
Perfectly Reflecting Surface	$P_{rad} = \frac{2I}{c}$	Surface reflects all radiation (e.g., mirror). Momentum transfer $\Delta p = 2U/c$.
Point Source Intensity	$I = \frac{P_{source}}{4\pi r^2}$	Calculates intensity at distance r from a bulb/source of power P .
Line Source Intensity	$I = \frac{P_{source}}{2\pi r L}$	Calculates intensity at distance r from a long line source (e.g., tube light) of length L .
RMS Values	$E_{rms} = \frac{E_0}{\sqrt{2}}, B_{rms} = \frac{B_0}{\sqrt{2}}$	Used when calculating heating effects or average power/intensity.
Force on a Surface	$F = P_{rad} \times A$	Force exerted by EM wave on area A . Substitute proper P_{rad} (absorbing/reflecting).
EM Spectrum (Wavelengths)	Radio > Micro > IR > Visible > UV > X-Ray > Gamma	Radio: > 0.1m
		Visible: 400nm - 700nm
		Gamma: $< 10^{-3}$ nm
Phase Difference	$\Delta\phi = 0$	Phase difference between Electric and Magnetic fields in an EM wave is always zero . They peak together.

Dual Nature of Radiation and Matter

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Formula / Topic Name

Formula

Conditions & Specific Use Cases

1. Energy of a Photon

$$E = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$$

$$h = 6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$$

$$c = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\text{Shortcut: } E(\text{eV}) = \frac{12400}{\lambda(\text{\AA})} \approx \frac{1240}{\lambda(\text{nm})}$$

2. Momentum of a Photon

$$p = \frac{E}{c} = \frac{h\nu}{c} = \frac{h}{\lambda}$$

Valid for photons (rest mass is zero). Used to relate wavelength and momentum.

3. Relativistic Mass of Photon

$$m = \frac{E}{c^2} = \frac{h\nu}{c^2} = \frac{h}{c\lambda}$$

Photon rest mass $m_0 = 0$. This is the "dynamic mass" or equivalent mass while moving.

4. Number of Photons Emitted

$$n = \frac{E_{\text{total}}}{E_{\text{one_photon}}} = \frac{P \times t}{h\nu} = \frac{P\lambda t}{hc}$$

P = Power of source (Watts), t = time.

$$\text{Rate of emission (N): } N = \frac{P}{E}.$$

5. Intensity of Radiation (I)

$$I = \frac{\text{Energy}}{\text{Area} \times \text{time}} = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{n h \nu}{A t}$$

Assumes point source radiating uniformly.

$$\text{For a point source at distance } r, I \propto \frac{1}{r^2}.$$

$$\text{For a line source, } I \propto \frac{1}{r}.$$

6. Einstein's Photoelectric Eq.

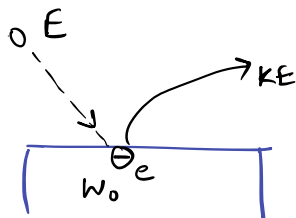
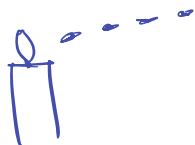
$$K_{\text{max}} = E - \phi_0$$

Law of conservation of energy.

$$K_{\text{max}} = h\nu - h\nu_0$$

Valid only if Incident Energy (E) > Work Function (ϕ_0).

$$K_{\text{max}} = \frac{hc}{\lambda} - \frac{hc}{\lambda_0}$$



7. Work Function (ϕ_0) $\phi_0 = h\nu_0 = \frac{hc}{\lambda_0}$

ν_0 = Threshold frequency

λ_0 = Threshold wavelength.

Constant for a specific metal surface.

8. Stopping Potential (V_s) $eV_s = K_{max}$

V_s is the negative potential required to stop the fastest electron.

$$V_s = \frac{h}{e}\nu - \frac{\phi_0}{e}$$

Independent of Intensity, depends on Frequency.

9. Slope of V_s vs ν Graph Slope = $\frac{h}{e}$

The graph is a straight line not passing through origin.

Intercept on V_s axis = $-\frac{\phi_0}{e}$.

Universal constant slope for all metals.

10. Radiation Force/Pressure

Perfectly Absorbing Surface:

Normal incidence.

$$F = \frac{IA}{c} = \frac{P}{c}, \text{ Pressure} = \frac{I}{c}$$

If light hits at angle θ to normal:

Absorbing: Pressure = $\frac{I}{c} \cos^2 \theta$

Perfectly Reflecting Surface:

Reflecting: Pressure = $\frac{2I}{c} \cos^2 \theta$.

$$F = \frac{2IA}{c} = \frac{2P}{c}, \text{ Pressure} = \frac{2I}{c}$$

11. de Broglie Wavelength

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mK}}$$

General formula for matter waves.

K = Kinetic Energy.



12. λ for Charged Particle

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mqV}}$$

Particle of charge q , mass m , accelerated through potential difference V (from rest).

13. λ for Electron

$$\lambda_e = \frac{12.27}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}$$

Specific Shortcut.

V must be in Volts. Result is in Angstroms.

$$\text{Alternative: } \lambda \approx \sqrt{\frac{150}{V}} \text{ \AA}.$$

14. λ for Proton

$$\lambda_p = \frac{0.286}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}$$

Specific Shortcut for Protons.

15. λ for Alpha Particle

$$\lambda_\alpha = \frac{0.101}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}$$

Specific Shortcut for α -particle (He^{2+}).

16. λ for Gas Molecule

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{3mk_B T}}$$

k_B = Boltzmann constant, T = Absolute Temp (Kelvin).

$$\text{Based on } K_{avg} = \frac{3}{2} k_B T.$$

17. Bohr's Quantization (de Broglie)

$$2\pi r_n = n\lambda$$

Condition for stationary orbits.

Circumference = integral multiple of wavelength.

18. Ratio of λ (Question type)

$$\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} = \sqrt{\frac{m_2 K_2}{m_1 K_1}} = \sqrt{\frac{m_2 q_2 V_2}{m_1 q_1 V_1}}$$

Used when comparing two different particles or same particle at different potentials.

19. X-Ray Cut-off Wavelength

$$\lambda_{min} = \frac{hc}{eV}$$

Continuous X-ray spectrum (Bremsstrahlung).

$$\lambda_{min}(\text{\AA}) = \frac{12400}{V(\text{volts})}$$

Depends only on accelerating voltage V .

20. Moseley's Law

$$\sqrt{\nu} = a(Z - b)$$

Characteristic X-rays.

Z = Atomic number.

a, b are screening constants.

For K_α line, $b = 1$.

Atoms

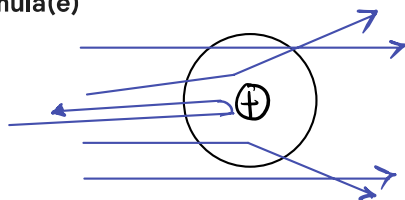
BY AP Sir, Sakaar Classes

Topic / Formula Name

Formula(e)

Conditions / Usage / Specific Cases

1. Rutherford's α -Scattering



Distance of Closest Approach (r_0)

$$r_0 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{2Ze^2}{K}$$

Used when an α -particle (charge $2e$) is fired at a nucleus (charge Ze) with Kinetic Energy K .

or

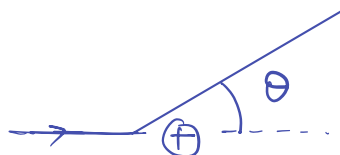
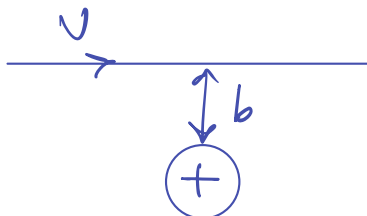
$$r_0 = \frac{4kZe^2}{mv^2}$$

Condition: Head-on collision ($\theta = 180^\circ$). At r_0 , entire KE converts to Electrostatic PE.

Impact Parameter (b)

$$b = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{Ze^2 \cot(\theta/2)}{K}$$

b is the perpendicular distance of the velocity vector from the nucleus center.



θ is the scattering angle.

If $b = 0$, $\theta = 180^\circ$ (Head-on).

Scattering Probability (N)

$$N(\theta) \propto \frac{1}{\sin^4(\theta/2)}$$

Gives the number of α -particles scattered at a specific angle θ .

2. Bohr's Model (General)

Valid only for Hydrogen-like species (1 electron system: H, He⁺, Li²⁺).

Angular Momentum Quantization

$$L = mvr_n = \frac{nh}{2\pi}$$

The electron can revolve only in those orbits where angular momentum is an integral multiple of $h/2\pi$.

Frequency
Condition

$$h\nu = E_{higher} - E_{lower}$$

Energy emitted/absorbed when
electron jumps between orbits.

3. Bohr's Parameters

~~Frequency~~
Orbit)

Radius of Orbit (r_n)

$$r_n = \frac{\epsilon_0 n^2 h^2}{\pi m Z e^2}$$

Proportionality: $r \propto \frac{n^2}{Z}$

Used to find the size of the atom
in excited states.

$$r_n = 0.529 \frac{n^2}{Z} \text{ \AA}$$

Velocity of
Electron (v_n)

$$v_n = \frac{Ze^2}{2\epsilon_0 n h}$$

Proportionality: $v \propto \frac{Z}{n}$

Velocity decreases in higher
orbits.

$$v_n = 2.18 \times 10^6 \frac{Z}{n} \text{ m/s} \approx \frac{c}{137} \cdot \frac{Z}{n}$$

Frequency of
Revolution (f)

$$f = \frac{v_n}{2\pi r_n} \propto \frac{Z^2}{n^3}$$

Number of revolutions per
second.

Time Period (T)

$$T = \frac{1}{f} \propto \frac{n^3}{Z^2}$$

Time taken for one complete
revolution.

Magnetic Field
at Center (B)

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2r} \propto \frac{Z^3}{n^5}$$

Magnetic field produced by the
revolving electron (treating it as a
current loop).

4. Energy of Electron

Total Energy (E_n)

$$E_n = -\frac{mZ^2 e^4}{8\epsilon_0^2 n^2 h^2}$$

Proportionality: $E \propto -\frac{Z^2}{n^2}$

Total energy is always negative,
implying a bound state.

$$E_n = -13.6 \frac{Z^2}{n^2} \text{ eV}$$

Kinetic Energy (K_n)

$$K_n = -E_n$$

E_n

Potential Energy (U_n)

$$U_n = 2E_n = -27.2 \frac{Z^2}{n^2} \text{ eV}$$

PE is negative and its magnitude is double the Total Energy.

Relation between E, K, U

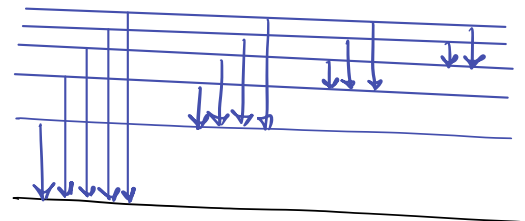
$$K = -E$$

Important for Graph Questions:

If Total Energy increases (becomes less negative), KE decreases and PE increases.

$$U = 2E$$

$$U = -2K$$



5. Hydrogen Spectrum

Rydberg's Formula (Wave number $\bar{\nu}$)

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = \bar{\nu} = RZ^2 \left(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

Rydberg Constant (R):

$$\approx 1.097 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^{-1} \text{ (or } \approx \frac{1}{911 \text{ \AA}}).$$

Condition: Transition from n_2 (higher) to n_1 (lower).

Specific Spectral Series

Transition ($n_2 \rightarrow n_1$)

Region of Spectrum

Lyman Series

$$n_2 = 2, 3, \dots \rightarrow n_1 = 1$$

Ultraviolet (UV) Region

Balmer Series

$$n_2 = 3, 4, \dots \rightarrow n_1 = 2$$

Visible Region

Paschen Series

$$n_2 = 4, 5, \dots \rightarrow n_1 = 3$$

Infrared (Near IR)

Brackett Series

$$n_2 = 5, 6, \dots \rightarrow n_1 = 4$$

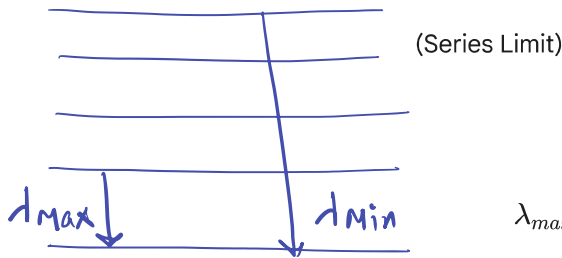
Infrared (Mid IR)

Pfund Series

$$n_2 = 6, 7, \dots \rightarrow n_1 = 5$$

Infrared (Far IR)

Max/Min Wavelengths



$$\lambda_{min} = \frac{1}{RZ^2(\frac{1}{n_1^2})}$$

λ_{min} corresponds to max energy transition ($n_2 = \infty \rightarrow n_1$).

λ_{max} corresponds to min energy transition ($n_2 = n_1 + 1 \rightarrow n_1$).

$$\lambda_{max} = \frac{1}{RZ^2(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{(n_1+1)^2})}$$

6. Atomic Transitions & Recoil

Number of Spectral Lines (N_E)

$$N_E = \frac{(n_2 - n_1)(n_2 - n_1 + 1)}{2}$$

Total number of possible emission lines when electron jumps from n_2 to n_1 .

If jumping to ground state ($n_1 = 1$), $N = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$.

Recoil Velocity of Atom (V)

$$V = \frac{h}{\lambda M} = \frac{\Delta E}{Mc}$$

When an atom emits a photon, it recoils to conserve momentum.

M = Mass of atom.

Excitation Energy

$$E_{excitation} = E_{final} - E_{ground}$$

Energy required to take an electron from ground state to an excited state.

Ionization Energy

$$E_{ionization} = E_{\infty} - E_{ground} = +13.6 \frac{Z^2}{n^2} \text{ eV}$$

Energy required to remove the electron completely ($n \rightarrow \infty$) from state n .

7. Reduced Mass Correction

Modified Rydberg Constant (R')

$$R' = \frac{R}{1 + \frac{m_e}{M_{nucleus}}}$$

Used when the mass of the nucleus is **not** considered infinite (e.g., Positronium, Muonic Hydrogen).

Replace m with $\mu = \frac{m_e M}{m_e + M}$ in

NUCLEI

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Topic / Formula Name	Formula	Conditions / Notes / Specific Use
1. Nuclear Radius	$R = R_0 A^{1/3}$	Used to calculate the radius of a nucleus. - $R_0 \approx 1.2 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m (1.2 fm)}$ - A = Mass Number
2. Nuclear Density	$\rho = \frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Volume}} \approx 2.3 \times 10^{17} \text{ kg/m}^3$	Condition: Nuclear density is independent of Mass Number (A). It is roughly constant for all nuclei.
3. Mass- Energy Equivalence	$E = mc^2$	Einstein's equation. Energy released when mass m is converted to energy.
Conversion Factor	$1 \text{ amu} \approx 931.5 \text{ MeV}$	Used to convert mass defect directly into Binding Energy in MeV.
4. Mass Defect (Δm)	$\Delta m = [Zm_p + (A - Z)m_n] - M_{\text{nucleus}}$	Difference between the sum of masses of nucleons and the actual mass of the nucleus. m_p : mass of proton, m_n : mass of neutron.
5. Binding Energy (B.E.)	$B.E. = \Delta m \times c^2$ OR $B.E. = \Delta m(\text{in amu}) \times 931.5 \text{ MeV}$	The energy required to break the nucleus into constituent nucleons.

6. Binding Energy per Nucleon

$$\text{B.E. per nucleon} = \frac{B.E.}{A}$$

Determines stability. Higher B.E./nucleon \implies More stable nucleus (max for Fe-56).

7. Radioactive Decay Law

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

N : Nuclei remaining at time t

N_0 : Initial number of nuclei

λ : Decay constant

Activity (R or A)

$$R = -\frac{dN}{dt} = \lambda N$$

Rate of decay. Unit: Becquerel (Bq) or Curie (Ci).

$$R = R_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

Use when asked for "count rate" or "activity".

8. Half-Life ($T_{1/2}$)

$$T_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda} = \frac{0.693}{\lambda}$$

Time taken for half the nuclei to decay.

9. Mean Life / Average Life (τ)

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{T_{1/2}}{0.693} = 1.44 T_{1/2}$$

Average time a nucleus exists.

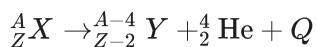
10. Fraction Remaining

$$\frac{N}{N_0} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$$

Here, $n = \frac{t}{T_{1/2}}$ (number of half-lives).

Shortcut: Useful for integer numbers of half-lives.

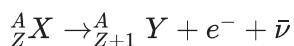
11. Alpha (α) Decay



Parent nucleus emits a Helium nucleus.

Mass No. decreases by 4, Atomic No. decreases by 2.

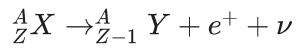
12. Beta Minus (β^-) Decay



Neutron turns into proton.

Atomic No. increases by 1. Antineutrino ($\bar{\nu}$) emitted.

13. Beta Plus (β^+) Decay



Proton turns into neutron.

Atomic No. decreases by 1. Neutrino (ν) emitted.

14. Q-Value of Reaction

$$Q = (M_{\text{reactants}} - M_{\text{products}})c^2$$

If $Q > 0$, reaction is exothermic (releases energy).

If $Q < 0$, reaction is endothermic.

Q-value (α -decay specific)

$$Q = \frac{M_Y}{M_Y + m_\alpha} E_{\text{total}}$$

Used to find Kinetic Energy of α -particle ($K_\alpha \approx \frac{A-4}{A}Q$).

15. Parallel Decay

$$\lambda_{\text{eff}} = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$$

Condition: A nucleus decays into two different products simultaneously with decay constants λ_1 and λ_2 .

$$T_{\text{eff}} = \frac{T_1 T_2}{T_1 + T_2}$$

16. Radioactive Equilibrium

$$\lambda_A N_A = \lambda_B N_B$$

Condition: Rate of formation of B (from A) = Rate of decay of B. (Secular Equilibrium).

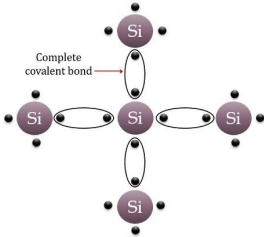
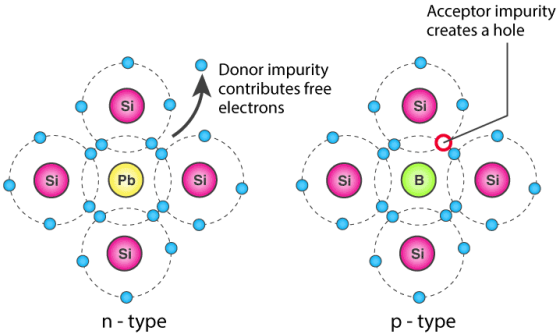
17. Number of Nuclei (N)

$$N = n \times N_A = \frac{m}{M} \times N_A$$

To find N_0 from mass m (in grams).

Semiconductors

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Formula / Topic Name	Formula(e)	Conditions / Specific Use Cases
Intrinsic Semiconductors 	<ol style="list-style-type: none">$n_e = n_h = n_i$$I = I_e + I_h$$J = \sigma E$	<ol style="list-style-type: none">Pure semiconductor (Si, Ge) at thermal equilibrium.Total current is sum of electron and hole currents.
Mass Action Law	$n_e n_h = n_i^2$	Valid for both intrinsic and extrinsic (doped) semiconductors at thermal equilibrium.
Conductivity (σ) & Resistivity (ρ)	<ol style="list-style-type: none">$\sigma = e(n_e \mu_e + n_h \mu_h)$$\rho = \frac{1}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{e(n_e \mu_e + n_h \mu_h)}$	Used to calculate conductivity/resistivity when carrier concentration (n) and mobility (μ) are known.
Mobility (μ)	$\mu = \frac{v_d}{E}$	v_d = drift velocity, E = Electric field. Ratio of drift velocity to applied electric field.
Extrinsic N-Type	<ol style="list-style-type: none">$n_e \approx N_d \gg n_h$$n_h = \frac{n_i^2}{N_d}$	Doped with Pentavalent impurity (N_d = Donor conc.). Electrons are majority carriers. 

Extrinsic P-Type

$$1. n_h \approx N_a \gg n_e$$

Doped with Trivalent impurity (N_a = Acceptor conc.). Holes are majority carriers.

$$2. n_e = \frac{n_i^2}{N_a}$$



Anode (+)  Cathode (-)



Dynamic Resistance (Diode)

$$r_d = \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta I}$$

Used in forward bias characteristics to find AC resistance at a specific operating point.

Diode Current Equation

$$I = I_s(e^{\frac{eV}{k_B T}} - 1)$$

I_s = Saturation current. Forward bias ($V > 0$). Often approximated as $I \propto e^V$.

Half Wave Rectifier (HWR)

$$1. I_{dc} = \frac{I_0}{\pi}$$

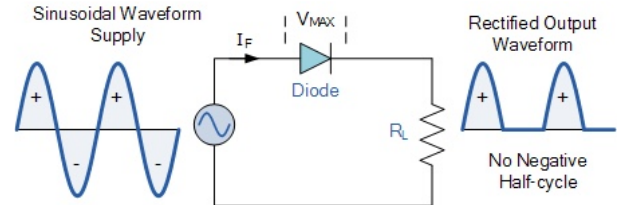
Used when only one half of AC cycle is rectified. I_0 is peak current. r_f is diode forward resistance.

$$2. I_{rms} = \frac{I_0}{2}$$

$$3. \text{Efficiency } \eta = \frac{40.6\%}{1 + r_f/R_L}$$

$$4. \text{Ripple Factor } \gamma = 1.21$$

$$5. \text{PIV} = V_0$$



Full Wave Rectifier (FWR)

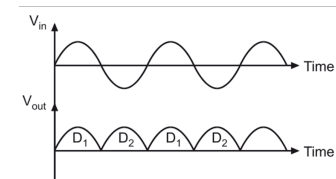
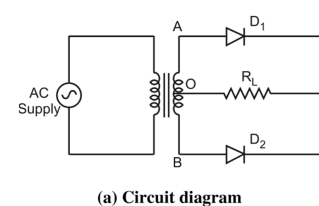
$$1. I_{dc} = \frac{2I_0}{\pi}$$

Used for center-tap or bridge rectifiers (Bridge PIV = V_0). Converts full AC cycle to DC.

$$2. I_{rms} = \frac{I_0}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$3. \text{Efficiency } \eta = \frac{81.2\%}{1 + r_f/R_L}$$

$$4. \text{Ripple Factor } \gamma = 0.48$$



(b) Input/output waveforms

5. $PIV = 2V_0$ (Center Tap)

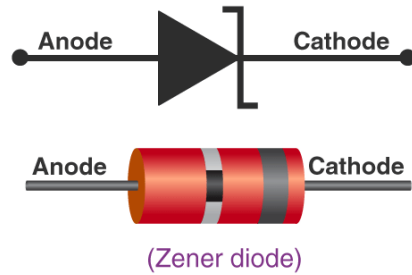
**Zener Diode
(Regulator)**

$$I_Z = I - I_L$$

Used as Voltage Regulator in Reverse Bias.
 V_Z is constant breakdown voltage.

$$V_{in} = IR_s + V_Z$$

$$P_Z = V_Z I_Z$$



**Transistor Currents
(BJT)**

$$I_E = I_B + I_C$$

Fundamental conservation of charge in any transistor configuration (CE, CB, CC).

Current Gains

1. $\alpha_{dc} = \frac{I_C}{I_E}$ (Common Base)

α is usually 0.95 to 0.99.

2. $\beta_{dc} = \frac{I_C}{I_B}$ (Common Emitter)

β is usually 20 to 100+.

**Relation between α
and β**

1. $\beta = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}$

Essential for converting gains between CB and CE configurations.

2. $\alpha = \frac{\beta}{1+\beta}$

AC Current Gain

$$\beta_{ac} = \left(\frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta I_B} \right)_{V_{CE}=\text{const}}$$

Used for small signal analysis (amplifiers).

Transconductance (g_m)

$$g_m = \frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta V_{BE}} = \frac{\beta_{ac}}{R_{in}}$$

Measure of transfer characteristic in amplifiers.

Voltage Gain (A_v) - CE Amp

$$A_v = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = -\beta_{ac} \frac{R_{out}}{R_{in}}$$

Negative sign indicates 180° phase shift in Common Emitter amplifier.

Power Gain (A_p)

$$A_p = A_v \times A_i = \beta_{ac}^2 \frac{R_{out}}{R_{in}}$$

Power amplification in CE mode.

Logic Gates - OR

$$Y = A + B$$

Output is High (1) if *any* input is High.

Logic Gates - AND

$$Y = A \cdot B$$

Output is High (1) only if *all* inputs are High.

Logic Gates - NOT

$$Y = \bar{A}$$

Inverts input. $0 \rightarrow 1, 1 \rightarrow 0$.

Logic Gates - NOR

$$Y = \overline{A + B}$$

OR followed by NOT. Universal Gate.

Logic Gates - NAND

$$Y = \overline{A \cdot B}$$

AND followed by NOT. Universal Gate.

Logic Gates - XOR

$$Y = A \oplus B = \bar{A}B + A\bar{B}$$

Output is High if inputs are different.

De Morgan's Theorems

$$1. \overline{A + B} = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B}$$

Used to simplify Boolean logic expressions in questions involving NAND/NOR realization.

$$2. \overline{A \cdot B} = \bar{A} + \bar{B}$$

Ray Optics

BY AP Sir, Sakaar Classes

Formula Name /
Topic

Formula(e)

Conditions / Notes

REFLECTION (Plane Mirrors)

Law of Reflection

$$i = r$$

Angle of incidence = Angle of reflection.
Measured from the normal.

Deviation (δ)

$$\delta = 180^\circ - 2i$$

Single reflection from a plane mirror.

Rotation of Mirror

Reflected ray rotates by 2θ

Keeping incident ray fixed, if mirror rotates by θ .

Number of Images
(n)

$$\text{Let } m = \frac{360^\circ}{\theta}$$

Two plane mirrors inclined at angle θ .

1. If m is even: $n = m - 1$

2. If m is odd:

- Object on bisector:
 $n = m - 1$

- Object not on bisector:
 $n = m$

Minimum Mirror
Size

$$H_{\text{mirror}} = \frac{H_{\text{person}}}{2}$$

To see full height of a person.

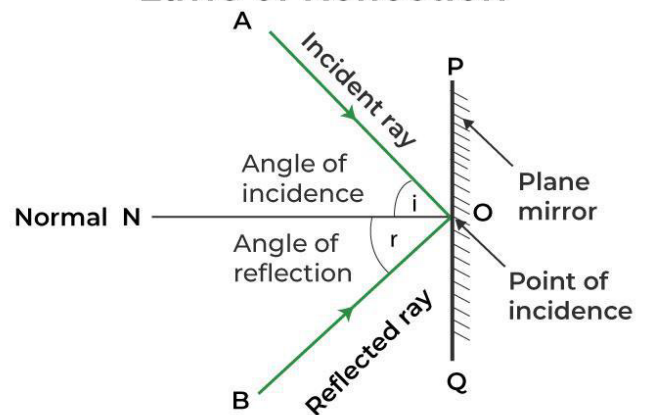
REFLECTION (Spherical Mirrors)

Focal Length &
Radius

$$f = \frac{R}{2}$$

Valid for paraxial rays (small aperture mirrors).

Laws of Reflection



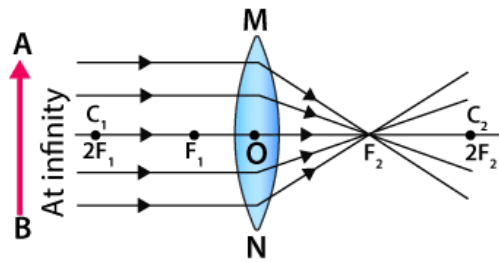
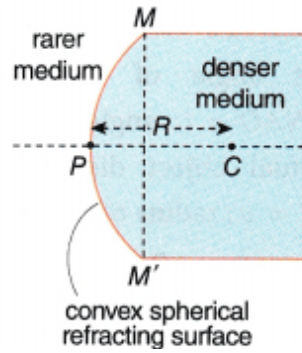
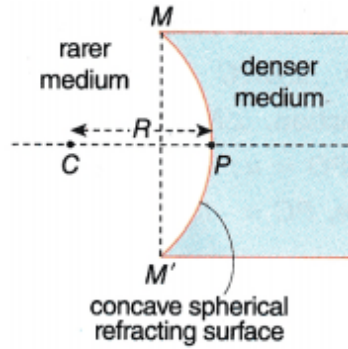
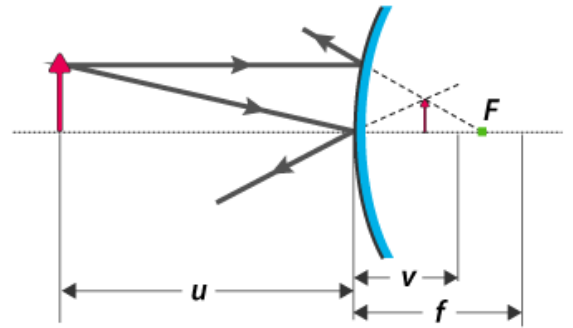
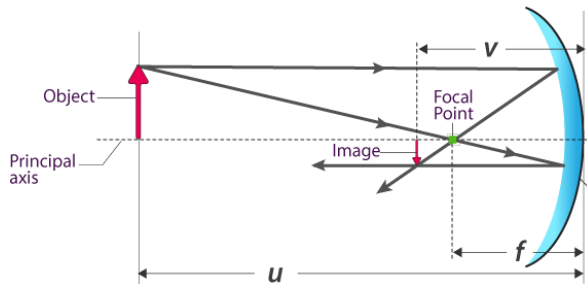
Mirror Formula	$\frac{1}{v} + \frac{1}{u} = \frac{1}{f}$	u, v, f, R must be put with sign convention. Concave $f(-)$, Convex $f(+)$.
Lateral Magnification (m)	$m = -\frac{v}{u} = \frac{h_i}{h_o} = \frac{f}{f-u} = \frac{f-v}{f}$	m is (-) for real/inverted, (+) for virtual/erect.
Longitudinal Magnification	$m_L = -\left(\frac{v}{u}\right)^2 = -m^2$	For small objects placed along the principal axis.
Velocity of Image	$V_{image} = -\left(\frac{v}{u}\right)^2 V_{object}$	Motion along principal axis.
Newton's Formula	$x_1 x_2 = f^2$	x_1, x_2 are distances of object and image from the focus (not pole).

REFRACTION (Plane Surfaces)

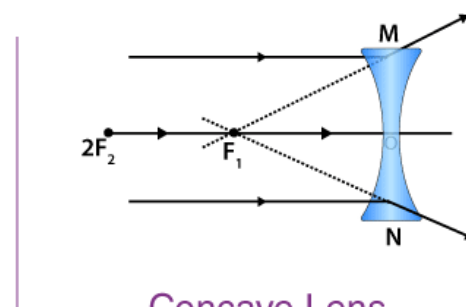
Snell's Law	$\mu_1 \sin i = \mu_2 \sin r$	μ_1 is medium of incidence, μ_2 is medium of refraction.
Refractive Index	$\mu = \frac{c}{v} = \frac{\lambda_{vac}}{\lambda_{med}}$	Absolute refractive index.
Relative Refractive Index	${}^1\mu_2 = \frac{\mu_2}{\mu_1} = \frac{v_1}{v_2} = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2}$	Refractive index of medium 2 w.r.t medium 1.
Apparent Depth (d_{app})	$d_{app} = \frac{d_{real}}{\mu_{rel}}$ where $\mu_{rel} = \frac{\mu_{object}}{\mu_{observer}}$	Observer looking normally into a different medium.
Normal Shift (Δx)	$\Delta x = d\left(1 - \frac{1}{\mu}\right)$	Object in denser medium (μ), observer in air. Shift is in direction of incident ray.
Lateral Shift	$x = \frac{t \sin(i-r)}{\cos r}$	Light passing through a glass slab of thickness t .
Multiple Slabs Apparent Depth	$d_{app} = \frac{t_1}{\mu_1} + \frac{t_2}{\mu_2} + \dots$	Observer in air viewing through composite slabs.
TIR (Total Internal Reflection)		
Critical Angle (C)	$\sin C = \frac{\mu_R}{\mu_D}$ (usually $\frac{1}{\mu}$)	Ray travels from Denser (μ_D) to Rarer (μ_R).

Condition for TIR	$i > C$	Ray must travel from Denser to Rarer medium.
Circle of Illuminance	$R = \frac{h}{\sqrt{\mu^2 - 1}}$	Radius of bright circle on surface for a source at depth h .
REFRACTION (Curved Surfaces)		
Refraction Formula	$\frac{\mu_2}{v} - \frac{\mu_1}{u} = \frac{\mu_2 - \mu_1}{R}$	Single spherical surface. μ_1 (incidence), μ_2 (refraction). Sign convention applies.
Power of Surface	$P = \frac{\mu_2 - \mu_1}{R}$	Single refracting surface.
LENSES		
Lens Maker's Formula	$\frac{1}{f} = (\mu_{rel} - 1) \left(\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} \right)$ $\mu_{rel} = \frac{\mu_{lens}}{\mu_{surr}}$	R_1 is radius of surface facing incident light.
Thin Lens Formula	$\frac{1}{v} - \frac{1}{u} = \frac{1}{f}$	Valid for thin lenses. Sign convention applies.
Magnification (m)	$m = \frac{v}{u} = \frac{h_i}{h_o} = \frac{f}{f+u} = \frac{f-v}{f}$	Convex lens: Real (-), Virtual (+). Concave: Always Virtual (+).
Power of Lens (P)	$P = \frac{1}{f(m)}$ or $\frac{100}{f(cm)}$	Unit is Diopter (D).
Combination of Lenses	$\frac{1}{F_{eq}} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \dots$ $P_{eq} = P_1 + P_2 + \dots$	Lenses in contact.
Lenses Separated by Distance d	$\frac{1}{F} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} - \frac{d}{f_1 f_2}$	Two thin lenses separated by distance d .
Cutting a Lens	1. Vertical Cut: $f' = 2f, P' = P/2$ 2. Horizontal Cut: $f' = f, P' = P$	1. Along principal axis. 2. Perpendicular to principal axis.

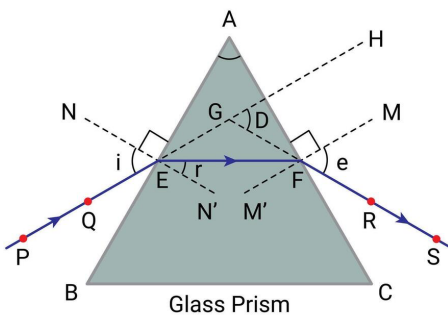
Silvering of Lens	$P_{eq} = 2P_L + P_M$	Behaves like a mirror. P_L is lens power, P_M is mirror power ($P_M = -1/f_m = -2/R$).
	$F_{eq} = -\frac{1}{P_{eq}}$	
Displacement Method	1. $f = \frac{D^2 - x^2}{4D}$ 2. $O = \sqrt{I_1 I_2}$	To find f of convex lens. D = distance between object & screen ($D > 4f$), x = displacement of lens.
PRISM		
Angle of Prism (A)	$A = r_1 + r_2$	r_1, r_2 are angles of refraction inside prism.
Deviation (δ)	$\delta = (i + e) - A$	i = incidence, e = emergence.
Minimum Deviation (δ_m)	$i = e$ and $r_1 = r_2 = A/2$ $\mu = \frac{\sin(\frac{A + \delta_m}{2})}{\sin(\frac{A}{2})}$	Ray passes symmetrically through the prism.
Condition for No Emergence	$A > 2C$	Where C is critical angle. Ray undergoes TIR at 2nd face.
Small Angle Prism	$\delta = A(\mu - 1)$	For thin prisms ($A < 10^\circ$).
Dispersion	$\theta = \delta_V - \delta_R = A(\mu_V - \mu_R)$	Angular dispersion between Violet and Red.
Dispersive Power (ω)	$\omega = \frac{\theta}{\delta_y} = \frac{\mu_V - \mu_R}{\mu_y - 1}$	$\mu_y \approx \frac{\mu_V + \mu_R}{2}$ (Mean refractive index). Independent of A .
Dispersion without Deviation	$\frac{A'}{A} = -\frac{\mu_y - 1}{\mu'_y - 1}$	Combination of two prisms (Crown & Flint) to cancel mean deviation.
Deviation without Dispersion	$\frac{A'}{A} = -\frac{\mu_V - \mu_R}{\mu'_V - \mu'_R}$	Combination to cancel angular dispersion (Achromatic combination).
OPTICAL INSTRUMENTS		
Simple Microscope	1. $m = 1 + \frac{D}{f}$	1. Image at Least Distance of Distinct Vision ($D=25\text{cm}$).



Convex Lens

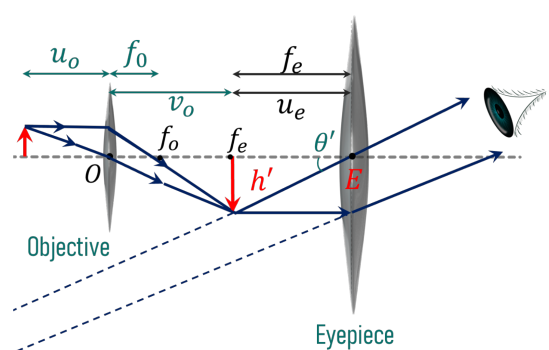
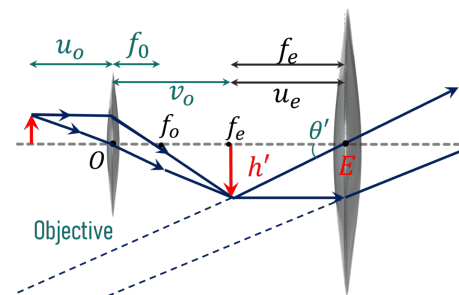


Concave Lens



PE : Incident Ray
 EF : Refracted Ray
 FS : Emergent Ray
 $\angle A$: Angle of the Prism

$\angle i$: Angle of Incidence
 $\angle r$: Angle of Refraction
 $\angle e$: Angle of Emergence
 $\angle D$: Angle of Deviation



$$2. m = \frac{v}{f}$$

2. Image at infinity (Relaxed eye).

Compound Microscope

$$m = m_o \times m_e$$

Total magnification.

Comp. Micro (Specifics)

$$1. m \approx -\frac{L}{f_o} \left(1 + \frac{D}{f_e}\right)$$

1. Image at D . ($L \approx$ tube length).

$$2. m \approx -\frac{L}{f_o} \left(\frac{D}{f_e}\right)$$

2. Image at ∞ .

Astronomical Telescope

$$1. m = -\frac{f_o}{f_e}$$

1. Normal adjustment (Image at ∞). Length $L = f_o + f_e$.

$$2. m = -\frac{f_o}{f_e} \left(1 + \frac{f_e}{D}\right)$$

2. Image at D .

Resolving Power (Microscope)

$$RP = \frac{2\mu \sin \theta}{1.22\lambda}$$

$\mu \sin \theta$ = Numerical Aperture.

Resolving Power (Telescope)

$$RP = \frac{a}{1.22\lambda}$$

a = aperture (diameter) of objective.

DEFECTS OF VISION

Myopia (Near-sightedness)

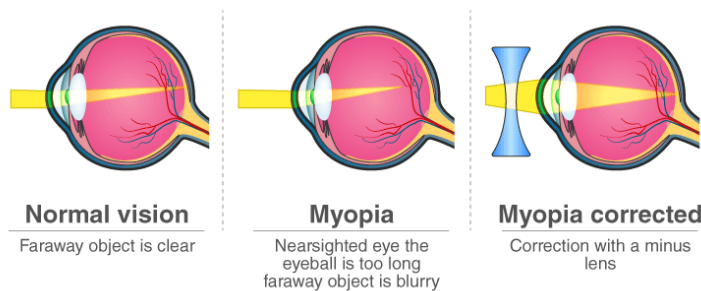
$$f = -x \text{ (concave lens)}$$

Can see near, can't see far. x = far point distance of defected eye.

Hypermetropia

$$P = \frac{1}{0.25} - \frac{1}{y}$$

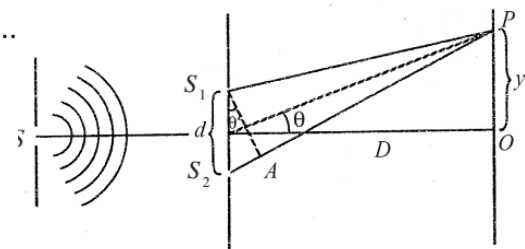
Can see far, can't see near. y = near point of



Wave Optics Formula Sheet

BY AP Sir, Sakaar Classes

Topic / Formula Name	Formula(e)	Conditions / Context
1. Wave Basics & Intensity		
Relation between Path & Phase Difference	$\Delta\phi = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \Delta x$	$\Delta\phi$: Phase difference Δx : Path difference
Resultant Amplitude (A_{res})	$A_{res} = \sqrt{A_1^2 + A_2^2 + 2A_1A_2 \cos \phi}$	Superposition of two waves with amplitudes A_1, A_2 and phase diff ϕ .
Resultant Intensity (I_{res})	$I_{res} = I_1 + I_2 + 2\sqrt{I_1I_2} \cos \phi$	General interference formula.
Intensity Ratio (I_{max}/I_{min})	$\frac{I_{max}}{I_{min}} = \left(\frac{\sqrt{I_1} + \sqrt{I_2}}{\sqrt{I_1} - \sqrt{I_2}} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{A_1 + A_2}{A_1 - A_2} \right)^2$	Used when comparing bright and dark fringe intensities.
Slit Width & Intensity	$\frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{w_1}{w_2} = \frac{A_1^2}{A_2^2}$	Intensity is proportional to slit width (w) and square of amplitude.
2. Interference (YDSE)		
Condition for Maxima (Bright Fringe)	$\Delta x = n\lambda$	Constructive Interference.
	$\Delta\phi = 2n\pi$	$n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
Condition for Minima (Dark Fringe)	$\Delta x = (2n - 1) \frac{\lambda}{2}$	Destructive Interference.
	$\Delta\phi = (2n - 1)\pi$	$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$



Position of n^{th} Bright Fringe (y_n)

$$y_n = \frac{n\lambda D}{d}$$

From central maxima.

$$D \gg d.$$

Position of n^{th} Dark Fringe (y'_n)

$$y'_n = \frac{(2n-1)\lambda D}{2d}$$

From central maxima.

$$D \gg d.$$

Fringe Width (β)

$$\beta = \frac{\lambda D}{d}$$

Distance between two consecutive bright or dark fringes. Independent of n .

Angular Fringe Width (θ)

$$\theta = \frac{\beta}{D} = \frac{\lambda}{d}$$

Measured in radians. Independent of screen distance D .

Optical Path Difference

$$\Delta x_{opt} = \mu x$$

Path traveled in medium of refractive index μ is equivalent to μx in vacuum.

Shift due to Glass Slab

$$\Delta y = \frac{D}{d}(\mu - 1)t$$

When a slab of thickness t and R.I. μ is placed in front of one slit. Pattern shifts towards the slab side.

$$\text{Shift in path } \Delta x = (\mu - 1)t$$

3. Diffraction (Single Slit)

Condition for Minima

$$a \sin \theta = n\lambda$$

a : Slit width.

Note: Formula looks like maxima of YDSE but is for minima here.

Condition for Maxima (Secondary)

$$a \sin \theta = (2n + 1) \frac{\lambda}{2}$$

For secondary maxima ($n = 1, 2, \dots$). Intensity decreases as n increases.

Linear Width of Central Maxima

$$W_0 = \frac{2\lambda D}{a}$$

It is double the width of secondary maxima/fringes.

Angular Width of Central Maxima

$$\theta_0 = \frac{2\lambda}{a}$$

Spread of the central bright spot.

Fresnel Distance (Z_F)

$$Z_F = \frac{a^2}{\lambda}$$

Distance up to which ray optics is a good approximation.

4. Polarization

Malus's Law

$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \theta$$

I_0 : Intensity of polarized light incident on analyzer.

θ : Angle between polarizer and analyzer axes.

Unpolarized light passing through Polarizer

$$I = \frac{I_0}{2}$$

If initial light intensity is I_0 (unpolarized), output is always half.

Brewster's Law

$$\mu = \tan i_p$$

Condition for reflected light to be completely plane polarized.

i_p : Polarizing angle (Brewster angle).

Critical Angle vs Brewster Angle

$$\sin i_c = \frac{1}{\tan i_p}$$

Relating Total Internal Reflection (TIR) and Polarization.

5. Resolving Power

Resolving Power of Microscope

$$R.P. = \frac{2\mu \sin \theta}{1.22\lambda}$$

$\mu \sin \theta$: Numerical Aperture.

Limit of resolution = $1/R.P.$

Resolving Power of Telescope

$$R.P. = \frac{a}{1.22\lambda}$$

a : Diameter of the objective lens aperture.

6. Specific Cases / Tricky Qs

Immersion in Liquid

$$\beta' = \frac{\beta_{air}}{\mu}$$

If the whole YDSE apparatus is immersed in liquid of R.I. μ , fringe width decreases.

Shape of Interference Fringes

Hyperbolic

On a screen placed perpendicular to the line joining sources.

Shape of Diffraction Fringes

Straight lines

For a single slit diffraction pattern.

Missing Wavelengths in YDSE

$$\frac{n_1 \lambda_1 D}{d} = \frac{n_2 \lambda_2 D}{d}$$

Condition for two different wavelengths to coincide at the same position y .

Number of Fringes Shifted (Slab)

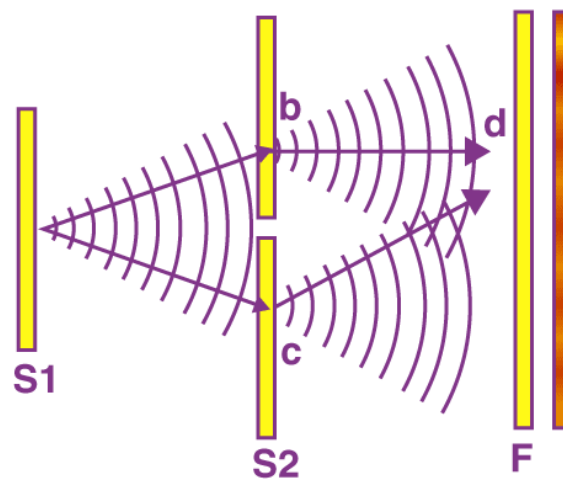
$$N = \frac{(\mu-1)t}{\lambda}$$

Number of fringes that cross the central line when a slab is introduced.

Doppler Effect in Light

$$\frac{\Delta \nu}{\nu} = -\frac{\Delta \lambda}{\lambda} = \frac{v_{radial}}{c}$$

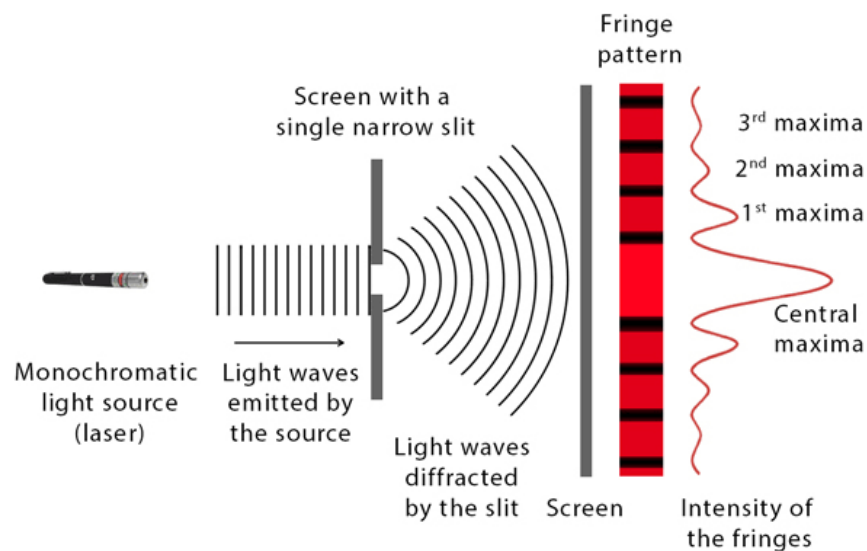
For $v \ll c$.



Young's Double Slits Experiment

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Single-Slit Diffraction



ScienceFacts