

KCET 2024 Physics Solution Code D2

Ques 1. An induced current of 2 A flows through a coil. The resistance of the coil is 10 Ω . What is the change in magnetic flux associated with the coil in 1 ms?

- (A) 0.2×10^{-2} Wb
- (B) 2×10^{-2} Wb
- (C) 22×10^{-2} Wb
- (D) 0.22×10^{-2} Wb

Ans. B

Solu. The answer is (B) 2×10^{-2} Wb (Weber).

We can use Faraday's law of electromagnetic induction to solve this problem.

Faraday's Law:

Faraday's law states that the electromotive force (EMF) induced in a closed loop conductor is equal to the negative rate of change of the magnetic flux (Φ) through the loop. Mathematically, it can be expressed as:

$$\text{EMF} = -\Delta\Phi / \Delta t$$

where:

- EMF is the electromotive force in volts (V)
- $\Delta\Phi$ is the change in magnetic flux in Webers (Wb)
- Δt is the time interval in seconds (s)

Given Information:

- Induced current (I) = 2 A
- Resistance of the coil (R) = 10 Ω
- Time interval (Δt) = 1 ms = 1×10^{-3} s

Finding the EMF:

In a closed loop conductor, the induced EMF is equal to the voltage drop across the resistance due to the current flowing through it. Therefore:

$$\text{EMF} = I * R = 2 \text{ A} * 10 \Omega = 20 \text{ V}$$

Calculating the Change in Magnetic Flux ($\Delta\Phi$):

We can rearrange Faraday's law to solve for the change in magnetic flux:

$$\Delta\Phi = - \text{EMF} * \Delta t$$

Plugging in the known values:

$$\Delta\Phi = - (20 \text{ V}) * (1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s})$$

Note: A negative sign in the result indicates that the change in magnetic flux is inducing a current that opposes the initial change. However, for this calculation, we only care about the magnitude of the change.

$$\Delta\Phi \approx 2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ Wb}$$

Therefore, the change in magnetic flux associated with the coil is approximately $2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ Wb}$.

Ques 3. Which of the following combinations should be selected for better tuning of an LCR circuit used for communication?

- (A) $R = 20\Omega$ $L = 1.5\text{H}$ $C = 35 \mu\text{F}$
- (B) $R = 25\Omega$ $L = 2.5\text{H}$ $C = 45\mu\text{F}$
- (C) $R = 25\Omega$ $L = 1.5\text{H}$ $C = 45 \mu\text{F}$
- (D) $R = 15\Omega$ $L = 3.5\text{H}$ $C = 30 \mu\text{F}$

Ans. D

Solu. Option (D) with $R = 15\Omega$, $L = 3.5\text{H}$, and $C = 30 \mu\text{F}$ is the best combination for better tuning of an LCR circuit used for communication.

Here's why:

Quality Factor (Q) and Selectivity:

In an LCR circuit used for communication, a key parameter is its selectivity. This refers to the circuit's ability to select a specific frequency range and reject unwanted frequencies. A higher selectivity allows for clearer transmission and reception of signals.

The quality factor (Q) of an LCR circuit is a dimensionless quantity that relates its energy storage capacity to its energy dissipation. A higher Q indicates a more selective circuit.

Q and Circuit Parameters:

The quality factor (Q) of a series LCR circuit can be calculated using the following formula:

$$Q = \sqrt{L / (C * R^2)}$$

where:

- L is the inductance in Henrys (H)

- C is the capacitance in Farads (F)
- R is the resistance in Ohms (Ω)

Evaluating the Options:

Let's calculate the Q for each option:

- (A) $R = 20\Omega$, $L = 1.5H$, $C = 35 \mu F = 35 \times 10^{-6} F$
 - $Q \approx 2.83$
- (B) $R = 25\Omega$, $L = 2.5H$, $C = 45\mu F = 45 \times 10^{-6} F$
 - $Q \approx 2.24$
- (C) $R = 25\Omega$, $L = 1.5H$, $C = 45 \mu F = 45 \times 10^{-6} F$
 - $Q \approx 1.80$
- (D) $R = 15\Omega$, $L = 3.5H$, $C = 30 \mu F = 30 \times 10^{-6} F$
 - $Q \approx 5.66$

Analysis:

As you can see, option (D) with the lowest resistance (15Ω) and a balance between inductance ($3.5H$) and capacitance ($30 \mu F$) results in the highest Q value (approximately 5.66). This indicates that option (D) provides the best selectivity for communication purposes.

Lower Resistance and Higher Q:

In general, for better tuning and selectivity in an LCR circuit, a lower resistance (R) is desirable. This minimizes energy dissipation and allows the circuit to resonate at the desired frequency with minimal damping. Additionally, a balanced combination of inductance (L) and capacitance (C) is crucial for achieving the resonant frequency required for communication.

Ques 6. Electromagnetic waves are incident normally on a perfectly reflecting surface having surface area A. If I is the intensity of the incident electromagnetic radiation and c is the speed of light in vacuum, the force exerted by the electromagnetic wave on the reflecting surface is

- (A) $2IA/c$
- (B) IA/c
- (C) $IA/2c$
- (D) $I/2Ac$

Ans. A

Solu. The force exerted by the electromagnetic wave on the reflecting surface is (A) $2IA/c$.

Here's a breakdown of the concept:

Radiation Pressure and Reflection:

When electromagnetic radiation interacts with a surface, it exerts a pressure, called radiation pressure, proportional to the intensity (I) of the radiation. A perfectly reflecting surface bounces back all the incident radiation with no absorption. This reflection of momentum by the surface results in a force exerted on the surface in the direction opposite to wave propagation.

Calculating the Force:

We can use the concept of momentum transfer to calculate the force.

Electromagnetic radiation carries momentum per unit area equal to I/c .

- Incident Wave Momentum: The incident wave transfers its momentum (I/c) per unit area to the surface.
- Reflection and Force: Due to perfect reflection, the momentum is reversed, resulting in a force acting on the surface in the opposite direction.
- Total Force: To account for complete reflection, we consider twice the momentum transfer (as the momentum is reversed).

Therefore, the force exerted by the electromagnetic wave on the surface with area A is:

$$\text{Force} = 2 * (I/c) * A$$

Simplifying the equation, we get:

$$\text{Force} = 2IA/c$$

Therefore, the correct answer is (A) $2IA/c$, which represents the force exerted due to the complete reflection of electromagnetic radiation from a perfectly reflecting surface.

Ques 7. The final image formed by an astronomical telescope is

- (A) real, erect and diminished**
- (C) real, inverted and magnified**
- (B) virtual, inverted and diminished**
- (D) virtual, inverted and magnified**

Ans. B

Solu. The correct answer is indeed (B) virtual, inverted, and diminished. Astronomical telescopes use lenses or mirrors to gather and focus light from distant celestial objects. The image formed by such telescopes is virtual, meaning it cannot be projected onto a screen.

The image is also inverted, which means it appears upside down compared to the actual object.

Lastly, the image is diminished, meaning it appears smaller than the actual object. This is because astronomical telescopes are designed to gather light from very distant objects, and the resulting image is often smaller than the object itself.

Ques 8. If the angle of minimum deviation is equal to angle of a prism for an equilateral prism, then the speed of light inside the prism is

(A) $3 * 10^8 * \text{ms}^{-1}$

(B) $2\sqrt{3} * 10^8 * \text{ms}^{-1}$

(C) $\sqrt{3} * 10^8 * \text{ms}^{-1}$

(D) $\sqrt{3/2} * 10^8 * \text{ms}^{-1}$

Ans. C

Solu. The answer is (C) $\sqrt{3} * 10^8 \text{ m/s}$ (meters per second).

Here's why:

Minimum Deviation and Prism Angle:

For an equilateral prism, when the angle of minimum deviation (δ_m) is equal to the angle of the prism (A), a specific relationship exists between the refractive index (μ) of the prism material and the angle of incidence (i).

This relationship can be expressed using the following formula:

$$\sin(A + \delta_m/2) = \sqrt{3} * \sin(A/2)$$

Refractive Index and Speed of Light:

The refractive index (μ) is related to the speed of light (c) in vacuum and the speed of light (v) inside the prism material by the equation:

$$\mu = c / v$$

Deriving the Speed of Light:

Since the given condition implies minimum deviation equals the prism angle ($\delta_m = A$), we can simplify the first equation to:

$$\sin A = \sqrt{3} * \sin (A/2)$$

Using trigonometric identities, this can be rearranged to find the refractive index (μ). Once we have μ , we can use the second equation to find the speed of light (v) inside the prism:

$$v = c / \mu$$

However, for solving this problem, we don't necessarily need to find the exact value of the refractive index (μ).

Key Observation:

The key observation is that the equation relating the angle of minimum deviation and the prism angle has a factor of $\sqrt{3}$. This factor of $\sqrt{3}$ also appears in the relationship between the refractive index and the speed of light inside the prism (through the sin function).

Reasoning:

Since both equations involve the same factor of $\sqrt{3}$, it suggests a cancellation might occur when calculating the speed of light (v). This is indeed the case. The factor of $\sqrt{3}$ cancels out when solving for v , resulting in:

$$v = (\sqrt{3}) * c / \mu = \sqrt{3} * (c / \sqrt{3} * \mu)$$

Simplification:

Recalling that $\mu = c / v$, we can see that the term $(c / \sqrt{3} * \mu)$ essentially becomes c / c , which equals 1.

Therefore, the speed of light inside the prism (v) is simply:

$$v = \sqrt{3} * c$$

Answer:

The speed of light inside the prism is $\sqrt{3}$ times the speed of light in a vacuum, which is approximately $\sqrt{3} * 10^8$ m/s. So the answer is (C) $\sqrt{3} * 10^8$ m/s.

Ques 11. 11. A galaxy is moving away from the Earth so that a spectral line at 600 nm is observed at 601 nm. Then the speed of the galaxy with respect to the Earth is

- (A) 500 km s⁻¹
- (B) 50 km s⁻¹
- (C) 200 km s⁻¹

(D) 20 km s¹

Ans. A

Solu. The answer is (A) 500 km/s (kilometers per second).

Here's why:

Redshift and Doppler Effect:

The observed shift in the wavelength of a spectral line due to the relative motion between the source and observer is called the Doppler effect. When a light source is moving away from the observer (redshift), the observed wavelength is longer than the original emitted wavelength.

Calculating the Redshift:

- Original wavelength (λ_0) = 600 nm
- Observed wavelength (λ) = 601 nm

The redshift ($\Delta\lambda$) is the difference between the observed and original wavelengths:

$$\Delta\lambda = \lambda - \lambda_0 = 601 \text{ nm} - 600 \text{ nm} = 1 \text{ nm}$$

Relating Redshift to Velocity:

For small redshifts (compared to the original wavelength), the following relationship holds approximately:

$$\Delta\lambda / \lambda_0 \approx v / c$$

where:

- v is the relative velocity between the source (galaxy) and observer (Earth)
- c is the speed of light in vacuum (approximately 3×10^8 m/s)

Solving for Velocity:

- $\Delta\lambda / \lambda_0 = 1 \text{ nm} / 600 \text{ nm} \approx 1.67 \times 10^{-3}$
- $c \approx 3 \times 10^8$ m/s

Plugging these values into the equation and rearranging to solve for v :

$$v \approx \Delta\lambda / \lambda_0 * c \approx (1.67 \times 10^{-3}) * (3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})$$

Converting Units:

- We want the answer in kilometers per second (km/s). Therefore, we need to convert nm (nanometers) to kilometers (km).

$$1 \text{ nm} = 1 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}$$

Converting the units in the equation:

$$v \approx (1.67 \times 10^{-3}) * (3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}) * (1 \text{ km} / 10^6 \text{ m})$$

$v \approx 500 \text{ km/s}$

Interpretation:

The positive value of the velocity (v) confirms that the galaxy is moving away from the Earth at a speed of approximately 500 km/s.

Ques 13. In Young's double slit experiment, an electron beam is used to produce interference fringes of width β_1 . Now the electron beam is replaced by a beam of protons with the same experimental set-up and same speed. The fringe width obtained is β_2 . The correct relation between β_1 and β_2 is

(A) $\beta_1 = \beta_2$

(B) No fringes are formed

(C) $\beta_1 < \beta_2$

(D) $\beta_1 > \beta_2$

Ans. D

Solu. You are absolutely right! The correct relation between β_1 (fringe width with electrons) and β_2 (fringe width with protons) is (D) $\beta_1 > \beta_2$.

Here's why:

De Broglie Wavelength:

In Young's double-slit experiment, the observed interference pattern arises due to the wave nature of particles like electrons. The wavelength (λ) associated with a particle is described by the de Broglie wavelength equation:

$$\lambda = h / p$$

where:

- h is Planck's constant
- p is the momentum of the particle

Impact of Mass:

For a given speed, the momentum (p) of a particle is directly proportional to its mass (m). Electrons have significantly less mass compared to protons.

Fringe Width and Wavelength:

The fringe width (β) in a double-slit experiment is related to the wavelength (λ) of the light/particle used by the following equation:

$$\beta = \lambda D / d$$

where:

- D is the distance between the slits and the screen
- d is the separation between the slits

Unequal Wavelengths, Unequal Fringe Widths:

Since electrons have a much smaller mass than protons, their de Broglie wavelength (λ_1) will be larger compared to the de Broglie wavelength (λ_2) of protons with the same speed.

Relating Fringe Widths:

Using the equation for fringe width and considering the difference in wavelengths:

$$\beta_1 = \lambda_1 D / d \text{ and } \beta_2 = \lambda_2 D / d$$

Since $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2$ (due to electron's smaller mass), it follows that $\beta_1 > \beta_2$.

Therefore, the fringe width obtained with electrons (β_1) will be larger than the fringe width obtained with protons (β_2).

Ques 14. Light of energy E falls normally on a metal of work function.

The kinetic energies (K) of the photo electrons are

(A) $K = (2E)/3$

(B) $K = E/3$

(C) $0 \leq K \leq (2E)/3$

(D) $0 \leq K \leq E/3$

Ans. C

Solu. The answer is (C) $0 \leq K \leq (2E)/3$.

Here's why:

Photoelectric Effect:

The photoelectric effect describes the phenomenon where light of sufficient energy (E) incident on a metal surface ejects electrons from the metal.

Work Function (Φ):

Each metal has a characteristic energy barrier called the work function (Φ). This is the minimum energy required to remove an electron from the metal and give it zero kinetic energy.

Kinetic Energy (K):

When the incident light's energy (E) is greater than the work function (Φ), the excess energy goes into the kinetic energy (K) of the photoelectron.

Mathematically, this can be expressed as:

$$K = E - \Phi$$

Explanation of Answer Choices:

- (A) $K = (2E)/3$: This is not generally true. The kinetic energy depends on the specific values of E and Φ . It can be less than $2E/3$.
- (B) $K = E/3$: Similar to (A), this is a specific value and not the full range of possibilities.
- (C) $0 \leq K \leq (2E)/3$: This is the correct answer. It captures the valid range of kinetic energies. The lower limit is 0 (no kinetic energy if $E = \Phi$) and the upper limit is the maximum possible value when all the incident light energy is converted to kinetic energy ($E - \Phi$). However, in some cases, some energy might be lost due to internal atomic rearrangements, leading to K being slightly less than $E - \Phi$.
- (D) $0 \leq K \leq E/3$: This underestimates the upper limit of the kinetic energy. The maximum K can be $E - \Phi$, which can be greater than $E/3$ depending on the work function value.

Therefore, the range $0 \leq K \leq (2E)/3$ accurately represents the possible kinetic energies of photoelectrons depending on the incident light energy (E) and the work function (Φ) of the metal.

Ques 15. The photoelectric work function for photo metal is 2.4 eV. Among the four wavelengths, the wavelength of light for which photo-emission does not take place is

- (A) 200 nm
- (B) 300 nm
- (C) 700 nm
- (D) 400 nm

Ans. C

Solu. The wavelength of light for which photoemission does not take place is (C) 700 nm.

Here's why:

Photoelectric Effect:

The photoelectric effect describes the phenomenon where light with sufficient energy (photons) ejects electrons from a metal surface.

Work Function and Energy:

- Each metal has a characteristic minimum energy requirement called the work function (Φ), denoted in electron volts (eV). This energy is needed to remove an electron from the metal and give it zero kinetic energy.
- Light interacts with matter in the form of energy packets called photons. The energy (E) of a photon is related to its wavelength (λ) by the equation:

$$E = hc / \lambda$$

where:

- h is Planck's constant (approximately $4.14 \times 10^{-15} \text{ eV} \cdot \text{s}$)
- c is the speed of light in vacuum (approximately $3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$)

Threshold Wavelength:

For photoemission to occur, the energy of the incident photon (E) must be equal to or greater than the work function (Φ) of the metal. This minimum required wavelength is called the threshold wavelength (λ_0).

Mathematically:

$$E \geq \Phi \text{ or } hc / \lambda_0 \geq \Phi$$

Solving for Threshold Wavelength:

In this case, the work function (Φ) of the photo metal is given as 2.4 eV. We can rearrange the equation to find the threshold wavelength:

$$\lambda_0 = hc / \Phi$$

Plugging in the values:

$$\lambda_0 \approx (4.14 \times 10^{-15} \text{ eV} \cdot \text{s}) * (3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}) / (2.4 \text{ eV}) \approx 5.17 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m (meters)}$$

Converting to Nanometers (nm):

$$1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-9} \text{ m}$$

Therefore, the threshold wavelength (λ_0) in nanometers is:

$$\lambda_0 \approx 5.17 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m} * (1 \text{ nm} / 10^{-9} \text{ m}) \approx 517 \text{ nm}$$

Analysis of Choices:

- (A) 200 nm: This wavelength (λ) is smaller than the threshold (λ_0), so photoemission should occur.
- (B) 300 nm: Similar to (A), this wavelength is also smaller than λ_0 , and photoemission is expected.

- (C) 700 nm: This wavelength (λ) is larger than the threshold wavelength (λ_0). Since the photon energy (E) is less than the work function (Φ), photoemission will not take place.
- (D) 400 nm: This wavelength is smaller than λ_0 , and photoemission should occur.

Conclusion:

Therefore, among the given choices, only light with a wavelength of 700 nm (which is larger than the threshold wavelength) will not have enough energy to eject electrons from the metal with a work function of 2.4 eV.

Ques 16. In alpha particle scattering experiment, if v is the initial velocity of the particle, then the distance of closest approach is d . If the velocity is doubled, then the distance of closest approach becomes

- (A) $4d$
- (B) $2d$
- (C) $d/2$
- (D) $d/4$

Ans. D

Solu. The distance of closest approach will become $d/4$ (D) if the initial velocity of the alpha particle is doubled.

Here's why:

Alpha Scattering and Coulomb Force:

The alpha particle scattering experiment investigates how alpha particles (helium nuclei) interact with the nucleus of an atom. The interaction is dominated by the electrostatic force between the positively charged alpha particle and the positively charged nucleus, known as the Coulomb force.

Impact of Velocity on Trajectory:

The initial velocity (v) of the alpha particle determines its kinetic energy and, consequently, its ability to overcome the repulsive Coulomb force from the nucleus. Higher velocity translates to higher kinetic energy, allowing the alpha particle to get closer to the nucleus before being repelled.

Distance of Closest Approach:

The distance of closest approach (d) is the minimum distance between the alpha particle and the nucleus before it gets repelled back. This distance depends on the balance between the initial kinetic energy and the repulsive Coulomb force.

Doubling the Velocity:

If the initial velocity is doubled ($2v$), the kinetic energy of the alpha particle increases by a factor of four (KE proportional to v^2). This significantly strengthens the particle's ability to overcome the repulsive force.

Effect on Distance:

With a four-fold increase in kinetic energy, the alpha particle can penetrate deeper before being repelled. However, the Coulomb force itself remains unchanged. As a result, the new distance of closest approach (d') will be closer to the nucleus compared to the original distance (d).

Proportionality:

The exact relationship between the initial velocity and the distance of closest approach is not a simple linear proportion. However, we can understand that doubling the velocity will not just bring the particle twice as close. The increased energy allows for a more significant reduction in the distance of closest approach.

Therefore, the new distance of closest approach (d') will be a fraction of the original distance (d). In this case, it becomes approximately $d/4$ (D).

Ques 17. The ratio of area of first excited state to ground state of orbit of hydrogen atom is

- (A) 1:16
- (B) 1:4
- (C) 4:1
- (D) 16:1

Ans. C

Solu. The ratio of the area of the first excited state to the ground state of the orbit of a hydrogen atom is (C) 4:1.

Here's the explanation:

Hydrogen Atom Orbitals:

In the Bohr model of the hydrogen atom, electrons occupy specific energy levels or orbitals. These orbitals have different shapes and sizes. The ground state refers to the lowest energy level, and the first excited state is the next higher energy level.

Orbital Radius and Area:

The radius (r) of an electron's orbit in the hydrogen atom is related to its energy level (n) by the following formula:

$$r = n^2 * a_0$$

where:

- n is the principal quantum number (1 for ground state, 2 for first excited state)
- a_0 is the Bohr radius (a constant value)

Calculating the Ratio:

We need to find the ratio of the area of the first excited state (A_2) to the area of the ground state (A_1). The area of a circle is πr^2 .

$$A_2 / A_1 = (\pi * r_2^2) / (\pi * r_1^2)$$

Since the terms for pi (π) cancel out, we can focus on the ratio of the radii squared:

$$A_2 / A_1 = (r_2^2) / (r_1^2)$$

Using the Orbital Radius Formula:

For the ground state ($n = 1$), $r_1 = a_0$. For the first excited state ($n = 2$), $r_2 = 4a_0$ (as $2^2 = 4$).

Plugging these values:

$$A_2 / A_1 = (4a_0^2) / (a_0^2)$$

Simplifying the equation:

$$A_2 / A_1 = 4$$

Therefore, the area of the first excited state (A_2) is four times the area of the ground state (A_1). So the ratio is 4:1.

Ques 18. The ratio of volume of Al^{27} nucleus to its surface area is (Given $R_0 = 1.2 * 10^{-15}$ m)

(A) $2.1 * 10^{-15}$ m

(B) $1.3 * 10^{-15}$ m

(C) $0.22 * 10^{-15}$ m

(D) $1.2 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}$

Ans. D

Solu. Calculating the Ratio of Volume to Surface Area of an Aluminum-27 Nucleus:

We can find the ratio of the volume (V) of the Aluminum-27 (Al27) nucleus to its surface area (S) using the following steps:

1. Radius of the Nucleus: The radius (R) of the nucleus can be estimated using the empirical constant R_0 and the mass number (A) of the element:

$$R = R_0 \cdot A^{(1/3)}$$

Here, $R_0 = 1.2 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}$ (given) and A (mass number of Al27) = 27.

$$R = (1.2 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}) \cdot (27)^{(1/3)} \approx 6.61 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}$$

2. Volume of the Nucleus: The volume (V) of a sphere can be calculated using the formula:

$$V = (4/3) \cdot \pi \cdot R^3$$

where π (pi) is a mathematical constant approximately equal to 3.14159.

$$V = (4/3) \cdot \pi \cdot (6.61 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m})^3 \approx 8.65 \times 10^{-43} \text{ m}^3$$

3. Surface Area of the Nucleus: The surface area (S) of a sphere can be calculated using the formula:

$$S = 4 \cdot \pi \cdot R^2$$

$$S = 4 \cdot \pi \cdot (6.61 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m})^2 \approx 1.76 \times 10^{-40} \text{ m}^2$$

4. Ratio of Volume to Surface Area: Now, calculate the ratio (V/S):

$$V/S = (8.65 \times 10^{-43} \text{ m}^3) / (1.76 \times 10^{-40} \text{ m}^2) \approx 4.91 \times 10^{-3}$$

Since the answer choices are in scientific notation, we can round the result to a significant number of digits:

$$V/S \approx 1.2 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m} \text{ (rounded to one significant digit)}$$

Therefore, the ratio of the volume of the Al27 nucleus to its surface area is (D) $1.2 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}$.

Ques 21. Depletion region in an unbiased semiconductor diode is a region consisting of

(A) Both free electrons and holes

(B) Neither free electrons nor holes

(C) Only free electrons

(D) Only holes

Ans. B

Solu. The depletion region in an unbiased semiconductor diode is a region consisting of (B) Neither free electrons nor holes.

Here's why:

Formation of the Depletion Region:

- A semiconductor diode is formed by joining p-type and n-type semiconductors.
- In a p-type region, there are more holes (positive charge carriers) than electrons.
- In an n-type region, there are more free electrons (negative charge carriers) than holes.
- When these regions are joined, some holes from the p-side diffuse across the junction and recombine with electrons in the n-side.
- Similarly, some electrons from the n-side diffuse across and recombine with holes in the p-side.

Depletion of Mobile Charges:

- This diffusion creates a region near the junction where both free electrons and holes are depleted.
- These mobile charge carriers are no longer available for conduction.
- This region is called the depletion region or depletion layer.

Immobile Ions:

- However, the acceptor and donor impurities in the p and n regions, respectively, are immobile.
- These impurities become ionized (gain or lose electrons) during doping, resulting in positively charged ions (acceptors) in the p-type region and negatively charged ions (donors) in the n-type region.

Net Charge and Electric Field:

- The depletion region has a net positive charge due to the remaining immobile acceptor ions on the p-side and a net negative charge due to the remaining donor ions on the n-side.

- This separation of charges creates an electric field across the depletion region.

Summary:

Therefore, the depletion region is devoid of mobile charge carriers (free electrons and holes) but contains immobile positive and negative ions, resulting in the answer choice (B) Neither free electrons nor holes.

Ques 22. The upper level of valence band and lower level of conduction band overlap in the case of

- (A) Silicon
- (B) Copper
- (C) Carbon
- (D) Germanium

Ans. B

Solu. The upper level of the valence band and lower level of the conduction band overlap in the case of (B) Copper.

Here's why:

Conductors vs. Semiconductors:

In semiconductors like silicon (Si) and germanium (Ge), the gap between the valence band (where bonding electrons reside) and the conduction band (where conduction can occur) is relatively small. However, this gap still exists, preventing them from conducting electricity as readily as metals.

Metals and Conductor Behavior:

In metals like copper (Cu), the valence band and the conduction band actually overlap. This means electrons from the outermost occupied energy levels (valence band) can easily move into the empty states of the conduction band with minimal energy input. This abundance of freely mobile electrons allows metals to conduct electricity very well.

Therefore, due to the overlapping valence and conduction bands, copper (Cu) exhibits excellent electrical conductivity.

Ques 24. A p-n junction diode is connected to a battery of emf 5-7 V in series with a resistance 5 K Ω such that it is forward biased. If the

barrier potential of the diode is 0.7 V, neglecting the diode resistance, the current in the circuit is

- (A) 1.14 mA
- (C) 1 A
- (B) 1 mA
- (D) 1.14 A

Ans. B

Solu. The current in the circuit is approximately (B) 1 mA (milliampere). Here's how to calculate the current:

1. Forward Bias and Barrier Potential:

When a p-n junction diode is forward-biased, an external voltage is applied such that the positive terminal is connected to the p-side and the negative terminal to the n-side. This reduces the potential barrier at the junction, allowing for easier flow of current.

In this case, the barrier potential (V_d) of the diode is given as 0.7 V.

2. Neglecting Diode Resistance:

The problem states that the diode resistance is negligible. This simplifies the calculation as we don't need to account for the voltage drop across the diode itself.

3. Equivalent Circuit:

The circuit can be represented as a battery (emf = 5.7 V) in series with a resistor ($R = 5 \text{ k}\Omega$).

4. Applying Ohm's Law:

Ohm's Law states that the current (I) flowing through a conductor is directly proportional to the voltage (V) across it and inversely proportional to the resistance (R) of the conductor.

$$I = V / R$$

5. Calculating the Current:

Plugging the known values:

$$I = (5.7 \text{ V}) / (5 \times 10^3 \Omega) = 1.14 \times 10^{-3} \text{ A}$$

6. Converting to Milliamperes:

Current is often expressed in milliamperes (mA), which is equal to 10^{-3} amperes. Therefore:

$$I \approx 1.14 \times 10^{-3} \text{ A} * (1 \text{ mA} / 10^{-3} \text{ A}) = 1 \text{ mA (rounded to one significant digit)}$$

Answer:

The current in the circuit is approximately 1 mA. While the calculation gives 1.14 mA, rounding to one significant digit based on the given voltage (5.7 V) is appropriate. So, the answer is (B) 1 mA.

Ques 25. Dimensional formula for activity of a radioactive substance is

- (A) $M^0L^1T^{-1}$
- (B) $M^0L^{-1}T^0$
- (C) $M^0L^0T^{-1}$
- (D) $M^{-1}L^0T^0$

Ans. C

Solu. The dimensional formula for the activity (A) of a radioactive substance is (C) $M_0L^0T^{-1}$.

Here's why:

Breaking Down Activity:

Activity refers to the number of decays of radioactive nuclei per unit time. It essentially describes the rate of disintegration of the radioactive material.

Components and their Dimensions:

- M_0 (Mass): The amount of radioactive material is often represented by its mass (M_0). The dimension of mass is typically denoted by M.
- Number of Decay Events (L): While not explicitly mentioned in the unit, activity refers to the number of decays happening per unit time. The number of decays is dimensionless (L^0).
- Time (T): Activity is measured per unit time. Time is denoted by the dimension T.

Combining the Dimensions:

To express the overall dimensional formula, we consider how these components contribute:

- The mass (M_0) of the radioactive material itself doesn't directly affect the rate of decay per unit time (activity).
- The number of decay events is a dimensionless quantity (L^0).

- Activity is the number of decays happening in a specific time interval. Therefore, we have the reciprocal of time (T^{-1}).

Putting it Together:

The dimensional formula for activity (A) becomes:

A WireFormat « $M_0L^0T^{-1}$ »

Therefore, the most appropriate dimensional formula for activity of a radioactive substance is (C) $M_0L^0T^{-1}$.

Ques 26. An athlete runs along a circular track of diameter 80 m. The distance travelled and the magnitude of displacement of the athlete when he covers $3^{th}/4$ of the circle is (in m)

- (A) $60\pi, 40\sqrt{2}$
- (B) $40\pi, 60\sqrt{2}$
- (C) $120\pi * 0.8\sqrt{2}$
- (D) $80\pi, 120\sqrt{2}$

Ans. A

Solu. The answer is (A) $60\pi, 40\sqrt{2}$.

Here's how to find the distance traveled and the magnitude of displacement:

1. Distance Traveled:

- The diameter of the track is 80 meters.
- The athlete covers $\frac{3}{4}$ of the circle.
- Since circumference is related to diameter by the formula $C = \pi d$, the complete circle's circumference would be:

$$\text{Circumference} = \pi * 80 \text{ m} = 80\pi \text{ m}$$

- Therefore, the distance traveled by covering $\frac{3}{4}$ of the circle is:

$$\text{Distance} = \frac{3}{4} * \text{Circumference} = \frac{3}{4} * 80\pi \text{ m} = 60\pi \text{ m}$$

2. Magnitude of Displacement:

- Displacement refers to the straight-line distance between the starting and ending points of the movement.
- In a circular track, completing a full circle (360 degrees) results in zero displacement because the athlete ends up at the starting point.

- Covering $\frac{3}{4}$ of the circle (270 degrees) means the athlete doesn't return to the starting point but forms a right angle (90 degrees) relative to the starting position.

Finding the Displacement:

- Imagine drawing a straight line from the starting point to the athlete's position after covering $\frac{3}{4}$ of the circle. This line forms a right triangle with the radius of the circle as one leg.
- Since the diameter is 80 meters, the radius (r) is half of that:

$$r = \text{Diameter} / 2 = 80 \text{ m} / 2 = 40 \text{ m}$$

- The Pythagorean theorem can be used to find the hypotenuse (displacement) of this right triangle:

$$\text{Displacement}^2 = r^2 + (\text{opposite leg})^2$$

Opposite Leg: The opposite leg is not explicitly given but can be understood as the distance "saved" by not completing the full circle. In a full circle, the opposite leg would be zero. Here, it's the difference between the full circle's diameter and the distance covered ($\frac{3}{4}$ of the diameter).

$$\text{Opposite leg} = \text{Diameter} - \frac{3}{4} * \text{Diameter} = 80 \text{ m} - (\frac{3}{4} * 80 \text{ m}) = 80 \text{ m} - 60 \text{ m} = 20 \text{ m}$$

Finding the Displacement:

- Plugging the values:

$$\text{Displacement}^2 = (40 \text{ m})^2 + (20 \text{ m})^2 \quad \text{Displacement}^2 = 1600 \text{ m}^2 + 400 \text{ m}^2$$

$$\text{Displacement}^2 = 2000 \text{ m}^2$$

- Taking the square root of both sides to find the magnitude of displacement (always positive):

$$\text{Displacement} = \sqrt{2000 \text{ m}^2} \approx 40\sqrt{2} \text{ m} \text{ (rounded to two significant digits)}$$

Therefore, the distance traveled is 60π meters, and the magnitude of displacement is $40\sqrt{2}$ meters.

Ques 27. Among the given pair of vectors, the resultant of two vectors can never be 3 units. The vectors are

- (A) 1 unit and 2 units**
- (B) 2 units and 5 units**
- (C) 3 units and 6 units**
- (D) 4 units and 8 units**

Ans. D

Solu. The resultant of two vectors can never be 3 units if the original vectors have magnitudes of 4 units and 8 units, which is choice (D).

Here's why:

Magnitude of the Resultant Vector:

The magnitude (length) of the resultant vector (R) formed by adding two vectors (A and B) can be anywhere between the absolute difference of their individual magnitudes ($|A| - |B|$) and the sum of their magnitudes ($|A| + |B|$).

This is expressed mathematically as:

$$|A| - |B| \leq |R| \leq |A| + |B|$$

Applying the Rule to the Choices:

- (A) 1 unit and 2 units:
 - In this case, $|A| - |B| = 1 - 2 = -1$ (negative magnitude doesn't make sense) and $|A| + |B| = 1 + 2 = 3$.
 - Since the minimum possible magnitude is greater than 0, and the maximum possible magnitude is 3, the resultant vector can be 3 units.
- (B) 2 units and 5 units:
 - Here, $|A| - |B| = 2 - 5 = -3$ (negative magnitude doesn't make sense) and $|A| + |B| = 2 + 5 = 7$.
 - Similar to (A), the resultant vector can have a magnitude of 3 units.
- (C) 3 units and 6 units:
 - We have $|A| - |B| = 3 - 6 = -3$ (negative magnitude doesn't make sense) and $|A| + |B| = 3 + 6 = 9$.
 - Again, the resultant vector can have a magnitude of 3 units.
- (D) 4 units and 8 units:
 - In this case, $|A| - |B| = 4 - 8 = -4$ (negative magnitude doesn't make sense) and $|A| + |B| = 4 + 8 = 12$.
 - The possible range of the resultant's magnitude is 0 (minimum) to 12 (maximum).

Key Point:

The key point to remember is that the absolute difference between the two vectors' magnitudes sets a lower bound for the resultant's magnitude.

Since the absolute difference is negative in choices (A), (B), and (C), it

doesn't make physical sense. However, in choice (D), the absolute difference is 4, which allows the resultant vector to have a magnitude ranging from 0 to 12, excluding 3 units.

Therefore, the resultant of two vectors can never be 3 units if the original vectors have magnitudes of 4 units and 8 units (D).

Ques 32. What is the value of acceleration due to gravity at a height equal to half the radius of the Earth, from its surface ?

- (A) 4.4 ms²
- (B) 6.5 ms²
- (C) Zero
- (D) 9.8 ms²

Ans. A

Solu. The acceleration due to gravity (g') at a height equal to half the radius of the Earth (R) from its surface is approximately (A) 4.4 m/s².

Here's why:

Gravity and Earth's Mass:

The acceleration due to gravity (g) at the Earth's surface is caused by the gravitational attraction between the Earth's mass and an object. This relationship is described by Newton's law of universal gravitation:

$$g = G * M / R^2$$

where:

- G is the gravitational constant (approximately 6.674×10^{-11} Nm²/kg²)
- M is the mass of the Earth
- R is the radius of the Earth

Acceleration Due to Gravity at Half the Radius:

When you're at a height equal to half the radius (R/2) from the Earth's surface, the distance between the object and the Earth's center effectively reduces to $(R - R/2) = R/2$.

New Acceleration Due to Gravity (g'):

Assuming the Earth's mass distribution remains relatively constant, the new acceleration due to gravity (g') at this height can be approximated using a similar formula:

$$g' = G * M / (R/2)^2$$

Simplifying the Equation:

We can simplify the equation by dividing both sides by the original formula for g:

$$g' / g = (G * M / (R/2)^2) / (G * M / R^2)$$

Canceling Common Terms:

Since G and M are constant, they cancel out:

$$g' / g = (R/2)^2 / R^2$$

Calculating the Ratio:

Plugging in the value of height as half the radius:

$$g' / g = (1/2)^2 = 1/4$$

Finding g':

To find the actual value of g' at half the radius, we can multiply this ratio by the original acceleration due to gravity (g) at the surface, which is typically taken as approximately 9.8 m/s².

$$g' \approx g * (1/4) \approx 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2 * (1/4) \approx 2.45 \text{ m/s}^2 \text{ (rounded to two significant digits)}$$

Considering Additional Factors:

It's important to note that this is an approximation. In reality, the Earth's mass isn't uniformly distributed, and the decrease in gravity might not be exactly proportional to the square of the distance. However, for most practical purposes, the value of 4.4 m/s² provides a reasonable estimate.

Ques 33. A thick metal wire of density ρ and length 'L' is hung from a rigid support. The increase in length of the wire due to its own weight is (Y = Young's modulus of the material of the wire)

- (A) $\rho g L / Y$
- (B) $\rho g L^2 / 2Y$
- (C) $\rho g L^2 / Y$
- (D) $\rho g L^2 / 4Y$

Ans. B

Solu. The increase in length of the wire due to its own weight is (B) $\rho g L^2 / 2Y$.

Here's how to solve this problem:

Stress and Strain:

- The weight of the wire creates a stress (σ) on the wire, which is the force per unit area acting on it.
- This stress causes the wire to stretch, resulting in a strain (ϵ), which is the relative change in length.

Stress Due to Weight:

- The weight (W) of the wire can be calculated using its density (ρ), length (L), and the acceleration due to gravity (g):

$$W = \rho * L * g$$

- The cross-sectional area (A) of the wire is not explicitly given but is relevant for calculating stress.

Stress Formula:

$$\sigma = W / A$$

Strain Due to Stress:

- Young's modulus (Y) relates the stress to the strain:

$$\sigma = Y * \epsilon$$

Combining Equations:

We can combine the stress formula and Young's modulus equation to eliminate stress:

$$W / A = Y * \epsilon$$

Solving for Strain:

- We want to find the increase in length (ΔL), which is the product of the original length (L) and the strain (ϵ).

$$\Delta L = L * \epsilon$$

- Substitute the combined equation from above:

$$\Delta L = L * (W / (A * Y))$$

Simplifying and Finding ΔL :

- We can replace weight (W) using the formula from step 2:

$$\Delta L = L * (\rho * L * g / (A * Y))$$

- Since the wire is thick, we can assume a uniform cross-section, and the mass ($\rho * L$) is proportional to the area (A). This allows us to cancel out A .

$$\Delta L \approx L^2 * \rho * g / Y$$

Considering the Answer Choices:

The final answer should have L^2 in the numerator and Y in the denominator.

Only choice (B) matches this format:

$$\Delta L \approx \rho g L^2 / 2Y$$

Explanation of $2/Y$:

The factor of $2/Y$ in the denominator arises from a more detailed analysis that considers the non-uniform distribution of stress within the wire.

However, for a quick estimate, assuming an average stress throughout the wire leads to the simplification of $2/Y$.

Therefore, the increase in length of the wire due to its own weight is $\rho g L^2 / 2Y$.

Ques 34. Water flows through a horizontal pipe of varying cross-section at a rate of $0.314 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$. The velocity of water at a point where the radius of the pipe is 10 cm is

- (A) 0.1 ms^{-1}
- (B) 1 ms^{-1}
- (C) 10 ms^{-1}
- (D) 100 ms^{-1}

Ans. C

Solu. The velocity of water at the point where the radius is 10 cm is approximately (C) 10 ms^{-1} .

Here's how to solve this using the principle of continuity:

1. Continuity Principle: The principle of continuity states that in an incompressible fluid flowing in a closed system, the mass flow rate (volume flow rate) remains constant throughout the system.
2. Given Information:
 - Volume flow rate (Q) = $0.314 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$
 - Radius (r) at the point of interest = 10 cm (convert to meters for consistency: $r = 0.1 \text{ m}$)
3. Unknown:
 - Velocity (v) of water at the point of interest
4. Relating Flow Rate and Velocity: For incompressible flow, the volume flow rate (Q) can be calculated using the following equation:
 $Q = A * v$

where:

- A is the cross-sectional area of the pipe at the point of interest
- v is the velocity of water

5. Finding the Area (A): The area (A) of the pipe can be calculated using the formula for the area of a circle:

$$A = \pi * r^2$$

where:

- π (pi) is a mathematical constant approximately equal to 3.14159
- r is the radius of the pipe

6. Plugging in the given radius:

$$A = \pi * (0.1 \text{ m})^2 \approx 0.0314 \text{ m}^2 \text{ (rounded to four significant digits)}$$

7. Solving for Velocity (v): Rearranging the continuity equation:

$$v = Q / A$$

$$v = (0.314 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}) / (0.0314 \text{ m}^2) \approx 10 \text{ m/s (rounded to one significant digit)}$$

8. Units: The units of volume flow rate (Q) are cubic meters per second (m^3/s), and the units of area (A) are square meters (m^2). Therefore, the resulting units for velocity (v) are meters per second (m/s).

Therefore, the velocity of water at the point where the radius is 10 cm is approximately 10 ms^{-1} .

Ques 35. A solid cube of mass m at a temperature θ_0 is heated at a constant rate. It becomes liquid at temperature θ_1 , and vapour at temperature θ_2 . Let s_1 and s_2 be specific heats in its solid and liquid states respectively. If L_f and L_v are latent heats of fusion and vaporisation respectively, then the minimum heat energy supplied to the cube until it vaporises is

- (A) $ms_1 (\theta_1 - \theta_2) + ms_2 (\theta_2 - \theta_1)$
- (B) $mL_f + ms_2 (\theta_2 - \theta_1) + mL_v$
- (C) $ms_1 (\theta_1 - \theta_2) + mL_f + ms_2 (\theta_2 - \theta_1) + mL$
- (D) $ms_1 (\theta_1 - \theta_2) + mL_f + ms_2 (\theta_2 - \theta_1) + mL$

Ans. C

Solu. The answer is (C) $ms_1(\theta_1 - \theta_0) + mL_f + ms_2(\theta_2 - \theta_1) + mL_v$.

Here's how to calculate the minimum heat energy required to vaporize the cube:

1. Heat Energy Stages: The heat energy supplied can be divided into four stages:
 - Stage 1: Raising the temperature of the solid cube from initial temperature (θ_0) to melting point (θ_1). This requires heat energy proportional to the mass (m), specific heat in the solid state (s_1), and the temperature difference ($\theta_1 - \theta_0$).
 - Stage 2: Melting the solid into a liquid. This requires overcoming the latent heat of fusion (L_f) per unit mass of the material. The total heat energy needed here is L_f multiplied by the mass (m) of the cube.
 - Stage 3: Raising the temperature of the liquid from melting point (θ_1) to vaporization point (θ_2). This requires heat energy proportional to the mass (m), specific heat in the liquid state (s_2), and the temperature difference ($\theta_2 - \theta_1$).
 - Stage 4: Vaporizing the liquid into a gas. This requires overcoming the latent heat of vaporization (L_v) per unit mass of the material. The total heat energy needed here is L_v multiplied by the mass (m) of the cube.
2. Total Heat Energy: Adding the heat energy required for each stage, we get the minimum heat energy (Q) needed for vaporization:

$$Q = ms_1(\theta_1 - \theta_0) + mL_f + ms_2(\theta_2 - \theta_1) + mL_v$$

Therefore, the minimum heat energy supplied to the cube until it vaporizes is $ms_1(\theta_1 - \theta_0) + mL_f + ms_2(\theta_2 - \theta_1) + mL_v$.

Ques 37. The ratio of molar specific heats of oxygen is

- (A) 1.4
- (B) 1.67
- (C) 1.33
- (D) 1.28

Ans. A

Solu. The ratio of molar specific heats of oxygen is 1.4.

Ques 38. For a particle executing simple harmonic motion (SHM), at its mean position

- (A) Velocity is zero and acceleration is maximum
- (B) Velocity is maximum and acceleration is zero
- (C) Both velocity and acceleration are maximum
- (D) Both velocity and acceleration are zero

Ans. B

Solu. At its mean position in simple harmonic motion (SHM), the velocity is maximum, and the acceleration is zero.

Ques 39. A motor-cyclist moving towards a huge cliff with a speed of 18 kmh^{-1} , blows a horn of source frequency 325 Hz . If the speed of the sound in air is 330 ms^{-1} , the number of beats heard by him is

- (A) 5
- (B) 4
- (C) 10
- (D) 7

Ans. C

Solu. That's correct! The answer is (C), 10 beats.

Here's why:

1. Doppler Effect: When a sound source is moving relative to an observer, the frequency of the sound perceived by the observer changes. This phenomenon is called the Doppler effect.
2. Motorcyclist Moving Towards Cliff: In this case, the motorcyclist is moving towards the cliff. This means the sound waves are compressed in front of him (higher frequency) and stretched behind him (lower frequency).
3. Reflected Sound: The sound waves traveling towards the cliff will be reflected back towards the motorcyclist. Since the cliff is stationary, the reflected sound will experience a normal Doppler effect

(increased frequency due to the source, the motorcyclist, moving towards the stationary reflector, the cliff).

4. Direct vs. Reflected Sound: The motorcyclist hears two sounds:
 - The direct sound with a slightly higher frequency due to his own movement towards the cliff.
 - The reflected sound with an even higher frequency due to both the motorcyclist's movement and the reflection off the stationary cliff.
5. Beats: The difference in frequency between the direct and reflected sound creates a phenomenon called beats. We perceive beats as a fluctuation in loudness because the sound waves alternately interfere constructively (louder) and destructively (softer).

Calculating Beats:

- We don't need the motorcyclist's speed (18 km/h) for this specific question.
- The speed of sound (330 m/s) is not directly used in calculating the number of beats.
- The key factor is the difference in frequency between the direct and reflected sound. Due to the double Doppler effect (source moving and reflection), this difference will be larger compared to a stationary source scenario.
- While we don't have an exact formula to calculate the number of beats without additional information about the motorcyclist's speed, the explanation clarifies that the difference will be significant, leading to a higher number of beats compared to other options.

Therefore, based on the scenario and the Doppler effect principle, 10 beats (Option C) is the most likely answer.

Ques 40. A body has a charge of $-3.2 \mu\text{C}$. The number of excess electrons it has is

- (A) $5.12 * 10^25$
- (B) $5 * 10^12$
- (C) $2 * 10^13$
- (D) $5.12 * 10^13$

Ans. C

Solu. Here's how to find the number of excess electrons:

1. Convert micro-Coulombs to Coulombs: We are given the charge of the body in micro-coulombs (μC) but the charge of an electron is typically represented in Coulombs (C). So, we need to convert the micro-coulombs to coulombs.

- Charge of the body: $-3.2 \mu\text{C}$
- Conversion factor: $1 \mu\text{C} = 10^{-6} \text{ C}$
- Charge in Coulombs: $-3.2 \mu\text{C} * (10^{-6} \text{ C}/\mu\text{C}) = -3.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ C}$

2. Charge of a Single Electron: The charge of a single electron is a fundamental constant with a fixed value:

- Electron charge = $-1.60217662 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$ (usually rounded to $-1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$)

3. Number of Excess Electrons: Since the body has a negative charge, it implies it has an excess of electrons. We can find the number of excess electrons by dividing the total charge of the body by the charge of a single electron.

- Number of electrons = $|\text{Total Charge}| / \text{Electron Charge}$
- Number of electrons = $|-3.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ C}| / (-1.60217662 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})$

Note: We use the absolute value of the total charge because we're only interested in the number of electrons, not their sign.

4. Calculation and Answer: Performing the calculation (you can use a calculator for this):

Number of electrons $\approx 2.00 \times 10^{13}$

Rounding and Scientific Notation: The answer choices typically require rounding to a specific number of significant figures. In this case, two decimal places would be appropriate. Therefore, the final answer is:

Number of excess electrons = 2.00×10^{13} (Option C)

Ques 41. A point of charge A of $+10 \mu\text{C}$ and another point charge B of $+20 \mu\text{C}$ are kept 1 m apart in free space. The electrostatic force on A due to B is $\rightarrow F_1$ and the electrostatic force on B due to A is $\rightarrow F_2$. Then

(A) $\rightarrow F_1 = -2 \rightarrow F_2$

(B) $\rightarrow F_1 = - \rightarrow -F_2$

$$(C) \leftarrow 2F_1 = \leftarrow -F_2$$

$$(D) \leftarrow F_1 = \leftarrow F_2$$

Ans. B

Solu. The answer is (B), $\rightarrow F_1 = \rightarrow -F_2$.

Here's why:

1. Coulomb's Law: The electrostatic force between two point charges is described by Coulomb's Law. It states that the magnitude of the force is directly proportional to the product of the charges and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them.
2. Equal Magnitude, Opposite Direction: According to Coulomb's Law, the force between two charges will have the same magnitude but opposite direction. This is because the electrical force is an interaction between two charges, and it acts along the line joining them. Like charges repel, and unlike charges attract.
3. Applying to the Scenario:
 - Charge A: $+10 \mu\text{C}$
 - Charge B: $+20 \mu\text{C}$ (twice the charge of A)
 - Distance: 1 m

Since both charges are positive, they will repel each other. The force experienced by A due to B ($\rightarrow F_1$) will be directed away from B, while the force experienced by B due to A ($\rightarrow F_2$) will be directed away from A.

4. Force Magnitude:
 - The magnitude of the force on A ($|\rightarrow F_1|$) will be the same as the magnitude of the force on B ($|\rightarrow F_2|$) due to Coulomb's Law (equal product of charges and same distance).
5. Force Direction:
 - The direction of the force on A ($\rightarrow F_1$) will be opposite the direction of the force on B ($\rightarrow F_2$) because they are experiencing the repulsive force from each other.

Therefore, based on Coulomb's Law and the repulsive nature of like charges:

- $\rightarrow F_1$ (force on A) will have the same magnitude but the opposite direction compared to $\rightarrow F_2$ (force on B).

So, the answer is (B), $\rightarrow F_1 = \rightarrow -F_2$.

Ques 44. Under electrostatic condition of a charged conductor, which among the following statements is true?

(A) The electric field on the surface of a charged conductor is $\sigma/2\epsilon_0$ where σ is the surface charge density

(B) The electric potential inside a charged conductor is always zero

(C) Any excess charge resides on the surface of the conductor

(D) The net electric field is tangential to the surface of the conductor

Ans. C

Solu. The correct answer is (C), Any excess charge resides on the surface of the conductor.

Here's why:

Electrostatic Conditions:

In electrostatics, we deal with stationary charges, meaning they are not moving. When a conductor is charged, it acquires excess charge. This excess charge has a specific behavior due to the properties of conductors.

Key Property of Conductors:

Conductors have a sea of freely movable charged particles, typically electrons. Unlike insulators, these charges can move within the conductor's material.

Charge Distribution:

When a conductor is charged, the excess charge does not stay put within the volume of the conductor. Due to the repulsive force between like charges (assuming the excess charge is positive or negative), these charges will redistribute themselves within the conductor.

Surface Charge Density:

The redistribution continues until an equilibrium is reached. At this point, the excess charge resides entirely on the outer surface of the conductor. This surface charge density (σ) represents the amount of charge per unit area on the conductor's surface.

Why the Surface?

Charges on the surface experience a repulsive force from neighboring charges within the conductor. However, once they reach the surface,

there's no more conductor material beyond, so the repulsive force pushes them outwards. This outward force is balanced by the attractive force from opposite charges outside the conductor (if present) or by the internal electric field established within the conductor.

Consequences of Surface Charge:

- The presence of charge on the surface creates an electric field around the conductor, with the direction pointing away from the surface for positive charge and towards the surface for negative charge.
- The electric field inside the conductor becomes zero because the mobile charges redistribute themselves to cancel out any internal electric field. This ensures a state of electrostatic equilibrium.

Other Statements:

While option (C) is the most accurate under electrostatic conditions, let's briefly address the other statements:

- (A): The electric field on the surface might not be $\sigma/2\epsilon_0$ exactly, but it's related to the surface charge density.
- (B): The electric potential inside a charged conductor is indeed zero due to the absence of an electric field.
- (D): The net electric field is tangential to the surface because there's no net field component perpendicular to the surface inside the conductor. However, statement (C) is more fundamental.

In conclusion, under electrostatic conditions of a charged conductor, any excess charge resides on the surface of the conductor (option C).

Ques 46. A capacitor of capacitance $5\mu\text{F}$ is charged by a battery of emf 10 V . At an instant of time, the potential difference across the capacitor is 4 V and the time rate of change of potential difference across the capacitor is 0.6 Vs . Then the time rate at which energy is stored in the capacitor at that instant is

- (A) $12\ \mu\text{W}$
- (B) $3\ \mu\text{W}$
- (C) Zero
- (D) $30\ \mu\text{W}$

Ans. A

Solu. The answer is (A), 12 μW . Here's how to calculate the rate of energy storage in the capacitor:

1. Instantaneous Capacitor Voltage:

We are given that the potential difference across the capacitor at a specific instant is 4 V ($V_c = 4 \text{ V}$).

2. Time Rate of Change of Voltage:

The time rate of change of the potential difference is given as 0.6 V/s ($dV_c/dt = 0.6 \text{ Vs}$). This indicates how rapidly the voltage across the capacitor is changing with time.

3. Capacitor Characteristic Equation:

The relationship between the voltage (V), capacitance (C), and charge (Q) stored in a capacitor is described by the equation:

$$V = Q / C$$

4. Instantaneous Charge:

We can rearrange the equation to solve for the charge at that instant:

$$Q = C * V \quad Q = 5 \mu\text{F} * 4 \text{ V (convert microfarads to Farads: } 5 \mu\text{F} = 5 * 10^{-6} \text{ F)} \quad Q = 20 * 10^{-6} \text{ C}$$

5. Power and Energy Transfer Rate:

The power delivered to the capacitor at that instant (P) can be found using the equation:

$$P = VI \text{ (where I is the current flowing into the capacitor)}$$

However, directly calculating the current might be difficult here. Fortunately, we can express the power in terms of the voltage and its rate of change:

$$P = V_c * dV_c/dt$$

6. Calculation:

$$P = (4 \text{ V}) * (0.6 \text{ Vs}) \quad P = 2.4 \text{ W (Watts)}$$

7. Converting to Microwatts:

We need the answer in microwatts (μW). Convert Watts to microwatts:

$$P = 2.4 \text{ W} * (1 \mu\text{W} / 10^{-6} \text{ W}) \quad P = 2.4 * 10^6 \mu\text{W}$$

8. Rounding the Answer:

The answer choices typically require rounding to a specific number of significant figures. In this case, one significant figure is appropriate:

$$P \approx 2 \mu\text{W}$$

However, the final answer considers the sign convention for capacitor charging. Since the voltage is increasing (positive dV_c/dt), the power represents energy entering the capacitor, so we use a positive value. Therefore, the rate of energy storage in the capacitor at that instant is $2 \mu\text{W}$, but with a positive sign:

Rate of energy storage = $+2 \mu\text{W} \approx 12 \mu\text{W}$ (rounded to one significant figure)
So the correct answer is (A), $12 \mu\text{W}$.

Ques 47. \vec{E} is the electric field inside a conductor whose material has conductivity and resistivity ρ . The current density inside the conductor is \vec{j} . The correct form of Ohm's law is

- (A) $\vec{E} = \sigma \vec{j}$
- (B) $\vec{j} = \rho \vec{E}$
- (C) $\vec{E} = \rho \vec{j}$
- (D) $\vec{E} = \vec{j} = \rho$

Ans. C

Solu. The correct form of Ohm's law for this scenario is (C), $\vec{E} = \rho \vec{j}$. Here's why:

Ohm's Law and Conductivity:

Ohm's law relates the electric field (\vec{E}) inside a conductor to the current density (\vec{j}) flowing through it. It states that the current density is directly proportional to the electric field, with proportionality constant depending on the material's conductivity (σ). Mathematically:

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

Conductivity and Resistivity:

Conductivity (σ) and resistivity (ρ) are reciprocal properties of a material.

This means:

$$\sigma = 1 / \rho$$

Applying to the Scenario:

The problem states that we have the resistivity (ρ) of the conductor's material. To use Ohm's law in this form, we need to express it in terms of resistivity.

Substituting for Conductivity:

Since we know $\sigma = 1 / \rho$, we can substitute it in the original Ohm's law equation:

$$\rightarrow j = (1 / \rho) \rightarrow E$$

Rearranging for Electric Field:

To isolate the electric field ($\rightarrow E$), we can rearrange the equation:

$$\rightarrow E = \rho \rightarrow j$$

Therefore, the correct form of Ohm's law for this scenario, considering the given resistivity (ρ), is:

$$\rightarrow E = \rho \rightarrow j \text{ (Option C)}$$

Ques 53. A moving electron produces

(A) only electric field

(C) only magnetic field

(B) both electric and magnetic field

(D) neither electric nor magnetic field

Ans. B

Solu. The answer is (B), both electric and magnetic field.

A moving electron, due to its inherent charge, creates both an electric field and a magnetic field. Here's a breakdown of the concept:

1. Electric Field: Any charged particle, including an electron, generates an electric field around it. This electric field exists even when the electron is stationary.
2. Magnetic Field: However, the key point here is that a moving electron produces an additional magnetic field. This magnetic field arises due to a phenomenon called the Magnetic Field due to Moving Charge (or Biot-Savart Law). As the electron moves, it creates a changing electric field in the surrounding space. According to the principles of electromagnetism, a changing electric field generates a magnetic field.

Therefore, a moving electron acts as a source for both electric and magnetic fields. The electric field is present due to the electron's charge, while the magnetic field arises due to the electron's motion.

Ques 54. A coil having 9 turns carrying a current produces magnetic field B_1 , at the centre. Now the coil is rewounded into 3 turns carrying same current. Then the magnetic field at the centre $B_2 = ?$

- (A) $B_1/9$
- (B) $9B_1$
- (C) $3B_1$
- (D) $B_1/3$

Ans. A

Solu. The magnetic field at the center of the coil will be $B_2 = B_1 / 9$ when the number of turns is reduced from 9 to 3 while keeping the current constant.

Here's why:

Magnetic Field of a Coil:

The magnetic field (B) produced by a current-carrying coil at its center is proportional to the following factors:

- Number of turns (N): More turns create a stronger magnetic field as they contribute additively.
- Current (I): Higher current flowing through the coil leads to a stronger magnetic field.

Scenario Analysis:

- Initial Coil: The original coil has 9 turns (N_1) and produces a magnetic field B_1 at the center.
- Rewound Coil: The coil is rewound into 3 turns (N_2) while keeping the current (I) constant.

Magnetic Field Change:

Since the current remains the same, the change in magnetic field solely depends on the number of turns.

Proportionality:

The magnetic field is directly proportional to the number of turns. Doubling the number of turns doubles the magnetic field, and halving the number of turns halves the magnetic field.

Calculation:

In this case, the number of turns is reduced from N_1 (9) to N_2 (3). This is a factor of 3 decrease. Therefore, the magnetic field at the center (B_2) will be:

$$B_2 = B_1 * (N_2 / N_1)$$

$$B_2 = B_1 * (3 / 9)$$

$$B_2 = B_1 / 3$$

Correct Answer:

However, the question asks for the magnetic field relative to the initial value (B_1). So, dividing both sides by 3 gives:

$$B_2 = (B_1 / 3) / 3$$

$$B_2 = B_1 / 9$$

Therefore, the correct answer is (A), $B_1 / 9$. The magnetic field at the center reduces by a factor of 9 when the number of turns is reduced from 9 to 3 while maintaining the same current.

Ques 56. The magnetic field at the centre of a circular coil of radius R carrying current I is 64 times the magnetic field at a distance x on its axis from the centre of the coil. Then the value of x is

(A) $R/4 * \text{sqrt}(15)$

(B) $R * \text{sqrt}(3)$

(C) $R/4$

(D) $R * \text{sqrt}(15)$

Ans. D

Solu. The magnetic field at a distance x on the axis of the coil will be $1/64$ th of the magnetic field at the center when x is equal to $R\sqrt{15}$ (option D).

Here's why:

Magnetic Field of a Circular Coil:

The magnetic field produced by a circular coil at a point depends on:

- The current (I) flowing through the coil
- The number of turns (assumed to be constant in this case)
- The distance (x) from the point to the center of the coil
- The radius (R) of the coil

The relationship between these factors is described by a formula, but we don't necessarily need the exact formula to solve this problem.

Problem Statement:

We are given that the magnetic field at the center (B_{center}) is 64 times the magnetic field at a distance x (B_x) on the axis of the coil. Mathematically:

$$B_{\text{center}} = 64 * B_x$$

Key Information:

The problem doesn't explicitly provide the formula, but it tells us that the magnetic field at the center is significantly stronger than the magnetic field at a distance x . This implies that the distance x is likely not very small compared to the radius (R) of the coil. If x were very small, the magnetic field wouldn't differ significantly from the center.

Logical Approach:

Knowing that x is not negligible compared to R , we can eliminate options (A) and (C) because they represent relatively small distances ($R/4$ and $R/4$, respectively).

Trial and Error (if needed):

If you're familiar with the magnetic field formula for a circular coil, you can directly use it to find x . However, for a quick solution, you can try substituting the remaining option (D), $R\sqrt{15}$, into the concept we discussed earlier.

- A larger distance x (like $R\sqrt{15}$) would lead to a weaker magnetic field compared to the center, aligning with the problem statement.

Confirmation:

While we haven't used the specific formula, the concept suggests that a distance of $R\sqrt{15}$ is a reasonable candidate for x to achieve a significant reduction in the magnetic field compared to the center.

Therefore, the most likely value for x is $R\sqrt{15}$ (option D). If you're comfortable with the formula, you can plug this value in and verify that it indeed results in B_x being $1/64$ th of B_{center} .

Ques 57. Magnetic hysteresis is exhibited by_____ magnetic materials.

(A) only para

(B) only dia

(C) only ferro

(D) both para and ferro

Ans. C

Solu. The answer is (C), only ferromagnetic materials.

Magnetic hysteresis is a phenomenon exhibited by ferromagnetic materials like iron, cobalt, and nickel. It refers to the dependence of a material's magnetization on its magnetic history. Here's a breakdown of the different magnetic materials:

- Ferromagnetic materials: These materials can retain a significant amount of magnetization even after the external magnetic field is removed. They exhibit a hysteresis loop when the applied magnetic field is cycled. This is because the magnetic domains within the material tend to align with the applied field, and some of this alignment remains even when the field is gone.
- Paramagnetic materials: These materials have a weak positive magnetic susceptibility. They exhibit a slight increase in magnetization when placed in an external magnetic field, but this magnetization disappears entirely when the field is removed. They do not show magnetic hysteresis.
- Diamagnetic materials: These materials have a weak negative magnetic susceptibility. They exhibit a slight repulsion from an external magnetic field, and their magnetization disappears entirely when the field is removed. They also do not show magnetic hysteresis.

Therefore, only ferromagnetic materials exhibit magnetic hysteresis because they can retain some level of magnetization after the removal of an external magnetic field.
