



Madhya Pradesh Public Service Commission

Volume - 6

Science & Technology, Health, Environment and Disaster



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Work, Power and Energy



Work

- When a force acts on an object \rightarrow displacement, force has done work on the object.
- 2 conditions need to be satisfied for work to be done:
 - A force should act on object
 - The **object** must be **displaced**
- Work = Force × Displacement
- Unit- Joule
- **1** Joule work is said to be done when **1** Newton force is applied on an object and it shows the displacement by **1** meter.

Positive work



Negative work



- When force and displacement are in opposite direction.
- Eg. work done by the frictional force, when we walk.

Power

What is Power?

- We can define power as the rate of doing work, it is the work done in unit time.
- The SI unit of power is Watt (W) which is joules per second (J/s).

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• Sometimes the **power** of **motor vehicles** and **other machines** is given in terms of Horsepower (hp), which is **approximately equal to 745.7 watts.**

What is Average Power?

- We can define average power as the **total energy consumed divided** by the **total time taken**.
- In simple language, we can say that average power is the average amount of work done or energy converted per unit of time.

Power Formula

- Power is defined as the rate at which work is done upon an object.
- **Power** is a **time-based quantity.**
- Which is **related** to **how fast a job is done**.
- The **formula** for power is mentioned below.
 - Power = Work / time (P = W / t)

Unit of Power

• The unit for standard metric work is the Joule and the standard metric unit for time is the second, so the standard metric unit for power is a Joule / second, defined as a Watt and abbreviated W.

Energy

- Capacity of a body to do work.
- SI unit: Joule (J).
- Forms
 - 1. Kinetic Energy
 - Energy possessed by a body due to its motion.
 - Increases with speed.
 - Kinetic energy of body moving with a certain velocity = work done on it to make it acquire that velocity
 - 2. Potential Energy
 - Energy possessed by a body due to its position or shape.

Gravitational Potential Energy: (GP)

- When an object is raised against gravity.
- Energy possessed by such object is gravitational potential energy.

Conservation of Energy or the first law of thermodynamics:

- Energy can neither be created nor destroyed but only changed from one form to another.
- Total energy before and after transformation always remains constant.

Force

- An external agent capable of changing state of rest or motion of a particular body.
- Has both magnitude and direction.
- Measured using a spring balance.
- **SI unit:** Newton(N) or Kgm/s2.





- Effects:
 - Can make a body move from rest
 - Can **stop a moving body** or slow it down.
 - Can accelerate speed of a moving body.
- Formula: F = ma

Where, m = mass, a = acceleration

Gravitational Force

- Force that attracts a body towards centre of earth, or towards any other physical body having mass.
- Every object that has mass exerts a gravitational pull or force on every other mass.
- Strength of this pull depends on the masses of objects
- Gets weaker with distance.
- Keeps planets in orbit around sun and moon around the Earth
- First discovered in 1687 by Sir Isaac Newton.

Universal law of gravitation:

- Every object in the universe attracts every other object with a force which is proportional to the product of their masses and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them.
- The force is along the line joining the centres of two objects.



Friction

- Friction force: The external force that opposes relative motion between 2 surfaces in contact.
- Friction acts on the surface of contact of both the bodies.

Relative motion: When one **object moves relative to another** it is called a relative motion.







Causes of Friction

Surface irregularities

- All surfaces when zoomed into a microscopic level contain **hills and valleys** that **interlock** when they move or rub on top of each other.
- This unevenness of the surface is called as surface irregularities or roughness.
- Rough surfaces have larger irregularities while smoother surfaces have lesser irregularities.

Adhesive forces

When **two surfaces** are **in contact** they start to **form** bonds and begin to stick to each other. This phenomenon is called as Adhesion.



- When we try to move objects that are on top of
 - another, we are basically breaking the bonds or overcoming the adhesive forces.

Cohesive forces is the attraction forces between the water molecules. This causes fluids to form round shapes where the molecules can be as closely packed together as possible.

Adhesive forces are the forces which attract the water molecules to other surfaces causing them to stick.

Plowing effect

- When surfaces are soft or can change their shape easily, they get deformed when they come in contact with another object.
- Ex: carpets, when a heavy object is placed on them, it looks like a valley that is caused by the deformation of the shape.
- This effect of the surfaces sinking into each other is known as Plowing effect.





Factors Affecting Friction

Depends on the **nature of surfaces** in **contact**. (Friction exists between two surfaces) E.g.: glass and rubber

Nature of surface in contact

- Friction depends on how hard the two surfaces pressed together, as more surface in contact and more bonds are formed→ more bonds to break → means more friction.
- Only the normal reaction force (exactly perpendicular) to the two surfaces increases friction.

Atmospheric pressure

- The weight of a column of air contained in a unit area from the mean sea level to the top of the atmosphere is called the atmospheric pressure.
- It is **measured** in force per unit area.
- It is expressed in 'milibar' or mb unit.
- In the application level, the atmospheric pressure is stated in kilo-pascals.
- It is measured by the aneroid barometer or mercury barometer.
- In the lower atmosphere, the pressure declines rapidly with height.
- The vertical pressure gradient force is much **larger than** that of the **horizontal pressure gradient** and is **commonly balanced** by an **almost equal but opposite** gravitational force.
- The low-pressure system is encircled by one or more isobars with the lowest pressure at the centre.
- The high-pressure system is also encircled by one or more isobars with the highest pressure in the centre.
- Isobars are lines connecting places having equal pressure.

CHAPTER

Units and Measurements

Mass

- Quantity of matter contained in a body.
- A scalar quantity.
- Unit kilogram.
- A body contains the same quantity of matter whether it be on the earth, moon or even in outer space. Thus, mass is constant and does not change from place to place.
- Denoted by the small letter 'm'.
- Cannot be zero.

Weight

- Measure of **force of gravity** acting on a body.
- Formula : w = mg
- Unit- Newton (as it is a force).
- Vector quantity

Difference between Mass and Weight

Mass	Weight
Quantity of matter possessed by a body	• Force with which a body is attracted towards the centre of the earth.
Scalar quantity.	Vector quantity.
• S.I. unit - kilogram (kg.)	• S.I. unit - Newton (N).
Remains constant at all places	Changes from place to place.
Never zero.	• Becomes zero at the centre of the earth.
Measured by a beam balance.	• Measured by a spring balance.

Every measurement has two parts.

- The first is a number (n) and the next is a unit (u).
- **Q** = nu.
- For Example, the length of an object = 40 cm.
- The number expressing the magnitude of a physical quantity is inversely proportional to the unit selected.
- If n1 and n2 are the numerical values of a physical quantity corresponding to the units u1 and u2, then n1u1 = n2u2.
- For Example,
 - 2.8 m = 280 cm
 - 6.2 kg = 6200 g.







Fundamental Quantities

The quantities that are independent of other quantities are called fundamental quantities.

- The units that are used to measure these fundamental quantities are called fundamental units.
- There are **four systems** of **units namely**
 - o C.G.S,
 - 0 M.K.S,
 - o F.P.S,
 - o SI.
- The quantities that are derived using the fundamental quantities are called derived quantities.
- The units that are used to measure these derived quantities are called derived units.

Fundamental and Supplementary Physical Quantities in SI system

Fundamental		System of units	
	C.G.S.	M.K.S.	F.P.S.
Quantity			
Length	centimeter	Meter	foot
Mass	gram	Kilogram	pound
Time	second	Second	second
÷			

Physical quantity	Unit	Symbol
Length	Meter	m
Mass	kilogram	kg
Time	second	S
Electric current	ampere	А
Thermodynamic temperature	kelvin	К
Intensity of light	candela	cd
Quantity of substance	mole	mol

SI Units

- Most SI units are used in scientific research.
- SI is a coherent system of units.

Cohenrent System Of Units

- A coherent system of units is **one in which** the **units of derived quantities** are **obtained** as **multiples or submultiples** of certain basic units.
- SI system is a comprehensive, coherent and rationalized M.K.S. Ampere system (RMKSA system) and was devised by Prof. Giorgi.
- Meter: A meter is equal to 1650763.73 times the wavelength of the light emitted in vacuum due to electronic transition from 2p10 state to 5d5 state in Krypton-86.
 - But in 1983, 17th General Assembly of weights and measures adopted a new definition for the meter in terms of velocity of light.
 - According to this definition, a **meter** is **defined as** the **distance traveled** by **light in vacuum during** a **time interval** of 1/299, 792, 458 of a second.
- Kilogram: The mass of a cylinder of platinum-iridium alloy kept in the International Bureau of weights and measures preserved at Serves near Paris is called one kilogram.



- Second: The duration of 9192631770 periods of the radiation corresponding to the transition between the two hyperfine levels of the ground state of cesium-133 atoms is called one second.
- Ampere: The current which when flowing in each of two parallel conductors of infinite length and negligible cross-section and placed one meter apart in vacuum, causes each conductor to experience a force of 2 × 10-7 newtons per meter of length is known as one ampere.
- Kelvin: The fraction of 1/273.16 of the thermodynamic temperature of the triple point of water is called Kelvin.
- Candela: The luminous intensity in the perpendicular direction of a surface of a black body of area 1/600000 m2 at the temperature of solidifying platinum under a pressure of 101325 Nm-2 is known as one candela.
- Mole: The amount of a substance of a system which contains as many elementary entities as there are atoms in 12 × 10-3 kg of carbon-12 is known as one mole.
- Radian: The angle made by an arc of the circle equivalent to its radius at the center is known as radian.
 - 1 radian = 57 $^{0}17$ $^{1}45$ ".
- Derived SI units with Special Names:

Physical quantity	SI unit	Symbol
Frequency	hertz	Hz
Energy	joule	J
Force	newton	Ν
Power	watt	W
Pressure	pascal	Ра
Electric charge or quantity of electricity	coulomb	С
Electric potential difference and emf	volt	V
Electric resistance	ohm	Ω
Electric conductance	siemen	S
Electric capacitance	farad	E
Magnetic flux	weber	Wb
Inductance	henry	H
Magnetic flux density	tesla	HI YU
Illumination	lux	Lx
Luminous flux	lumen	Lm

Dimensional Formulas for Physical Quantities

Physical quantity	Unit	Dimensional formula
Acceleration or acceleration due to gravity	ms ⁻²	LT ⁻²
Angle (arc/radius)	rad	M ^o L ^o T ^o
Angular displacement	rad	M ^o l ^o T ^o
Angular frequency (angular displacement/time)	rads ⁻¹	T ⁻¹
Angular impulse (torque x time)	Nms	ML ² T ⁻¹
Angular momentum (Ιω)	kgm ² s ⁻¹	ML ² T ⁻¹
Angular velocity (angle/time)	rads ⁻¹	T ⁻¹
Area (length x breadth)	m ²	L ²
Boltzmann's constant	JK ⁻¹	$ML^{2}T^{-2}\theta^{-1}$
Bulk modulus	Nm ⁻² , Pa	$M^{1}L^{-1}T^{-2}$

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Unleash the topper in you				
Calorific value	Jkg ⁻¹	L ² T ⁻²		
Coefficient of linear or areal or volume expansion	°C ⁻¹ or K ⁻¹	θ^{-1}		
Coefficient of surface tension (force/length)	Nm^{-1} or Jm^{-2}	MT ⁻²		
Coefficient of thermal conductivity	Wm ⁻¹ K ⁻¹	$MLT^{-3}\theta^{-1}$		
Coefficient of viscosity	poise	$ML^{-1}T^{-1}$		
Compressibility (1/bulk modulus)	Pa^{-1} , m ² N ⁻²	$M^{-1}LT^2$		
Density (mass / volume)	kgm ⁻³	ML ⁻³		
Displacement, wavelength, focal length	m	L		
Electric capacitance (charge/potential)	CV ⁻¹ , farad	-1 M ⁻¹ L ⁻² T ⁴ l ²		
Electric conductance (1/resistance)	Ohm^{-1} or mho or	$M^{-1}L^{-2}T^{3}l^{2}$		
	siemen			
Electric conductivity (1/resistivity)	siemen/metre or Sm ⁻¹	$M^{-1}L^{-3}T^{3}I^{2}$		
Electric charge or quantity of electric charge	coulomb	IT		
Electric current	ampere	1		
Electric dipole moment (charge x distance)	Cm	LTI		
Electric field strength or Intensity of electric field	NC ⁻¹ . Vm ⁻¹	MLT ⁻³ I ⁻¹		
(force/charge)	- /			
Electric resistance	ohm	ML ² T ⁻³ I ⁻²		
Emf (or) electric potential (work/charge)	volt	ML ² T ⁻³ I ⁻¹		
Energy (capacity to do work)	joule	ML ² T ⁻²		
Energy density	Jm ⁻³	ML ⁻¹ T ⁻²		
Entropy	J0 ⁻¹	$ML^2T^{-2}\theta^{-1}$		
Force (mass x acceleration)	newton (N)	MLT ⁻²		
Force constant or spring constant	Nm ⁻¹	MT ⁻²		
(force/extension)				
Frequency (1/period)	Hz	T ⁻¹		
Gravitational potential (work/mass)	Jkg ⁻¹	L ² T ⁻²		
Heat (energy)	J or calorie	ML ² T ⁻²		
Illumination (Illuminance)	lux (lumen/metre ²)	MT ⁻³		
Impulse (force x time)	Ns or kgms ⁻¹	MLT ⁻¹		
Inductance (L) or coefficient of self-induction	henry (H)	ML ² T ⁻² I ⁻²		
Intensity of gravitational field (F/m)	Nkg ⁻¹	L ¹ T ⁻²		
Intensity of magnetization (I)	Am ⁻¹	L ⁻¹ I		
Joule's constant or mechanical equivalent of heat	Jcal ⁻¹	M°L°T°		
Latent heat (Q = mL)	Jkg ⁻¹	M ^o L ² T ⁻²		
Linear density (mass per unit length)	kgm ⁻¹	ML ⁻¹		
Luminous flux	lumen or (Js ⁻¹)	ML ² T ⁻³		
Magnetic dipole moment	Am ²	L ² I		
Magnetic flux (magnetic induction x area)	weber (Wb)	$ML^{2}T^{-2}I^{-1}$		
Magnetic induction (F = Bil)	NI ⁻¹ m ⁻¹ or T	MT ⁻² I ⁻¹		
Magnetic pole strength (unit: ampere-meter)	Am	LI		
Modulus of elasticity (stress/strain)	Nm ⁻² , Pa	ML ⁻¹ T ⁻²		
Moment of inertia (mass x radius ²)	kgm ²	ML ²		
Momentum (mass x velocity)	kgms ⁻¹	MLT ⁻¹		
Permeability of free space	Hm ⁻¹ or NA ⁻²	MLT ⁻² I ⁻²		
Permittivity of free space	Fm ⁻¹ or C ² N ⁻¹ m ⁻²	$M^{-1}L^{-3}T^{4}I^{2}$		
Planck's constant (energy/frequency)	Js	ML ² T ⁻¹		

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Poisson's ratio (lateral strain/longitudinal strain)		M ^o L ^o T ^o
Power (work/time)	Js ⁻¹ or watt (W)	ML ² T ⁻³
Pressure (force/area)	Nm ⁻² or Pa	$ML^{-1}T^{-2}$
Pressure coefficient or volume coefficient	$^{\circ}C^{-1}$ or θ^{-1}	θ^{-1}
Pressure head	m	M°LT°
Radioactivity	Disintegrations per	M ^o L ^o T ⁻¹
	second	
Ratio of specific heats		M ^o L ^o T ^o
Refractive index		M ^o L ^o T ^o
Resistivity or specific resistance	-m	ML ³ T ⁻³ I ⁻²
Specific conductance or conductivity (1/specific	siemen/metre or Sm ⁻¹	$M^{-1}L^{-3}T^{3}I^{2}$
resistance)		
Specific entropy (1/entropy)	KJ ⁻¹	$M^{-1}L^{-2}T^2\theta$
Specific gravity		M ^o L ^o T ^o
Specific heat (Q = mst)	$Jkg^{-1}\theta^{-1}$	$M^{o}L^{2}T^{-2}\theta^{-1}$
Specific volume (1/density)	m ³ kg ⁻¹	M ⁻¹ L ³
Speed (distance/time)	ms ⁻¹	LT ⁻¹
Stefan's constant	$Wm^{-2}\theta^{-4}$	ML°T ⁻³ 0 ⁻⁴
Strain (change in dimension/original dimension)		M ^o L ^o T ^o
Stress (restoring force/area)	Nm ⁻² or Pa	ML ⁻¹ T ⁻²
Surface energy density (energy/area)	Jm ⁻²	MT ⁻²
Temperature	°C or θ	Ϻ ^ℴ ⅃ℴ⅃ℴ
Temperature gradient	°Cm ⁻¹ or θ m ⁻¹	M°L ⁻¹ T°θ
Thermal capacity (mass x specific heat)	J0 ⁻¹	$ML^2T^{-2}\theta^{-1}$
Time period	second	Т
Torque or moment of force (force x distance)	Nm	ML ² T ⁻²
Universal gas constant (work/temperature)	Jmol ⁻¹ 0 ⁻¹	$ML^2T^{-2}\theta^{-1}$
Universal gravitational constant	Nm ² kg ⁻²	$M^{-1}L^{3}T^{-2}$
Velocity (displacement/time)	ms ⁻¹	LT ⁻¹
Velocity gradient (dv/dx)	S ⁻¹	T ⁻¹
Volume (length x breadth x height)	m^3	L ³ C V V
Water equivalent	kg	ML°T°
Work (force x displacement)	J	ML ² T ⁻²



CHAPTER

Motion

Motion

- An object is said to be in motion if it changes its position with time.
- A body which does not move is said to be at rest, motionless, or stationary.
- An object's state of motion or rest cannot change unless it is acted upon by a force.
- **Described in** terms of **displacement**, **velocity**, and **displacement**.



Rotary Motion	 Anything that moves in a circle. Example: spinning wheel on which people spun wool, working of car's engine Applications: rotary actuators are used across a wide range of industries and can be electric, pneumatic and hydraulic options.
Oscillating Motion	 Back and forth oscillation causes this motion If a thing repeats the motion cycle after a certain period is considered to be oscillating. Example: sprinkler system, the pendulum of a clock ,sound waves.
Linear Motion	 If something moves in a straight line like linear actuators then it is linear motion Time moves in a linear fashion. Eg: linear cylinders in electric, pneumatic or hydraulic options Application: automation, manufacturing, robotics.
Uniform motion	 When an object covers equal distances in equal intervals of time.
Non-uniform motion	 When an object covers unequal distances in equal intervals of time.

Displacement

- Shortest distance from the initial to the final position of the object.
- **Represents** the **length** and **direction of** the **straight path**.
- Vector quantity as it has both magnitude and direction





Distance

• Scalar quantity measuring only the length of path.

Velocity

- Speed in a given direction.
- Describes only how fast an object is moving and direction of object's motion
- A vector quantity.
- Unit meter per second (m/s).

Acceleration

- Rate of change of velocity with time.
- Rate at which an object speeds up or slows down.
- Positive Acceleration: If the object speeds up.
- Negative Acceleration: If the object slows down.
- A vector quantity.
- SI unit: meter per second squares (m/s2).

Laws of Motion



Inertia:

- Resistance of any physical object to any change in its velocity.
- Includes changes to the object's speed, or direction of motion.
- Tendency of objects to keep moving in a straight line at a constant speed or to remain in state of rest when no forces act upon them, according to the first law of motion.



CHAPTER

Sound

SOUND

- A form of energy which produces a sensation of hearing in our ears.
- Produced due to vibration of different objects.
- Propagate as compressions & rarefactions in medium longitudinal waves.
- Mechanical waves- need a material medium to travel.
- Medium: Matter or material through which sound propagates



Medium of Propagation

- Sound is a sequence of waves of pressure which propagates through compressible media such as air or water.
- **During** their **propagation**, waves can be **reflected**, **refracted**, or **attentuated** by the medium.
- The **purpose** of this experiment is **to examine** what **effect** the **characteristics of the medium** have on **sound.**

Ground Wave or Surface Wave Propagation

- A ground wave travels along the surface of the earth.
- These waves are vertically polarized.
- So, vertical antennas are useful for these waves. If a horizontally polarized wave is propagated as a ground wave, due to the conductivity of the earth, the electric field of the wave gets short-circuited. As the ground wave travels away from the transmitting antenna it gets attenuated. To minimize this loss the transmission path must be over the ground with high conductivity.
- With respect to this condition, sea water should be the best conductor but it was observed that large storage of water in ponds, sandy or rocky soil shows maximum losses.
- Hence, high power low-frequency transmitters, using ground wave propagations, are preferably located on Ocean fronts.
- As ground losses increase rapidly with frequency, this propagation is used practically for signals up to frequency 2 MHz only.

Sky Wave Propagation

- Every long radio communication of medium and high frequencies are conducted using skywave propagation.
- In this mode **reflection** of **EM waves** from the ionized region in the **upper part** of the **atmosphere** of the **earth** is **used** for **transmission** of waves to **longer distances**.
- This part of the atmosphere is called ionosphere which is at about 70-400 km height.
- **Ionosphere reflects back** the **EM waves** if the frequency is **between 2 to 30 MHz's**. Hence, this **mode** of **propagation** is also **called** as **Short wave propagation**.



• Using sky wave propagation point to point communication over long distances is possible. With the multiple reflections of sky waves, global communication over extremely long distances is possible.

Space Wave Propagation

- When we are **dealing** with **EM waves** of frequency **between 30 MHz to 300 MHz**, then **space wave** propagation is **useful**.
- Here properties of Troposphere are used for transmission. When operating in space wave propagation mode, the wave reaches the receiving antenna directly from the transmitter or after reflection from troposphere which is present at about 16km above the earth surface. Hence space wave mode consists of two components.i.e. direct wave and indirect wave.
- Short wave broadcasting usually takes place in the frequency range of 1.7 30 MHz.
- As we have seen **above** the **frequencies** in this range are **propagated through Skywave propagation mode**.
- Depending on the frequency or wavelength the electromagnetic waves produce different Effects in various materials and devices.
- Hence, the different parts of the electromagnetic spectrum are utilized for various applications

Audible and Inaudible sound

Inaudible sound

- Human ear cannot detect sound frequencies less than 20 vibrations per second i.e. 20 Hz.
- So any sound below this frequency will be inaudible sound for humans.
- In the high-frequency range, the human ear cannot detect frequencies above 20000 vibrations per second (20 kHz) and the amplitude of the wave would be dependent on the loudness of the sound.
- So the frequencies below 20 Hz and above 20 kHz comes under the category of inaudible frequencies. The low-frequency sound which the human ear cannot detect is also known as infrasonic sound. Whereas the higher range inaudible frequency is also known as ultrasonic sound.
- Some animals like dogs have the ability to hear sounds having frequencies higher than 20 kHz.
- The **police department** uses **whistles** with **frequencies higher** than **20 kHz** so that **only dogs can listen** to it.
- Inaudible frequencies are helpful for many purposes.
- These are used in many fields like research and medicine.
- The ultrasound equipment used for tracking and studying many medical problems works at frequencies above 20 kHz.

Audible sound

- The human ear can easily detect frequencies between 20 Hz and 20 kHz.
- Hence, sound waves with frequency ranging from 20 Hz to 20 kHz is known are audible sound.
- The human ear is sensitive to every minute pressure difference in the air if they are in the audible frequency range.
- It can detect pressure difference of less than one billionth of atmospheric pressure.
- As we grow older and are exposed to sound for a longer period of time, our ears get damaged and the upper limit of audible frequencies decreases.
- For a normal middle-aged adult person, the highest frequency which they can hear clearly is 12-14 kilohertz.

Noise and Music

- The unpleasant sounds around us are called noise.
- Noise is produced by the irregular vibrations of the sound producing source.
- For Ex: Running of mixer and grinder in the kitchen, blowing of horns of motor vehicles, bursting of crackers, barking of dogs, shattering of glass, landing and flying of aeroplane, sounds coming from construction site, all students talking together loudly in a classroom etc.
- The sounds which are pleasant to hear are called all musical sound.
- They are **produced by** the **regular vibrations** of the sound producing source.
- All the **musical instruments** produce **musical sounds**.
- The speakers of radio, stereo system and television also produce musical sound.
- When a person sing a song he or she also produces musical sound.
- If however a musical sound becomes too loud it becomes noise.

Terminology of Sound

Distance between 2 successive crests or troughs.		
• Represented by λ		
• SI unit: metre (m).		
• Time taken by 2 consecutive compressions or rarefactions to cross a fixed point		
• SI unit: seconds (s).		
Number of compressions or rarefactions per unit time.		
• Represented b v		
• SI unit: Hertz (s–1)		
• Magnitude of disturbance in a medium on either side of the mean value		
Directly proportional to frequency.		
Amount of sound energy flowing per unit time through a unit area		
Sound of a single frequency - tone.		
• Sound produced with a mixture of several frequencies- note.		
Richness or timber of sound.		
• Sound with the same pitch and loudness can be distinguished by quality.		
• Eg. difference b/w sound of a flute and violin.		

• **Speed of sound:** Solids > Liquids > Gases

Reflection of Sound

- Reflects off a surface in the same way as light reflects and follows same rules of reflection.
- Incident sound and reflected sound make equal angles with the normal and all three are in the same plane.

Echo

• Phenomenon where a sound produced is heard again due to reflection .

Human range of hearing - 20Hz- 20kHz.

Ultrasonic sounds/ Ultrasound

- **High-frequency** sound having a frequency > **20kHz** (inaudible range).
- Applications:
 - Scanning images of human organs



- o Detecting cracks in metal blocks
- Cleaning parts that are hard to reach
- Navigating, communicating or detecting objects on or under the surface of the water (SONAR).

Infrasonic sounds

- Low frequency sound having frequency < 20 Hz.
- Animals like elephants use infrasounds for communication.

SONAR



Fig : Ultrasound set by the transmitter and received by the detector

- Stands for "Sound Navigation And Ranging".
- A technique that uses sound or ultrasonic waves to measure distance.
- Consists of a transmitter and detector mounted on a boat or ship. Transmitter sends ultrasonic sound waves to seabed which gets reflected back and picked up by the detector.
- Method k/a echo-location or echo ranging.

Reverberation

- Repeated reflection that results in the persistence of sound
- To reduce highly undesirable reverberation sounds, the roof and walls of the auditorium or big halls are generally covered with sound-absorbent materials like compressed fibreboard, rough plaster or draperies.
- The seat materials are also selected on the basis of their sound absorbing properties.

Structure of Human Ear

- A sensitive organ of the body.
- **Function:** Detecting, transmitting and transducing sound and maintaining a sense of balance
- Parts:
 - 1. Outer ear:
 - **Pinna** cartilaginous and directs sound wave towards external auditory canal.
 - External auditory canal channels sound to tympanic membrane (eardrum).
 - Eardrum- Thin and semi-transparent.
 - Vibrates when sound waves strike its surface.
 - 2. Middle Ear
 - 3 tiny bones hammer, anvil and stirrup
 - Amplify vibrations and transmit these to inner ear.
 - 3. Inner Ear
 - aka labyrinth.
 - Cochlea- helps in hearing.
 - Vestibular system

