Government of Karnataka

SCIENCE

Textbook for Class IX

Part - I

9

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OFFICES OF THE PUBLICATION DIVISION, NCERT

NCERT Campus
Sri Aurobindo Marg
New Delhi 110 016 **Phone : 011-26562708**

Karnataka Textbook Society (R.)
6th Cross, Malleshwaram,
Bengaluru 560 003 **Phone : 080-26422238**

Navjivan Trust Building
P.O.Navjivan
Ahmedabad 380 014 **Phone : 079-27541446**

CWC Campus
Opp. Dhankal Bus Stop
Panihati
Kolkata 700 114 **Phone : 033-25530454**

CWC Complex
Maligaon
Guwahati 781 021 **Phone : 0361-2674869**

Publication Team

Head, Publication Division : *Anup Kumar Rajput*

Chief Production Officer : *Arun Chitkara*

Chief Business Manager : *Vipin Dewan*

Chief Editor (In charge) : *Bijnan Sutar*

Production Assistant : *Prakash Veer Singh*

Cover
Nidhi Wadhwa

Layout and Illustrations
Digital Expressions

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FOREWORD

The National Curriculum Framework (NCF), 2005, recommends that children's life at school must be linked to their life outside the school. This principle marks a departure from the legacy of bookish learning which continues to shape our system and causes a gap between the school, home and community. The syllabi and textbooks developed on the basis of NCF signify an attempt to implement this basic idea. They also attempt to discourage rote learning and the maintenance of sharp boundaries between different subject areas. We hope these measures will take us significantly further in the direction of a child-centred system of education outlined in the national Policy on Education (1986).

The success of this effort depends on the steps that school principals and teachers will take to encourage children to reflect on their own learning and to pursue imaginative activities and questions. We must recognize that, given space, time and freedom, children generate new knowledge by engaging with the information passed on to them by adults. Treating the prescribed textbook as the sole basis of examination is one of the key reasons why other resources and sites of learning are ignored. Inculcating creativity and initiative is possible if we perceive and treat children as participants in learning, not as receivers of a fixed body of knowledge.

This aims imply considerable change is school routines and mode of functioning. Flexibility in the daily time-table is as necessary as rigour in implementing the annual calendar so that the required number of teaching days are actually devoted to teaching. The methods used for teaching and evaluation will also determine how effective this textbook proves for making children's life at school a happy experience, rather then a source of stress or boredom. Syllabus designers have tried to address the problem of curricular burden by restructuring and reorienting knowledge at different stages with greater consideration for child psychology and the time available for teaching. The textbook attempts to enhance this endeavour by giving higher priority and space to opportunities for contemplation and wondering, discussion in small groups, and activities requiring hands-on experience.

The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) appreciates the hard work done by the textbook development committee responsible for this book. We wish to thank the Chairperson of the advisory group in science and mathematics, Professor J.V. Narlikar and the Chief Advisor for this book, Professor P. Sinclair of IGNOU, New Delhi for guiding the work of this committee. Several teachers contributed to the development of this textbook; we are grateful to their principals for making this possible. We are indebted to the institutions and organizations which have generously permitted us to draw upon their resources, material and personnel. We are especially grateful to the members of the National Monitoring Committee, appointed by the Department of Secondary and Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development under the Chairpersonship of Professor Mrinal Miri and Professor G.P. Deshpande, for their valuable time and contribution. As an organisation committed to systemic reform and continuous improvement in the quality of its products, NCERT welcomes comments and suggestions which will enable us to undertake further revision and refinement.

Director
New Delhi National Council of Educational
20 December 2005 **Research and Training**

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Preface

This book is the outcome of the efforts of the textbook development committee appointed by the NCERT. The committee met a few times to interact with one another to improve the draft. Then there was a review meeting in which many experts and practicing school teachers were invited to review the draft and suggest improvements.

By and large we have stuck to the format of the Class VII book. By now famous characters, Boojho and Paheli, have been used to make the text interactive. Attempt has been made to recall children's own experiences and build concepts around them. This is designed to connect science that they study in the school with their everyday life.

Many activities have been suggested to clarify concepts. Some of these activities are so simple that children can perform them on their own. The requirement of the apparatus required for the activities is minimal. We performed all the activities ourselves to ensure that there was no difficulty in performing them in the school situation. The activities should also help children in developing skills such as presentation of data in tabular and graphical forms, reasoning and drawing inference from the given data.

The language of the book has been kept as simple as possible. A large number of photographs, illustrations, cartoons, etc. have been included to make the book attractive. To help teachers evaluate children effectively, a large number of exercises have been given at the end of each chapter. The teachers are encouraged to frame additional exercises to test children's understanding. Some challenging exercises have also been devised for those children who would like to appear for the National Talent Search Examination conducted by the NCERT.

We are conscious of the fact that there is a paucity of additional reading material for children. We have tried to address this problem by providing non-evaluative boxes. These boxes, in light orange, contain additional information, anecdotes, stories, strange facts and other such interesting materials.

We all know that children are mischievous and playful by nature. Therefore, in order to prevent any untoward incident during the performance of the activities in the school or outside, necessary cautions, in magenta, have been inserted at various places in the book.

To prepare children to assume their roles as responsible citizens of tomorrow, attempt has been made to sensitise them to the issues concerning gender, religion, environment, health and hygiene, water scarcity and energy conservation. We have sought to weave into the text the value of cooperation and the importance of peer learning.An important feature of the book is what we call Extended Learning. These are totally non-evaluative, and purely voluntary activities and projects. Some of the projects in this section have been designed to enhance children's interaction with the experts, teachers, even parents, and society at large. The children are required to collect information of various kinds and draw conclusions of their own.

My request to teachers and parents is to use the book in the spirit in which it has been written. Encourage children to perform activities and learn by doing, rather than by rote. You can supplement, or even replace, the activities given here. If you feel that you have better alternatives, especially with your local/regional flavour, please write to us so that these activities could be used in the future editions of the book.

We have been able to include only a small subset of children's experiences. You have a better knowledge of their experiences because you are in touch with them. Use them to illustrate the concepts being taught. Above all, please do not stifle children's natural curiosity. Encourage them to ask questions, even if sometimes you feel uncomfortable. If you do not know the answer to a question on the spot, do not feel embarrassed. You can promise them to find the answer and deal with it later. Make a genuine attempt to get the answer from whatever resources are within your reach, such as senior school or college teachers, experts, libraries, internet etc. If, inspite of your efforts, you cannot get the answer to some question, you could write to NCERT.

I must thank the NCERT for enabling us to talk to children through the medium of this book. Every member of the NCERT has been courteous and helpful to us.

In the end, I must express my gratitude to the members of the Editing Team, who worked tirelessly to help me bring the book to the present form. If you and your students find this book useful and enjoy teaching/learning science through this book, the Editing Team and I shall consider ourselves well-rewarded.

V.B. Bhatia
Chief Advisor
Textbook Development Committee

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ಮುನ್ನುಡಿ

2005ನೇ ರಾಷ್ಟ್ರೀಯ ಪಠ್ಯಕ್ರಮ ಮತ್ತು ರಾಷ್ಟ್ರೀಯ ಪಠ್ಯವಸ್ತುವಿನ ಆಧಾರದ ಮೇಲೆ ರಚಿತವಾದ ಎನ್.ಸಿ.ಇ.ಆರ್.ಟಿ 8ನೇ ತರಗತಿಯ ಆಂಗ್ಲ ಮಾಧ್ಯಮದ ವಿಜ್ಞಾನ ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕವನ್ನು ಯಾಥಾವತ್ತಾಗಿ ಪ್ರಸ್ತುತ ಸಾಲಿನಲ್ಲಿ ಜಾರಿಗೊಳಿಸಲಾಗುತ್ತಿದೆ. ಈ ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕವನ್ನು ಒಟ್ಟು 7 ಮಾಧ್ಯಮಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಹೊರತರಲಾಗಿದೆ. NCF–2005ರ ಪಠ್ಯಕ್ರಮದ ಎಲ್ಲ ವೈಶಿಷ್ಟ್ಯಗಳನ್ನು ಇದು ಹೊಂದಿದೆ.

2005ರ ರಾಷ್ಟ್ರೀಯ ಪಠ್ಯಕ್ರಮವು ಈ ಕೆಳಗಿನ ವೈಶಿಷ್ಟ್ಯಗಳನ್ನು ಹೊಂದಿದೆ.

- ಕಲಿಕೆಯನ್ನು ಜೀವನದ ಅವಶ್ಯಕತೆಗಳೊಂದಿಗೆ ಜೋಡಿಸುವುದು.
- ಕಂಠಪಾಠ ವಿಧಾನದಿಂದ ಕಲಿಕೆಯನ್ನು ಮುಕ್ತಗೊಳಿಸುವುದು.
- ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕಗಳ ಹೊರತಾಗಿ ಪಠ್ಯಕ್ರಮವನ್ನು ಶ್ರೀಮಂತಗೊಳಿಸುವುದು.
- ಜ್ಞಾನದ ಅಭಿವೃದ್ಧಿಗೆ ಕಲಿಕಾ ಅನುಭವಗಳನ್ನು ಬಳಸುವುದು.
- ಭಾರತದ ಪ್ರಜಾಸತ್ತಾತ್ಮಕ ನೀತಿಯನ್ವಯ ಮಕ್ಕಳ ಅವಶ್ಯಕತೆಗಳಿಗೆ ತಕ್ಕಂತೆ ಸ್ಪಂದಿಸುವುದು.
- ಶಿಕ್ಷಣವನ್ನು ಇಂದಿನ ಹಾಗೂ ಭವಿಷ್ಯದ ಜೀವನಾವಶ್ಯಕತೆಗಳಿಗೆ ಹೊಂದುವಂತೆ ಮಾಡುವುದು.
- ವಿಷಯಗಳ ಮೇರೆಗಳನ್ನು ಮೀರಿ ಅವುಗಳಿಗೆ ಸಮಗ್ರ ದೃಷ್ಟಿಯ ಬೋಧನೆಯನ್ನು ಅಳವಡಿಸುವುದು.
- ಶಾಲೆಯ ಹೊರಗಿನ ಬದುಕಿಗೆ ಜ್ಞಾನ ಸಂಯೋಜನೆ.
- ಮಕ್ಕಳಿಂದಲೇ ಜ್ಞಾನವನ್ನು ಅಭಿವೃದ್ಧಿಪಡಿಸುವುದು.

8ನೇ ತರಗತಿಯ ವಿಜ್ಞಾನ ಪುಸ್ತಕದಲ್ಲಿ ಅಂತರ್ಗತ ವಿಧಾನ (Integrated Approach), ರಚನಾತ್ಮಕ ವಿಧಾನ (Constructive Approach) ಹಾಗೂ ಸುರುಳಿಯಾಕಾರದ ವಿಧಾನ (Spiral Approach) ಗಳನ್ನು ಅಳವಡಿಸಲಾಗಿದೆ.

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ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕಗಳ ವಿಷಯ ಹಾಗೂ ಅಭ್ಯಾಸಗಳು ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳನ್ನು ಯೋಚನೆ ಮಾಡುವಂತೆ ಮಾಡಿ, ಚಟುವಟಿಕೆಗಳ ಮೂಲಕ ಜ್ಞಾನ ಹಾಗೂ ಸಾಮರ್ಥ್ಯಗಳನ್ನು ಪಡೆಯುವಂತೆ ಮಾಡುವ ಪ್ರಯತ್ನ ಮಾಡಲಾಗಿದೆ. ಪಠ್ಯವಸ್ತುಗಳೊಂದಿಗೆ ಅತ್ಯಂತ ಅವಶ್ಯಕ ಜೀವನ ಮೌಲ್ಯಗಳನ್ನು ಅಂತರ್ಗತವಾಗಿ ಬಳಸಲಾಗಿದೆ. ಈ ನೂತನ ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕಗಳು ಪರೀಕ್ಷಾ ದೃಷ್ಟಿಯಿಂದ ರಚಿತವಾಗಿಲ್ಲ. ಬದಲಾಗಿ ಅವುಗಳು ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳ ಸರ್ವಾಂಗೀಣ ವ್ಯಕ್ತಿತ್ವ ವಿಕಸನಕ್ಕೆ ಪೂರಕವಾಗಿವೆ. ತನ್ಮೂಲಕ ಅವರನ್ನು ಸ್ವತಂತ್ರ ಭಾರತದ ಸ್ವಸ್ಥ ಸಮಾಜದ ಉತ್ತಮ ಪ್ರಜೆಗಳನ್ನಾಗಿ ಮಾಡುವ ಪ್ರಯತ್ನ ನಡೆದಿದೆ.

ನಿತ್ಯ ಜೀವನದಲ್ಲಿ ವಿಜ್ಞಾನವು ಎಲ್ಲಾ ಹಂತಗಳಲ್ಲೂ ಯಶಸ್ಸಿಗೆ ಅತ್ಯವಶ್ಯಕವಾಗಿದೆ. ರಾಷ್ಟ್ರೀಯ ಪಠ್ಯಕ್ರಮ–2005ರಂತೆ ವಿಜ್ಞಾನವು ಕೆಲವು ಪರಿಕಲ್ಪನೆಗಳನ್ನು ಅರ್ಥಮಾಡಿಕೊಂಡು ಸಿದ್ಧಾಂತಗಳನ್ನು ನಿರೂಪಿಸಿ, ಪ್ರಮೇಯಗಳನ್ನು ಸಾಧಿಸಿ, ಲೆಕ್ಕಗಳನ್ನು ಮಾಡಿ ಪರೀಕ್ಷೆಯಲ್ಲಿ

ಉತ್ತಮ ಅಂಕಗಳನ್ನು ಪಡೆಯುವುದರ ಜೊತೆಗೆ ವಿಜ್ಞಾನವನ್ನು ಜೀವನದ ಸಕಲ ಕ್ಷೇತ್ರಗಳಲ್ಲೂ ಬಳಸುವ ಸಾಮರ್ಥ್ಯವನ್ನು ಬೆಳೆಸಿಕೊಂಡು ಜೀವನದಲ್ಲಿ ಯಶಸ್ಸನ್ನು ಗಳಿಸುವಂತೆ ಮಾಡಬೇಕು. ಅದು ಸಹಕಾರಿ ಕಲಿಕೆಗೂ ಪೂರಕವಾಗಿರಬೇಕು.

ಪ್ರಾಚೀನ ಭಾರತದ ಶ್ರೇಷ್ಠ ವಿಜ್ಞಾನಿಗಳ ಕೊಡುಗೆಗಳನ್ನು ಸೂಕ್ತ ಸಂದರ್ಭಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಕೊಡಲಾಗಿದೆ. 8ನೇ ತರಗತಿಯ ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕಗಳು ಶೈಕ್ಷಣಿಕವಾಗಿ ವೈಶಿಷ್ಟ್ಯಪೂರ್ಣವಾಗಿವೆ. ಇತರ ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕಗಳಂತೆಯೇ ಈ ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕಗಳು ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿ/ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿನಿಯರಿಗೆ ಸಾಮರ್ಥ್ಯ ಹಾಗೂ ಕೌಶಲ್ಯಗಳನ್ನು ಬೆಳೆಸಿಕೊಳ್ಳಲು ಸಹಾಯ ಮಾಡುತ್ತವೆ.

ರಾಷ್ಟ್ರೀಯ ಮಟ್ಟದ ಶೈಕ್ಷಣಿಕ ಸುಧಾರಣೆ ಹಾಗೂ ಅಭಿವೃದ್ಧಿಗಳನ್ನು ಗಮನದಲ್ಲಿರಿಸಿ ಕರ್ನಾಟಕ ರಾಜ್ಯದ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳೂ ಸಹ ರಾಷ್ಟ್ರೀಯ ಮಟ್ಟದಲ್ಲಿ ಶೈಕ್ಷಣಿಕವಾಗಿ ಹಾಗೂ ಸ್ಪರ್ಧಾತ್ಮಕ ಪರೀಕ್ಷೆಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಯಶಸ್ವಿಯಾಗಿ ತಮ್ಮ ಸಾಧನೆಯನ್ನು ಮಾಡಲು ಈ ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕ ಸಹಕಾರಿಯಾಗಲಿ ಎಂಬುವುದೇ ಸಾರ್ವಜನಿಕ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ ಇಲಾಖೆಯ ಪ್ರಮುಖ ಆಶಯವಾಗಿದೆ.

ಈ ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕವು ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿ ಸ್ನೇಹಿ ಹಾಗೂ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕ ಸ್ನೇಹಿಯಾಗಿದೆ. ಗಣಿತ ಕಲಿಕೆ ಸಂತೋಷದಾಯಕ ಹಾಗೂ ಅರ್ಥಪೂರ್ಣವಾಗುವಂತೆ ಮಾಡಲು ಈ ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕವು ಸೂಕ್ತವಾದ ದಾರಿಯನ್ನು ರೂಪಿಸುತ್ತದೆಯೆಂದು ನಾವು ಭಾವಿಸುತ್ತೇವೆ.

ಈ ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕವನ್ನು ಹೆಚ್ಚು ಉತ್ತಮಪಡಿಸಲು ತಜ್ಞರಿಂದ, ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರಿಂದ, ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳಿಂದ ಮತ್ತು ಪೋಷಕರಿಂದ ರಚನಾ ಸಲಹೆಗಳನ್ನು ಮತ್ತು ಟೀಕೆಗಳನ್ನು ಸ್ವಾಗತಿಸುತ್ತೇವೆ.

ಈ ಪಠ್ಯಪುಸ್ತಕವನ್ನು ನಮ್ಮ ರಾಜ್ಯದಲ್ಲಿ ಜಾರಿಗೆ ತರಲು ಅನುಮತಿ, ಸಹಕಾರ ಹಾಗೂ ಮಾರ್ಗದರ್ಶನವನ್ನು ನೀಡಿದ ಎನ್.ಸಿ.ಇ.ಆರ್.ಟಿ ಸಂಸ್ಥೆ ನವದೆಹಲಿ ಹಾಗೂ ಆ ಸಂಸ್ಥೆಯ ಅಧಿಕಾರಿಗಳಿಗೂ ಇಲಾಖೆ ತನ್ನ ಹೃತ್ಪೂರ್ವಕ ಕೃತಜ್ಞತೆಗಳನ್ನು ಅರ್ಪಿಸುತ್ತದೆ.

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Textbook Development Committee

Chairman, Advisory Group for textbooks in Science and Mathematics

J.V. Narlikar, *Emeritus Professor,* Chairman, Advisory Committee Inter University Centre for Astronomy & Astrophysics (IUCCA), Ganeshbhind, Pune University, Pune

Chief Advisor

Rupamanjari Ghosh, *Professor*, School of Physical Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi

Members

Anjni Koul, *Lecturer*, Department of Education in Science and Mathematics (DESM), NCERT, New Delhi

Anupam Pachauri, 1317, Sector 37, Faridabad, Haryana

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Satyajit Rath, *Scientist*, National Institute of Immunology, JNU Campus, New Delhi

Sukhvir Singh, *Reader*, DESM, Regional Institute of Education, Ajmer, Rajasthan

Uma Sudhir, Eklavya, Indore

Member-coordinator

Brahm Parkash, *Professor*, DESM, NCERT, New Delhi

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Chapter 1

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MATTER IN OUR SURROUNDINGS

As we look at our surroundings, we see a large variety of things with different shapes, sizes and textures. Everything in this universe is made up of material which scientists have named "matter". The air we breathe, the food we eat, stones, clouds, stars, plants and animals, even a small drop of water or a particle of sand — every thing is matter. We can also see as we look around that all the things mentioned above occupy space and have mass. In other words, they have both mass* and volume**.

Since early times, human beings have been trying to understand their surroundings. Early Indian philosophers classified matter in the form of five basic elements — the *"Panch Tatva"* — air, earth, fire, sky and water. According to them everything, living or non-living, was made up of these five basic elements. Ancient Greek philosophers had arrived at a similar classification of matter.

Modern day scientists have evolved two types of classification of matter based on their physical properties and chemical nature.

In this chapter we shall learn about matter based on its physical properties. Chemical aspects of matter will be taken up in subsequent chapters.

1.1 Physical Nature of Matter

1.1.1 Matter is made up of particles

For a long time, two schools of thought prevailed regarding the nature of matter. One school believed matter to be continuous like a block of wood, whereas, the other thought that matter was made up of particles like sand. Let us perform an activity to decide about the nature of matter — is it continuous or particulate?

Activity 1.1

- Take a 100 mL beaker.
- Fill half the beaker with water and mark the level of water.
- Dissolve some salt/ sugar with the help of a glass rod.
- Observe any change in water level.
- What do you think has happened to the salt?
- Where does it disappear?
- Does the level of water change?

In order to answer these questions we need to use the idea that matter is made up of particles. What was there in the spoon, salt or sugar, has now spread throughout water. This is illustrated in Fig. 1.1.

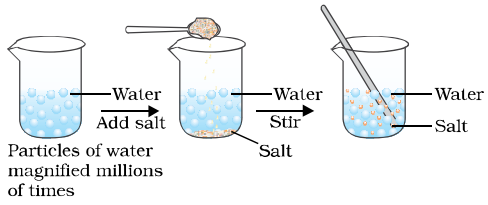


Fig. 1.1: When we dissolve salt in water, the particles of salt get into the spaces between particles of water.

1.1.2 How small are these particles of matter?

Activity 1.2

- Take 2–3 crystals of potassium permanganate and dissolve them in 100 mL of water.

* The SI unit of mass is kilogram (kg).

** The SI unit of volume is cubic metre (m^3). The common unit of measuring volume is litre (L) such that 1L = 1 dm^3, 1L = 1000 mL, 1 mL = 1 cm^3.

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- Take out approximately 10 mL of this solution and put it into 90 mL of clear water.
- Take out 10 mL of this solution and put it into another 90 mL of clear water.
- Keep diluting the solution like this 5 to 8 times.
- Is the water still coloured ?

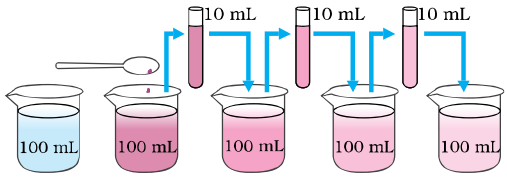


Fig. 1.2: Estimating how small are the particles of matter. With every dilution, though the colour becomes light, it is still visible.

This experiment shows that just a few crystals of potassium permanganate can colour a large volume of water (about 1000 L). So we conclude that there must be millions of tiny particles in just one crystal of potassium permanganate, which keep on dividing themselves into smaller and smaller particles.

The same activity can be done using 2 ml of Dettol instead of potassium permanganate. The smell can be detected even on repeated dilution.

The particles of matter are very small – they are small beyond our imagination!!!!

1.2 Characteristics of Particles of Matter

1.2.1 Particles of Matter have Space between them

In activities 1.1 and 1.2 we saw that particles of sugar, salt, Dettol, or potassium permanganate got evenly distributed in water. Similarly, when we make tea, coffee or lemonade (*nimbu paani*), particles of one type of matter get into the spaces between particles of the other. This shows that there is enough space between particles of matter.

1.2.2 Particles of Matter are Continuously Moving

Activity 1.3

- Put an unlit incense stick in a corner of your class. How close do you have to go near it so as to get its smell?
- Now light the incense stick. What happens? Do you get the smell sitting at a distance?
- Record your observations.

Activity 1.4

- Take two glasses/beakers filled with water.
- Put a drop of blue or red ink slowly and carefully along the sides of the first beaker and honey in the same way in the second beaker.
- Leave them undisturbed in your house or in a corner of the class.
- Record your observations.
- What do you observe immediately after adding the ink drop?
- What do you observe immediately after adding a drop of honey?
- How many hours or days does it take for the colour of ink to spread evenly throughout the water?

Activity 1.5

- Drop a crystal of copper sulphate or potassium permanganate into a glass of hot water and another containing cold water. Do not stir the solution. Allow the crystals to settle at the bottom.
- What do you observe just above the solid crystal in the glass?
- What happens as time passes?
- What does this suggest about the particles of solid and liquid?
- Does the rate of mixing change with temperature? Why and how?

From the above three activities (1.3, 1.4 and 1.5), we can conclude the following:

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Particles of matter are continuously moving, that is, they possess what we call the kinetic energy. As the temperature rises, particles move faster. So, we can say that with increase in temperature the kinetic energy of the particles also increases.

In the above three activities we observe that particles of matter intermix on their own with each other. They do so by getting into the spaces between the particles. This intermixing of particles of two different types of matter on their own is called diffusion. We also observe that on heating, diffusion becomes faster. Why does this happen?

1.2.3 Particles of Matter Attract Each Other

Activity 1.6

- Play this game in the field— make four groups and form human chains as suggested:
- The first group should hold each other from the back and lock arms like Idu-Mishmi dancers (Fig. 1.3).



Fig. 1.3

- The second group should hold hands to form a human chain.
- The third group should form a chain by touching each other with only their finger tips.
- Now, the fourth group of students should run around and try to break the three human chains one by one into as many small groups as possible.
- Which group was the easiest to break? Why?
- If we consider each student as a particle of matter, then in which group the particles held each other with the maximum force?

Activity 1.7

- Take an iron nail, a piece of chalk and a rubber band.
- Try breaking them by hammering, cutting or stretching.
- In which of the above three substances do you think the particles are held together with greater force?

Activity 1.8

- Take some water in a container, try cutting the surface of water with your fingers.
- Were you able to cut the surface of water?
- What could be the reason behind the surface of water remaining together?

The above three activities (1.6, 1.7 and 1.8) suggest that particles of matter have force acting between them. This force keeps the particles together. The strength of this force of attraction varies from one kind of matter to another.

Questions

1. *Which of the following are matter?*
   Chair, air, love, smell, hate, almonds, thought, cold, lemon water, smell of perfume.
2. *Give reasons for the following observation:*
   The smell of hot sizzling food reaches you several metres away, but to get the smell from cold food you have to go close.
3. *A diver is able to cut through water in a swimming pool. Which property of matter does this observation show?*
4. *What are the characteristics of the particles of matter?*

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1.3 States of Matter

Observe different types of matter around you. What are its different states? We can see that matter around us exists in three different states– solid, liquid and gas. These states of matter arise due to the variation in the characteristics of the particles of matter.

Now, let us study about the properties of these three states of matter in detail.

1.3.1 The Solid State

Activity 1.9

- Collect the following articles — a pen, a book, a needle and a piece of wooden stick.
- Sketch the shape of the above articles in your notebook by moving a pencil around them.
- Do all these have a definite shape, distinct boundaries and a fixed volume?
- What happens if they are hammered, pulled or dropped?
- Are these capable of diffusing into each other?
- Try compressing them by applying force. Are you able to compress them?

All the above are examples of solids. We can observe that all these have a definite shape, distinct boundaries and fixed volumes, that is, have negligible compressibility. Solids have a tendency to maintain their shape when subjected to outside force. Solids may break under force but it is difficult to change their shape, so they are rigid.

Consider the following:

(a) What about a rubber band, can it change its shape on stretching? Is it a solid?

(b) What about sugar and salt? When kept in different jars these take the shape of the jar. Are they solid?

(c) What about a sponge? It is a solid yet we are able to compress it. Why?

All the above are solids as:

- A rubber band changes shape under force and regains the same shape when the force is removed. If excessive force is applied, it breaks.
- The shape of each individual sugar or salt crystal remains fixed, whether we take it in our hand, put it in a plate or in a jar.
- A sponge has minute holes, in which air is trapped, when we press it, the air is expelled out and we are able to compress it.

1.3.2 The Liquid State

Activity 1.10

- Collect the following:
  (a) water, cooking oil, milk, juice, a cold drink.
  (b) containers of different shapes. Put a 50 mL mark on these containers using a measuring cylinder from the laboratory.
- What will happen if these liquids are spilt on the floor?
- Measure 50 mL of any one liquid and transfer it into different containers one by one. Does the volume remain the same?
- Does the shape of the liquid remain the same ?
- When you pour the liquid from one container into another, does it flow easily?

We observe that liquids have no fixed shape but have a fixed volume. They take up the shape of the container in which they are kept. Liquids flow and change shape, so they are not rigid but can be called fluid.

Refer to activities 1.4 and 1.5 where we saw that solids and liquids can diffuse into liquids. The gases from the atmosphere diffuse and dissolve in water. These gases, especially oxygen and carbon dioxide, are essential for the survival of aquatic animals and plants.

All living creatures need to breathe for survival. The aquatic animals can breathe under water due to the presence of dissolved oxygen in water. Thus, we may conclude that solids, liquids and gases can diffuse into liquids. The rate of diffusion of liquids is

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higher than that of solids. This is due to the fact that in the liquid state, particles move freely and have greater space between each other as compared to particles in the solid state.

1.3.3 The Gaseous State

Have you ever observed a balloon seller filling a large number of balloons from a single cylinder of gas? Enquire from him how many balloons is he able to fill from one cylinder. Ask him which gas does he have in the cylinder.

Activity 1.11

- Take three 100 mL syringes and close their nozzles by rubber corks, as shown in Fig.1.4.
- Remove the pistons from all the syringes.
- Leaving one syringe untouched, fill water in the second and pieces of chalk in the third.
- Insert the pistons back into the syringes. You may apply some vaseline on the pistons before inserting them into the syringes for their smooth movement.
- Now, try to compress the content by pushing the piston in each syringe.

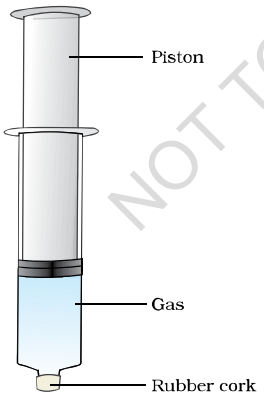


Fig. 1.4

- What do you observe? In which case was the piston easily pushed in?
- What do you infer from your observations?

We have observed that gases are highly compressible as compared to solids and liquids. The liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) cylinder that we get in our home for cooking or the oxygen supplied to hospitals in cylinders is compressed gas. Compressed natural gas (CNG) is used as fuel these days in vehicles. Due to its high compressibility, large volumes of a gas can be compressed into a small cylinder and transported easily.

We come to know of what is being cooked in the kitchen without even entering there, by the smell that reaches our nostrils. How does this smell reach us? The particles of the aroma of food mix with the particles of air spread from the kitchen, reach us and even farther away. The smell of hot cooked food reaches us in seconds; compare this with the rate of diffusion of solids and liquids. Due to high speed of particles and large space between them, gases show the property of diffusing very fast into other gases.

In the gaseous state, the particles move about randomly at high speed. Due to this random movement, the particles hit each other and also the walls of the container. The pressure exerted by the gas is because of this force exerted by gas particles per unit area on the walls of the container.

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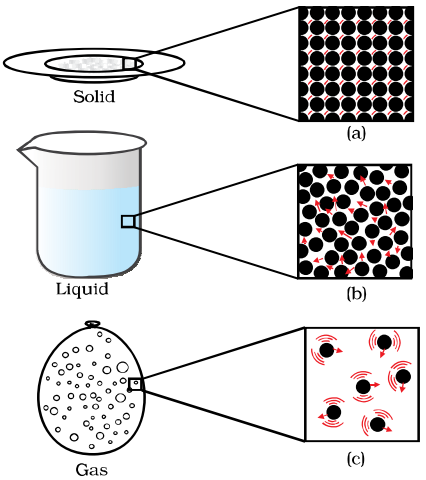


Fig.1.5: a, b and c show the magnified schematic pictures of the three states of matter. The motion of the particles can be seen and compared in the three states of matter.

Questions

1. *The mass per unit volume of a substance is called density. (density = mass/volume). Arrange the following in order of increasing density – air, exhaust from chimneys, honey, water, chalk, cotton and iron.*
2. *(a) Tabulate the differences in the characterisitcs of states of matter.*
   (b) Comment upon the following: rigidity, compressibility, fluidity, filling a gas container, shape, kinetic energy and density.
3. *Give reasons*
   (a) A gas fills completely the vessel in which it is kept.
   (b) A gas exerts pressure on the walls of the container.
   (c) A wooden table should be called a solid.
   (d) We can easily move our hand in air but to do the same through a solid block of wood we need a karate expert.
4. *Liquids generally have lower density as compared to solids. But you must have observed that ice floats on water. Find out why.*

1.4 Can Matter Change its State?

We all know from our observation that water can exist in three states of matter–

- solid, as ice,
- liquid, as the familiar water, and
- gas, as water vapour.

What happens inside the matter during this change of state? What happens to the particles of matter during the change of states? How does this change of state take place? We need answers to these questions, isn't it?

1.4.1 Effect of Change of Temperature

Activity 1.12

- Take about 150 g of ice in a beaker and suspend a laboratory thermometer so that its bulb is in contact with the ice, as in Fig. 1.6.

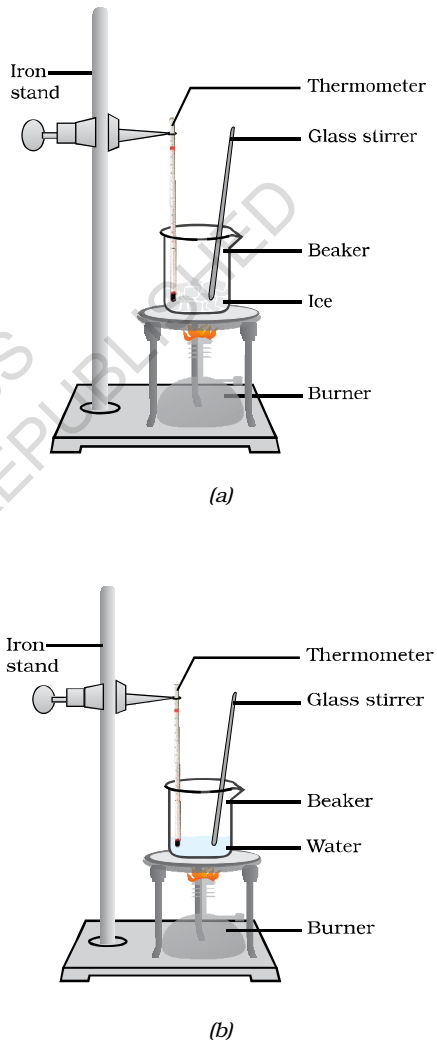


Fig. 1.6: (a) Conversion of ice to water, (b) conversion of water to water vapour

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- Start heating the beaker on a low flame.
- Note the temperature when the ice starts melting.
- Note the temperature when all the ice has converted into water.
- Record your observations for this conversion of solid to liquid state.
- Now, put a glass rod in the beaker and heat while stirring till the water starts boiling.
- Keep a careful eye on the thermometer reading till most of the water has vaporised.
- Record your observations for the conversion of water in the liquid state to the gaseous state.

On increasing the temperature of solids, the kinetic energy of the particles increases. Due to the increase in kinetic energy, the particles start vibrating with greater speed. The energy supplied by heat overcomes the forces of attraction between the particles. The particles leave their fixed positions and start moving more freely. A stage is reached when the solid melts and is converted to a liquid. The minimum temperature at which a solid melts to become a liquid at the atmospheric pressure is called its melting point.

The melting point of a solid is an indication of the strength of the force of attraction between its particles.

The melting point of ice is 273.15 K*. The process of melting, that is, change of solid state into liquid state is also known as fusion. **When a solid melts, its temperature remains the same, so where does the heat energy go?**

You must have observed, during the experiment of melting, that the temperature of the system does not change after the melting point is reached, till all the ice melts. This happens even though we continue to heat the beaker, that is, we continue to supply heat. This heat gets used up in changing the state by overcoming the forces of attraction between the particles. As this heat energy is absorbed by ice without showing any rise in temperature, it is considered that it gets hidden into the contents of the beaker and is known as the latent heat. The word latent means hidden. The amount of heat energy that is required to change 1 kg of a solid into liquid at atmospheric pressure at its melting point is known as the latent heat of fusion. So, particles in water at 0°C (273 K) have more energy as compared to particles in ice at the same temperature.

When we supply heat energy to water, particles start moving even faster. At a certain temperature, a point is reached when the particles have enough energy to break free from the forces of attraction of each other. At this temperature the liquid starts changing into gas. The temperature at which a liquid starts boiling at the atmospheric pressure is known as its boiling point. Boiling is a bulk phenomenon. Particles from the bulk of the liquid gain enough energy to change into the vapour state.

For water this temperature is 373 K (100°C = 273 + 100 = 373 K).

Can you define the latent heat of vaporisation? Do it in the same way as we have defined the latent heat of fusion. Particles in steam, that is, water vapour at 373 K (100° C) have more energy than water at the same temperature. This is because particles in steam have absorbed extra energy in the form of latent heat of vaporisation.



So, we infer that the state of matter can be changed into another state by changing the temperature.

We have learnt that substances around us change state from solid to liquid and from liquid to gas on application of heat. But there

*Note: *Kelvin* is the SI unit of temperature, 0° C =273.15 K. For convenience, we take 0° C = 273 K after rounding off the decimal. To change a temperature on the Kelvin scale to the Celsius scale you have to subtract 273 from the given temperature, and to convert a temperature on the Celsius scale to the Kelvin scale you have to add 273 to the given temperature.

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are some that change directly from solid state to gaseous state and vice versa without changing into the liquid state.

Activity 1.13

- Take some camphor. Crush it and put it in a china dish.
- Put an inverted funnel over the china dish.
- Put a cotton plug on the stem of the funnel, as shown in Fig. 1.7.

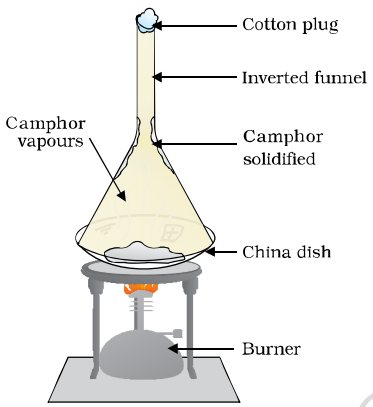


Fig. 1.7: Sublimation of camphor

- Now, heat slowly and observe.
- What do you infer from the above activity?

A change of state directly from solid to gas without changing into liquid state is called sublimation and the direct change of gas to solid without changing into liquid is called deposition.

1.4.2 Effect of Change of Pressure

We have already learnt that the difference in various states of matter is due to the difference in the distances between the constituent particles. What will happen when we start putting pressure and compress a gas enclosed in a cylinder? Will the particles come closer? Do you think that increasing or decreasing the pressure can change the state of matter?

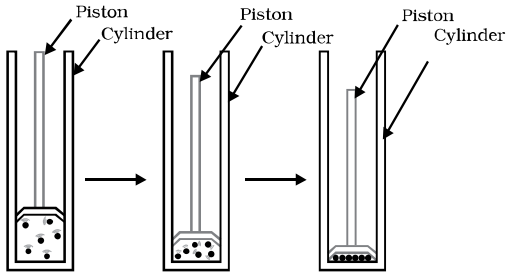


Fig. 1.8: By applying pressure, particles of matter can be brought close together

Applying pressure and reducing temperature can liquefy gases.

Have you heard of solid carbon dioxide (CO_2)? It is stored under high pressure. Solid CO_2 gets converted directly into gaseous state on decrease of pressure to 1 atmosphere* without coming into liquid state. This is the reason that solid carbon dioxide is also known as dry ice.

Thus, we can say that pressure and temperature determine the state of a substance, whether it will be solid, liquid or gas.

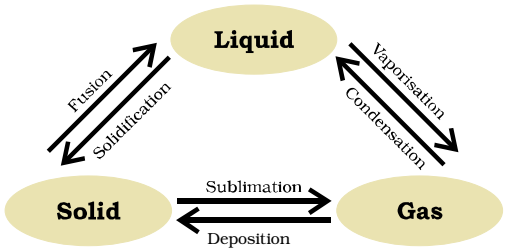


Fig. 1.9: Interconversion of the three states of matter

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* *atmosphere (atm)* is a unit of measuring pressure exerted by a gas. The unit of pressure is Pascal (Pa): 1 atmosphere = 1.01×10^5 Pa. The pressure of air in atmosphere is called atmospheric pressure. The atmospheric pressure at sea level is 1 atmosphere, and is taken as the normal atmospheric pressure.

Questions

1. *Convert the following temperature to celsius scale:*
   a. 300 K b. 573 K
2. *What is the physical state of water at:*
   a. 250°C b. 100°C ?
3. *For any substance, why does the temperature remain constant during the change of state?*
4. *Suggest a method to liquefy atmospheric gases.*

1.5 Evaporation

Do we always need to heat or change pressure for changing the state of matter? Can you quote some examples from everyday life where change of state from liquid to vapour takes place without the liquid reaching the boiling point? Water, when left uncovered, slowly changes into vapour. Wet clothes dry up. What happens to water in the above two examples?

We know that particles of matter are always moving and are never at rest. At a given temperature in any gas, liquid or solid, there are particles with different amounts of kinetic energy. In the case of liquids, a small fraction of particles at the surface, having higher kinetic energy, is able to break away from the forces of attraction of other particles and gets converted into vapour. This phenomenon of change of liquid into vapours at any temperature below its boiling point is called evaporation.

1.5.1 Factors affecting evaporation

Let us understand this with an activity.

Activity 1.14

- Take 5 mL of water in a test tube and keep it near a window or under a fan.
- Take 5 mL of water in an open china dish and keep it near a window or under a fan.
- Take 5 mL of water in an open china dish and keep it inside a cupboard or on a shelf in your class.
- Record the room temperature.
- Record the time or days taken for the evaporation process in the above cases.
- Repeat the above three steps of activity on a rainy day and record your observations.
- What do you infer about the effect of temperature, surface area and wind velocity (speed) on evaporation?

You must have observed that the rate of evaporation increases with–

- an increase of surface area:
  We know that evaporation is a surface phenomenon. If the surface area is increased, the rate of evaporation increases. For example, while putting clothes for drying up we spread them out.
- an increase of temperature:
  With the increase of temperature, more number of particles get enough kinetic energy to go into the vapour state.
- a decrease in humidity:
  Humidity is the amount of water vapour present in air. The air around us cannot hold more than a definite amount of water vapour at a given temperature. If the amount of water in air is already high, the rate of evaporation decreases.
- an increase in wind speed:
  It is a common observation that clothes dry faster on a windy day. With the increase in wind speed, the particles of water vapour move away with the wind, decreasing the amount of water vapour in the surrounding.

1.5.2 How does evaporation cause cooling?

In an open vessel, the liquid keeps on evaporating. The particles of liquid absorb energy from the surrounding to regain the energy lost during evaporation. This absorption of energy from the surroundings make the surroundings cold.

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What happens when you pour some acetone (nail polish remover) on your palm? The particles gain energy from your palm or surroundings and evaporate causing the palm to feel cool.

After a hot sunny day, people sprinkle water on the roof or open ground because the large latent heat of vaporisation of water helps to cool the hot surface.

Can you cite some more examples from daily life where we can feel the effect of cooling due to evaporation?

Why should we wear cotton clothes in summer?

During summer, we perspire more because of the mechanism of our body which keeps us cool. We know that during evaporation, the particles at the surface of the liquid gain energy from the surroundings or body surface and change into vapour. The heat energy equal to the latent heat of vaporisation is absorbed from the body leaving the body cool. Cotton, being a good absorber of water helps in absorbing the sweat and exposing it to the atmosphere for easy evaporation.

Why do we see water droplets on the outer surface of a glass containing ice-cold water?

Let us take some ice-cold water in a tumbler. Soon we will see water droplets on the outer surface of the tumbler. The water vapour present in air, on coming in contact with the cold glass of water, loses energy and gets converted to liquid state, which we see as water droplets.

Questions

1. *Why does a desert cooler cool better on a hot dry day?*
2. *How does the water kept in an earthen pot (matka) become cool during summer?*
3. *Why does our palm feel cold when we put some acetone or petrol or perfume on it?*
4. *Why are we able to sip hot tea or milk faster from a saucer rather than a cup?*
5. *What type of clothes should we wear in summer?*

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What you have learnt

- Matter is made up of small particles.
- The matter around us exists in three states—solid, liquid and gas.
- The forces of attraction between the particles are maximum in solids, intermediate in liquids and minimum in gases.
- The spaces in between the constituent particles and kinetic energy of the particles are minimum in the case of solids, intermediate in liquids and maximum in gases.

- The arrangement of particles is most ordered in the case of solids, in the case of liquids layers of particles can slip and slide over each other while for gases, there is no order, particles just move about randomly.
- The states of matter are inter-convertible. The state of matter can be changed by changing temperature or pressure.
- Sublimation is the change of solid state directly to gaseous state without going through liquid state.
- Deposition is the change of gaseous state directly to solid state without going through liquid state.
- Boiling is a bulk phenomenon. Particles from the bulk (whole) of the liquid change into vapour state.
- Evaporation is a surface phenomenon. Particles from the surface gain enough energy to overcome the forces of attraction present in the liquid and change into the vapour state.
- The rate of evaporation depends upon the surface area exposed to the atmosphere, the temperature, the humidity and the wind speed.
- Evaporation causes cooling.
- Latent heat of vaporisation is the heat energy required to change 1 kg of a liquid to gas at atmospheric pressure at its boiling point.
- Latent heat of fusion is the amount of heat energy required to change 1 kg of solid into liquid at its melting point.
- Some measurable quantities and their units to remember:

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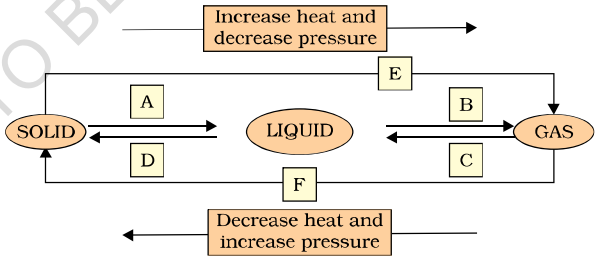
Quantity	Unit	Symbol
Temperature	kelvin	K
Length	metre	m
Mass	kilogram	kg
Weight	newton	N
Volume	cubic metre	m^3
Density	kilogram per cubic metre	kg m^{-3}
Pressure	pascal	Pa



Exercises

1. Convert the following temperatures to the celsius scale.
   (a) 293 K (b) 470 K
2. Convert the following temperatures to the kelvin scale.
   (a) 25° C (b) 373° C
3. Give reason for the following observations.
   (a) Naphthalene balls disappear with time without leaving any solid.
   (b) We can get the smell of perfume sitting several metres away.
4. Arrange the following substances in increasing order of forces of attraction between the particles— water, sugar, oxygen.
5. What is the physical state of water at—
   (a) 25° C (b) 0° C (c) 100° C ?
6. Give two reasons to justify—
   (a) water at room temperature is a liquid.
   (b) an iron almirah is a solid at room temperature.
7. Why is ice at 273 K more effective in cooling than water at the same temperature?
8. What produces more severe burns, boiling water or steam?
9. Name A,B,C,D,E and F in the following diagram showing change in its state

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Group Activity

Prepare a model to demonstrate movement of particles in solids, liquids and gases.

For making this model you will need

- A transparent jar
- A big rubber balloon or piece of stretchable rubber sheet
- A string
- Few chickpeas or black gram or dry green peas.

How to make?

- Put the seeds in the jar.
- Sew the string to the centre of the rubber sheet and put some tape to keep it tied securely.
- Stretch and tie the rubber sheet on the mouth of the jar.
- Your model is ready. Now run your fingers up and down the string by first tugging at it slowly and then rapidly.

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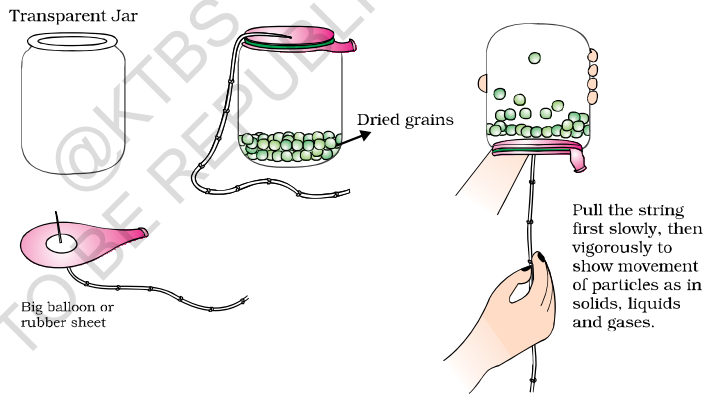


Fig. 1.10: A model for converting of solid to liquid and liquid to gas.

Chapter 2

0964CH02

Is Matter Around Us Pure?

How do we judge whether milk, ghee, butter, salt, spices, mineral water or juice that we buy from the market are pure?



Fig. 2.1: Some consumable items

Have you ever noticed the word 'pure' written on the packs of these consumables? For a common person pure means having no adulteration. But, for a scientist all these things are actually mixtures of different substances and hence not pure. For example, milk is actually a mixture of water, fat, proteins, etc. When a scientist says that something is pure, it means that all the constituent particles of that substance are the same in their chemical nature. A pure substance consists of a single type of particle. In other words, a substance is a pure single form of matter.

As we look around, we can see that most of the matter around us exists as mixtures of two or more pure components, for example, sea water, minerals, soil, etc., are all mixtures.

2.1 What is a Mixture?

Mixtures are constituted by more than one kind of pure form of matter. We know that dissolved sodium chloride can be separated from water by the physical process of evaporation. However, sodium chloride is itself a pure substance and cannot be separated by physical process into its chemical constituents. Similarly, sugar is a substance which contains only one kind of pure matter and its composition is the same throughout.

Soft drink and soil are not single pure substances. Whatever the source of a pure substance may be, it will always have the same characteristic properties.

Therefore, we can say that a mixture contains more than one pure substance.

2.1.1 Types of Mixtures

Depending upon the nature of the components that form a mixture, we can have different types of mixtures.

Activity 2.1

- Let us divide the class into groups A, B, C and D.
- Group A takes a beaker containing 50 mL of water and one spatula full of copper sulphate powder. Group B takes 50 mL of water and two spatula full of copper sulphate powder in a beaker.
- Groups C and D can take different amounts of copper sulphate and potassium permanganate or common salt (sodium chloride) and mix the given components to form a mixture.
- Report the observations on the uniformity in colour and texture.
- Groups A and B have obtained a mixture which has a uniform composition throughout. Such mixtures are called homogeneous mixtures or solutions. Some other examples of such mixtures are: (i) salt dissolved in water and (ii) sugar dissolved in water. Compare the

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colour of the solutions of the two groups. Though both the groups have obtained copper sulphate solution but the intensity of colour of the solutions is different. This shows that a homogeneous mixture can have a variable composition.

- Groups C and D have obtained mixtures, which contain physically distinct parts and have non-uniform compositions. Such mixtures are called heterogeneous mixtures. Mixtures of sodium chloride and iron filings, salt and sulphur, and oil and water are examples of heterogeneous mixtures.

Activity 2.2

- Let us again divide the class into four groups— A, B, C and D.
- Distribute the following samples to each group:
  - Few crystals of copper sulphate to group A.
  - One spatula full of copper sulphate to group B.
  - Chalk powder or wheat flour to group C.
  - Few drops of milk or ink to group D.
- Each group should add the given sample in water and stir properly using a glass rod. Are the particles in the mixture visible?
- Direct a beam of light from a torch through the beaker containing the mixture and observe from the front. Was the path of the beam of light visible?
- Leave the mixtures undisturbed for a few minutes (and set up the filtration apparatus in the meantime). Is the mixture stable or do the particles begin to settle after some time?
- Filter the mixture. Is there any residue on the filter paper?
- Discuss the results and form an opinion.

Groups A and B have got a solution.
Group C has got a suspension.
Group D has got a colloidal solution.

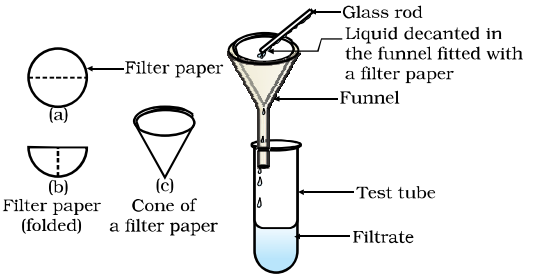


Fig. 2.2: *Filtration*

Now, we shall learn about solutions, suspensions and colloidal solutions in the following sections.

Questions

1. *What is meant by a substance?*
2. *List the points of differences between homogeneous and heterogeneous mixtures.*

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2.2 What is a Solution?

A solution is a homogeneous mixture of two or more substances. You come across various types of solutions in your daily life. Lemonade, soda water, etc., are all examples of solutions. Usually we think of a solution as a liquid that contains either a solid, liquid or a gas dissolved in it. But, we can also have solid solutions (alloys) and gaseous solutions (air). In a solution there is homogeneity at the particle level. For example, lemonade tastes the same throughout. This shows that particles of sugar or salt are evenly distributed in the solution.

More to know

Alloys: Alloys are mixtures of two or more metals or a metal and a non-metal and cannot be separated into their components by physical methods. But still, an alloy is considered as a mixture because it shows the properties of its constituents and can have variable composition. For example, brass is a mixture of approximately 30% zinc and 70% copper.

A solution has a solvent and a solute as its components. The component of the solution that dissolves the other component in it (usually the component present in larger amount) is called the solvent. The component of the solution that is dissolved in the solvent (usually present in lesser quantity) is called the solute.

Examples:

(i) A solution of sugar in water is a solid in liquid solution. In this solution, sugar is the solute and water is the solvent.

(ii) A solution of iodine in alcohol known as 'tincture of iodine', has iodine (solid) as the solute and alcohol (liquid) as the solvent.

(iii) Aerated drinks like soda water, etc., are gas in liquid solutions. These contain carbon dioxide (gas) as solute and water (liquid) as solvent.

(iv) Air is a mixture of gas in gas. Air is a homogeneous mixture of a number of gases. Its two main constituents are: oxygen (21%) and nitrogen (78%). The other gases are present in very small quantities.

Properties of a Solution

- A solution is a homogeneous mixture.
- The particles of a solution are smaller than 1 nm (10^{-9} metre) in diameter. So, they cannot be seen by naked eyes.
- Because of very small particle size, they do not scatter a beam of light passing through the solution. So, the path of light is not visible in a solution.
- The solute particles cannot be separated from the mixture by the process of filtration. The solute particles do not settle down when left undisturbed, that is, a solution is stable.

2.2.1 Concentration of a Solution

In activity 2.2, we observed that groups A and B obtained different shades of solutions. So, we understand that in a solution the relative proportion of the solute and solvent can be varied. Depending upon the amount of solute present in a solution, it can be called dilute, concentrated or saturated solution. Dilute and concentrated are comparative terms. In activity 2.2, the solution obtained by group A is dilute as compared to that obtained by group B.

Activity 2.3

- Take approximately 50 mL of water each in two separate beakers.
- Add salt in one beaker and sugar or barium chloride in the second beaker with continuous stirring.
- When no more solute can be dissolved, heat the contents of the beaker to raise the temperature by about 5°C.
- Start adding the solute again.

Is the amount of salt and sugar or barium chloride, that can be dissolved in water at a given temperature, the same?

At any particular temperature, a solution that has dissolved as much solute as it is capable of dissolving, is said to be a saturated solution. In other words, when no more solute can be dissolved in a solution at a given temperature, it is called a saturated solution. The amount of the solute present in the saturated solution at this temperature is called its solubility.

If the amount of solute contained in a solution is less than the saturation level, it is called an unsaturated solution.

What would happen if you were to take a saturated solution at a certain temperature and cool it slowly.

We can infer from the above activity that different substances in a given solvent have different solubilities at the same temperature.

The concentration of a solution is the amount (mass or volume) of solute present in a given amount (mass or volume) of solution.

There are various ways of expressing the concentration of a solution, but here we will learn only three methods.

(i) Mass by mass percentage of a solution

$$= \frac{\text{Mass of solute}}{\text{Mass of solution}} \times 100$$

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(ii) Mass by volume percentage of a solution

$$= \frac{\text{Mass of solute}}{\text{Volume of solution}} \times 100$$

(iii) Volume by volume percentage of a solution

$$= \frac{\text{Volume of solute}}{\text{Volume of solution}} \times 100$$

Example 2.1 A solution contains 40 g of common salt in 320 g of water. Calculate the concentration in terms of mass by mass percentage of the solution.

Solution:

Mass of solute (salt) = 40 g
Mass of solvent (water) = 320 g
We know,
Mass of solution = Mass of solute + Mass of solvent
= 40 g + 320 g
= 360 g

Mass percentage of solution

$$= \frac{\text{Mass of solute}}{\text{Mass of solution}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{40}{360} \times 100 = 11.1\%$$

2.2.2 What is a suspension?

Non-homogeneous systems, like those obtained by group C in activity 2.2, in which solids are dispersed in liquids, are called suspensions. A suspension is a heterogeneous mixture in which the solute particles do not dissolve but remain suspended throughout the bulk of the medium. Particles of a suspension are visible to the naked eye.

Properties of a Suspension

- Suspension is a heterogeneous mixture.
- The particles of a suspension can be seen by the naked eye.
- The particles of a suspension scatter a beam of light passing through it and make its path visible.
- The solute particles settle down when a suspension is left undisturbed, that is, a suspension is unstable. They can be separated from the mixture by the process of filtration. When the particles settle down, the suspension breaks and it does not scatter light any more.

2.2.3 What is a colloidal solution?

The mixture obtained by group D in activity 2.2 is called a colloid or a colloidal solution. The particles of a colloid are uniformly spread throughout the solution. Due to the relatively smaller size of particles, as compared to that of a suspension, the mixture appears to be homogeneous. But actually, a colloidal solution is a heterogeneous mixture, for example, milk.

Because of the small size of colloidal particles, we cannot see them with naked eyes. But, these particles can easily scatter a beam of visible light as observed in activity 2.2. This scattering of a beam of light is called the Tyndall effect after the name of the scientist who discovered this effect.

Tyndall effect can also be observed when a fine beam of light enters a room through a small hole. This happens due to the scattering of light by the particles of dust and smoke in the air.

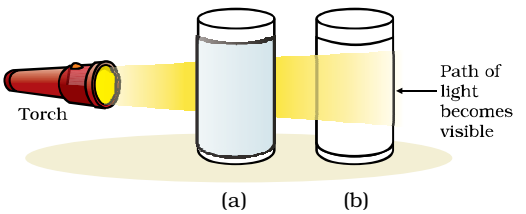


Fig. 2.3: (a) Solution of copper sulphate does not show Tyndall effect, (b) mixture of water and milk shows Tyndall effect.

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Tyndall effect can be observed when sunlight passes through the canopy of a dense forest. In the forest, mist contains tiny droplets of water, which act as particles of colloid dispersed in air.



Fig. 2.4: The Tyndall effect

Properties of a Colloid

- A colloid is a heterogeneous mixture.
- The size of particles of a colloid is too small to be individually seen with naked eyes.
- Colloids are big enough to scatter a beam of light passing through it and make its path visible.
- They do not settle down when left undisturbed, that is, a colloid is quite stable.
- They cannot be separated from the mixture by the process of filtration. But, a special technique of separation known as centrifugation (perform activity 2.5), can be used to separate the colloidal particles.

The components of a colloidal solution are the dispersed phase and the dispersion medium. The solute-like component or the dispersed particles in a colloid form the dispersed phase, and the component in which the dispersed phase is suspended is known as the dispersing medium. Colloids are classified according to the state (solid, liquid or gas) of the dispersing medium and the dispersed phase. A few common examples are given in Table 2.1. From this table you can see that they are very common everyday life.

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Questions

1. *Differentiate between homogen- eous and heterogeneous mixtures with examples.*
2. *How are sol, solution and suspension different from each other?*
3. *To make a saturated solution, 36 g of sodium chloride is dissolved in 100 g of water at 293 K. Find its concentration at this temperature.*

Table 2.1: Common examples of colloids

Dispersed phase	Dispersing Medium	Type	Example
Liquid	Gas	Aerosol	Fog, clouds, mist
Solid	Gas	Aerosol	Smoke, automobile exhaust
Gas	Liquid	Foam	Shaving cream
Liquid	Liquid	Emulsion	Milk, face cream
Solid	Liquid	Sol	Milk of magnesia, mud
Gas	Solid	Foam	Foam, rubber, sponge, pumice
Liquid	Solid	Gel	Jelly, cheese, butter
Solid	Solid	Solid Sol	Coloured gemstone, milky glass

2.3 Physical and Chemical Changes

In the previous chapter, we have learnt about a few physical properties of matter. The properties that can be observed and specified like colour, hardness, rigidity, fluidity, density, melting point, boiling point etc. are the physical properites.

The interconversion of states is a physical change because these changes occur without a change in composition and no change in the chemical nature of the substance. Although ice, water and water vapour all look different and display different physical properties, they are chemically the same.

Both water and cooking oil are liquid but their chemical characteristics are different. They differ in odour and inflammability. We know that oil burns in air whereas water extinguishes fire. It is this chemical property of oil that makes it different from water. Burning is a chemical change. During this process one substance reacts with another to undergo a change in chemical composition. Chemical change brings change in the chemical properties of matter and we get new substances. A chemical change is also called a chemical reaction.

During burning of a candle, both physical and chemical changes take place. Can you distinguish these?

Questions

1. *Classify the following as chemical or physical changes:*
   - *cutting of trees,*
   - *melting of butter in a pan,*
   - *rusting of almirah,*
   - *boiling of water to form steam,*
   - *passing of electric current, through water and the water breaking down into hydrogen and oxygen gases,*
   - *dissolving common salt in water,*
   - *making a fruit salad with raw fruits, and*
   - *burning of paper and wood.*
2. *Try segregating the things around you as pure substances or mixtures.*

2.4 What are the Types of Pure Substances?

On the basis of their chemical composition, substances can be classified either as elements or compounds.

2.4.1 Elements

Robert Boyle was the first scientist to use the term element in 1661. Antoine Laurent Lavoisier (1743–94), a French chemist, was the first to establish an experimentally useful definition of an element. He defined an element as a basic form of matter that cannot be broken down into simpler substances by chemical reactions.

Elements can be normally divided into metals, non-metals and metalloids.

Metals usually show some or all of the following properties:

- They have a lustre (shine).
- They have silvery-grey or golden-yellow colour.
- They conduct heat and electricity.
- They are ductile (can be drawn into wires).
- They are malleable (can be hammered into thin sheets).
- They are sonorous (make a ringing sound when hit).

Examples of metals are gold, silver, copper, iron, sodium, potassium etc. Mercury is the only metal that is liquid at room temperature.

Non-metals usually show some or all of the following properties:

- They display a variety of colours.
- They are poor conductors of heat and electricity.
- They are not lustrous, sonorous or malleable.

Examples of non-metals are hydrogen, oxygen, iodine, carbon (coal, coke), bromine,

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chlorine etc. Some elements have intermediate properties between those of metals and non-metals, they are called metalloids; examples are boron, silicon, germanium, etc.

More to know

- The number of elements known at present are more than 100. Ninety-two elements are naturally occurring and the rest are man-made.
- Majority of the elements are solid.
- Eleven elements are in gaseous state at room temperature.
- Two elements are liquid at room temperature—mercury and bromine.
- Elements, gallium and cesium become liquid at a temperature slightly above room temperature (303 K).

2.4.2 Compounds

A compound is a substance composed of two or more elements, chemically combined with one another in a fixed proportion.

What do we get when two or more elements are combined?

Activity 2.4

- Divide the class into two groups. Give 5 g of iron filings and 3 g of sulphur powder in a china dish to both the groups.

Group I

- Mix and crush iron filings and sulphur powder.

Group II

- Mix and crush iron filings and sulphur powder. Heat this mixture strongly till red hot. Remove from flame and let the mixture cool.

Groups I and II

- Check for magnetism in the material obtained. Bring a magnet near the material and check if the material is attracted towards the magnet.
- Compare the texture and colour of the material obtained by the groups.
- Add carbon disulphide to one part of the material obtained. Stir well and filter.
- Add dilute sulphuric acid or dilute hydrochloric acid to the other part of the material obtained. *(Note: teacher supervision is necessary for this activity).*
- Perform all the above steps with both the elements (iron and sulphur) separately.

Now answer

- *Did the material obtained by the two groups look the same?*
- *Which group has obtained a material with magnetic properties?*
- *Can we separate the components of the material obtained?*
- *On adding dilute sulphuric acid or dilute hydrochloric acid, did both the groups obtain a gas? Did the gas in both the cases smell the same or different?*

The gas obtained by Group I is hydrogen, it is colourless, odourless and combustible– it is not advised to do the combustion test for hydrogen in the class. The gas obtained by Group II is hydrogen sulphide. It is a colourless gas with the smell of rotten eggs.

You must have observed that the products obtained by both the groups show different properties, though the starting materials were the same. Group I has carried out the activity involving a physical change whereas in case of Group II, a chemical change (a chemical reaction) has taken place.

- The material obtained by group I is a mixture of the two substances. The substances given are the elements—iron and sulphur.
- The properties of the mixture are the same as that of its constituents.

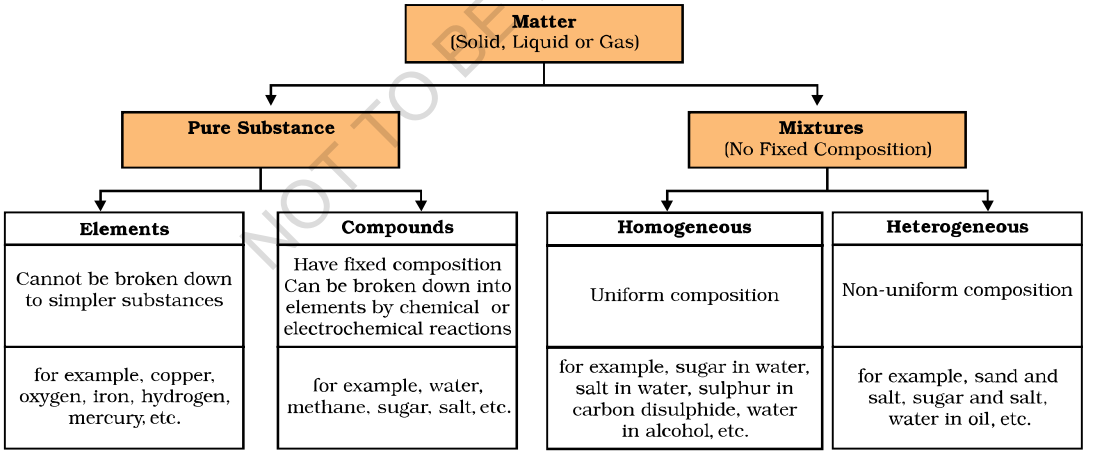
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Table 2.2: Mixtures and Compounds

Mixtures	Compounds
1. Elements or compounds just mix together to form a mixture and no new compound is formed.	1. Elements react to form new compounds.
2. A mixture has a variable composition.	2. The composition of each new substance is always fixed.
3. A mixture shows the properties of the constituent substances.	3. The new substance has totally different properties.
4. The constituents can be seperated fairly easily by physical methods.	4. The constituents can be separated only by chemical or electrochemical reactions.

- The material obtained by group II is a compound.
- On heating the two elements strongly we get a compound, which has totally different properties compared to the combining elements.
- The composition of a compound is the same throughout. We can also observe that the texture and the colour of the compound are the same throughout. Thus, we can summarise the physical and chemical nature of matter in the following graphical organiser:

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What you have learnt

- A mixture contains more than one substance (element and/or compound) mixed in any proportion.
- Mixtures can be separated into pure substances using appropriate separation techniques.
- A solution is a homogeneous mixture of two or more substances. The major component of a solution is called the solvent, and the minor, the solute.
- The concentration of a solution is the amount of solute present per unit volume or per unit mass of the solution.
- Materials that are insoluble in a solvent and have particles that are visible to naked eyes, form a suspension. A suspension is a heterogeneous mixture.
- Colloids are heterogeneous mixtures in which the particle size is too small to be seen with the naked eye, but is big enough to scatter light. Colloids are useful in industry and daily life. The particles are called the dispersed phase and the medium in which they are distributed is called the dispersion medium.
- Pure substances can be elements or compounds. An element is a form of matter that cannot be broken down by chemical reactions into simpler substances. A compound is a substance composed of two or more different types of elements, chemically combined in a fixed proportion.
- Properties of a compound are different from its constituent elements, whereas a mixture shows the properties of its constituting elements or compounds.

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Exercises

1. Write the steps you would use for making tea. Use the words solution, solvent, solute, dissolve, soluble, insoluble, filtrate and residue.
2. Pragya tested the solubility of three different substances at different temperatures and collected the data as given below (results are given in the following table, as grams of substance dissolved in 100 grams of water to form a saturated solution).

Substance Dissolved	Temperature in K				
	283	293	313	333	353
	Solubility				
Potassium nitrate	21	32	62	106	167
Sodium chloride	36	36	36	37	37
Potassium chloride	35	35	40	46	54
Ammonium chloride	24	37	41	55	66

   (a) What mass of potassium nitrate would be needed to produce a saturated solution of potassium nitrate in 50 grams of water at 313 K?

   (b) Pragya makes a saturated solution of potassium chloride in water at 353 K and leaves the solution to cool at room temperature. What would she observe as the solution cools? Explain.

   (c) Find the solubility of each salt at 293 K. Which salt has the highest solubility at this temperature?

   (d) What is the effect of change of temperature on the solubility of a salt?

3. Explain the following giving examples.
   (a) Saturated solution
   (b) Pure substance
   (c) Colloid
   (d) Suspension
4. Classify each of the following as a homogeneous or heterogeneous mixture.

   soda water, wood, air, soil, vinegar, filtered tea.
5. How would you confirm that a colourless liquid given to you is pure water?

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6. Which of the following materials fall in the category of a "pure substance"?
   (a) Ice
   (b) Milk
   (c) Iron
   (d) Hydrochloric acid
   (e) Calcium oxide
   (f) Mercury
   (g) Brick
   (h) Wood
   (i) Air
7. Identify the solutions among the following mixtures.
   (a) Soil
   (b) Sea water
   (c) Air
   (d) Coal
   (e) Soda water
8. Which of the following will show "Tyndall effect"?
   (a) Salt solution
   (b) Milk
   (c) Copper sulphate solution
   (d) Starch solution
9. Classify the following into elements, compounds and mixtures.
   (a) Sodium
   (b) Soil
   (c) Sugar solution
   (d) Silver
   (e) Calcium carbonate
   (f) Tin
   (g) Silicon
   (h) Coal
   (i) Air
   (j) Soap
   (k) Methane
   (l) Carbon dioxide
   (m) Blood
10. Which of the following are chemical changes?
   (a) Growth of a plant
   (b) Rusting of iron

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(c) Mixing of iron filings and sand
(d) Cooking of food
(e) Digestion of food
(f) Freezing of water
(g) Burning of a candle

Group Activity



Take an earthen pot (*mutka*), some pebbles and sand. Design a small-scale filtration plant that you could use to clean muddy water.

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Chapter 5

0964CH05

THE FUNDAMENTAL UNIT OF LIFE

While examining a thin slice of cork, Robert Hooke saw that the cork resembled the structure of a honeycomb consisting of many little compartments. Cork is a substance which comes from the bark of a tree. This was in the year 1665 when Hooke made this chance observation through a self-designed microscope. Robert Hooke called these boxes cells. Cell is a Latin word for 'a little room'.

This may seem to be a very small and insignificant incident but it is very important in the history of science. This was the very first time that someone had observed that living things appear to consist of separate units. The use of the word 'cell' to describe these units is being used till this day in biology.

Let us find out about cells.

5.1 What are Living Organisms Made Up of?

Activity 5.1

- Let us take a small piece from an onion bulb. With the help of a pair of forceps, we can peel off the skin (called epidermis) from the concave side (inner layer) of the onion. This layer can be put immediately in a watch-glass containing water. This will prevent the peel from getting folded or getting dry. What do we do with this peel?
- Let us take a glass slide, put a drop of water on it and transfer a small piece of the peel from the watch glass to the slide. Make sure that the peel is perfectly flat on the slide. A thin camel hair paintbrush might be necessary to help transfer the peel. Now we put a drop of safranin solution on this piece followed by a cover slip. Take care to avoid air bubbles while putting the cover slip with the help of a mounting needle. Ask your teacher for help. We have prepared a temporary mount of onion peel. We can observe this slide under low power followed by high powers of a compound microscope.

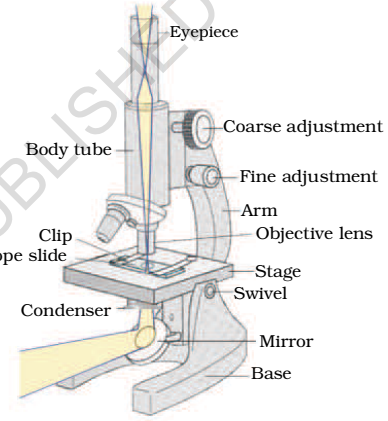


Fig. 5.1: Compound microscope

What do we observe as we look through the lens? Can we draw the structures that we are able to see through the microscope, on an observation sheet? Does it look like Fig. 5.2?

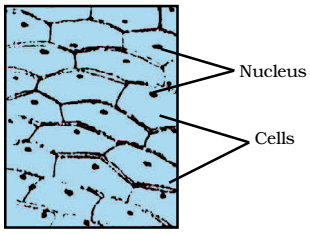


Fig. 5.2: Cells of an onion peel

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We can try preparing temporary mounts of peels of onions of different sizes. What do we observe? Do we see similar structures or different structures?

What are these structures?

These structures look similar to each other. Together they form a big structure like an onion bulb! We find from this activity that onion bulbs of different sizes have similar small structures visible under a microscope. The cells of the onion peel will all look the same, regardless of the size of the onion they came from.

These small structures that we see are the basic building units of the onion bulb. These structures are called cells. Not only onions, but all organisms that we observe around are made up of cells. However, there are also single cells that live on their own.

More to know

Cells were first discovered by Robert Hooke in 1665. He observed the cells in a cork slice with the help of a primitive microscope. Leeuwenhoek (1674), with the improved microscope, discovered the free living cells in pond water for the first time. It was Robert Brown in 1831 who discovered the nucleus in the cell. Purkinje in 1839 coined the term 'protoplasm' for the fluid substance of the cell. The cell theory, that all the plants and animals are composed of cells and that the cell is the basic unit of life, was presented by two biologists, Schleiden (1838) and Schwann (1839). The cell theory was further expanded by Virchow (1855) by suggesting that all cells arise from pre-existing cells. With the discovery of the electron microscope in 1940, it was possible to observe and understand the complex structure of the cell and its various organelles.

The invention of magnifying lenses led to the discovery of the microscopic world. It is now known that a single cell may constitute a whole organism as in *Amoeba*, *Chlamydomonas*, *Paramoecium* and bacteria. These organisms are called unicellular organisms (uni = single). On the other hand, many cells group together in a single body and assume different functions in it to form various body parts in multicellular organisms (multi = many) such as some fungi, plants and animals. Can we find out names of some more unicellular organisms?

Every multi-cellular organism has come from a single cell. How? Cells divide to produce cells of their own kind. All cells thus come from pre-existing cells.

Activity 5.2

- We can try preparing temporary mounts of leaf peels, tip of roots of onion or even peels of onions of different sizes.
- After performing the above activity, let us see what the answers to the following questions would be:
  (a) Do all cells look alike in terms of shape and size?
  (b) Do all cells look alike in structure?
  (c) Could we find differences among cells from different parts of a plant body?
  (d) What similarities could we find?

Some organisms can also have cells of different kinds. Look at the following picture. It depicts some cells from the human body.

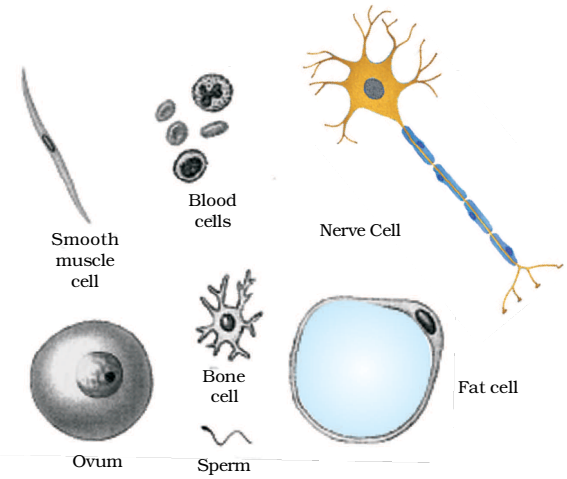


Fig. 5.3: Various cells from the human body

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The shape and size of cells are related to the specific function they perform. Some cells like *Amoeba* have changing shapes. In some cases the cell shape could be more or less fixed and peculiar for a particular type of cell; for example, nerve cells have a typical shape.

Each living cell has the capacity to perform certain basic functions that are characteristic of all living forms. How does a living cell perform these basic functions? We know that there is a division of labour in multicellular organisms such as human beings. This means that different parts of the human body perform different functions. The human body has a heart to pump blood, a stomach to digest food and so on. Similarly, division of labour is also seen within a single cell. In fact, each such cell has got certain specific components within it known as cell organelles. Each kind of cell organelle performs a special function, such as making new material in the cell, clearing up the waste material from the cell and so on. A cell is able to live and perform all its functions because of these organelles. These organelles together constitute the basic unit called the cell. It is interesting that all cells are found to have the same organelles, no matter what their function is or what organism they are found in.

Questions

1. *Who discovered cells, and how?*
2. *Why is the cell called the structural and functional unit of life?*

5.2 What is a Cell Made Up of? What is the Structural Organisation of a Cell?

We saw above that the cell has special components called organelles. How is a cell organised?

If we study a cell under a microscope, we would come across three features in almost every cell; plasma membrane, nucleus and cytoplasm. All activities inside the cell and interactions of the cell with its environment are possible due to these features. Let us see how.

5.2.1 Plasma Membrane or Cell Membrane

This is the outermost covering of the cell that separates the contents of the cell from its external environment. The plasma membrane allows or permits the entry and exit of some materials in and out of the cell. It also prevents movement of some other materials. The cell membrane, therefore, is called a selectively permeable membrane.

How does the movement of substances take place into the cell? How do substances move out of the cell?

Some substances like carbon dioxide or oxygen can move across the cell membrane by a process called diffusion. We have studied the process of diffusion in earlier chapters. We saw that there is spontaneous movement of a substance from a region of high concentration to a region where its concentration is low.

Something similar to this happens in cells when, for example, some substance like CO_2 (which is cellular waste and requires to be excreted out by the cell) accumulates in high concentrations inside the cell. In the cell's external environment, the concentration of CO_2 is low as compared to that inside the cell. As soon as there is a difference of concentration of CO_2 inside and outside a cell, CO_2 moves out of the cell, from a region of high concentration, to a region of low concentration outside the cell by the process of diffusion. Similarly, O_2 enters the cell by the process of diffusion when the level or concentration of O_2 inside the cell decreases. Thus, diffusion plays an important role in gaseous exchange between the cells as well as the cell and its external environment.

Water also obeys the law of diffusion. The movement of water molecules through such a selectively permeable membrane is called osmosis.

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The movement of water across the plasma membrane is also affected by the amount of substance dissolved in water. Thus, osmosis is the net diffusion of water across a selectively permeable membrane toward a higher solute concentration.

What will happen if we put an animal cell or a plant cell into a solution of sugar or salt in water?

One of the following three things could happen:

1. If the medium surrounding the cell has a higher water concentration than the cell, meaning that the outside solution is very dilute, the cell will gain water by osmosis. Such a solution is known as a hypotonic solution.

   Water molecules are free to pass across the cell membrane in both directions, but more water will come into the cell than will leave. The net (overall) result is that water enters the cell. The cell is likely to swell up.
2. If the medium has exactly the same water concentration as the cell, there will be no net movement of water across the cell membrane. Such a solution is known as an isotonic solution.

   Water crosses the cell membrane in both directions, but the amount going in is the same as the amount going out, so there is no overall movement of water. The cell will stay the same size.
3. If the medium has a lower concentration of water than the cell, meaning that it is a very concentrated solution, the cell will lose water by osmosis. Such a solution is known as a hypertonic solution.

   Again, water crosses the cell membrane in both directions, but this time more water leaves the cell than enters it. Therefore the cell will shrink.

Thus, osmosis is a special case of diffusion through a selectively permeable membrane. Now let us try out the following activity:

Activity 5.3

Osmosis with an egg

(a) Remove the shell of an egg by dissolving it in dilute hydrochloric acid. The shell is mostly calcium carbonate. A thin outer skin now encloses the egg. Put the egg in pure water and observe after 5 minutes. What do we observe?
The egg swells because water passes into it by osmosis.

(b) Place a similar de-shelled egg in a concentrated salt solution and observe for 5 minutes. The egg shrinks. Why?
Water passes out of the egg solution into the salt solution because the salt solution is more concentrated.

We can also try a similar activity with dried raisins or apricots.

Activity 5.4

- Put dried raisins or apricots in plain water and leave them for some time. Then place them into a concentrated solution of sugar or salt. You will observe the following:
  (a) Each gains water and swells when placed in water.
  (b) However, when placed in the concentrated solution it loses water, and consequently shrinks.

Unicellular freshwater organisms and most plant cells tend to gain water through osmosis. Absorption of water by plant roots is also an example of osmosis.

Thus, diffusion is important in exhange of gases and water in the life of a cell. In additions to this, the cell also obtains nutrition from its environment. Different molecules move in and out of the cell through a type of transport requiring use of energy.

The plasma membrane is flexible and is made up of organic molecules called lipids and proteins. However, we can observe the structure of the plasma membrane only through an electron microscope.

The flexibility of the cell membrane also enables the cell to engulf in food and other material from its external environment. Such processes are known as endocytosis. *Amoeba* acquires its food through such processes.

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Activity 5.5

- Find out about electron microscopes from resources in the school library or through the internet. Discuss it with your teacher.

Questions

1. *How do substances like CO_2 and water move in and out of the cell? Discuss.*
2. *Why is the plasma membrane called a selectively permeable membrane?*

5.2.2 Cell Wall

Plant cells, in addition to the plasma membrane, have another rigid outer covering called the cell wall. The cell wall lies outside the plasma membrane. The plant cell wall is mainly composed of cellulose. Cellulose is a complex substance and provides structural strength to plants.

When a living plant cell loses water through osmosis there is shrinkage or contraction of the contents of the cell away from the cell wall. This phenomenon is known as plasmolysis. We can observe this phenomenon by performing the following activity:

Activity 5.6

- Mount the peel of a Rhoeo leaf in water on a slide and examine cells under the high power of a microscope. Note the small green granules, called chloroplasts. They contain a green substance called chlorophyll. Put a strong solution of sugar or salt on the mounted leaf on the slide. Wait for a minute and observe under a microscope. What do we see?
- Now place some Rhoeo leaves in boiling water for a few minutes. This kills the cells. Then mount one leaf on a slide and observe it under a microscope. Put a strong solution of sugar or salt on the mounted leaf on the slide. Wait for a minute and observe it again. What do we find? Did plasmolysis occur now?

What do we infer from this activity? It appears that only living cells, and not dead cells, are able to absorb water by osmosis.

Cell walls permit the cells of plants, fungi and bacteria to withstand very dilute (hypotonic) external media without bursting. In such media the cells tend to take up water by osmosis. The cell swells, building up pressure against the cell wall. The wall exerts an equal pressure against the swollen cell. Because of their walls, such cells can withstand much greater changes in the surrounding medium than animal cells.

5.2.3 Nucleus

Remember the temporary mount of onion peel we prepared? We had put iodine solution on the peel. Why? What would we see if we tried observing the peel without putting the iodine solution? Try it and see what the difference is. Further, when we put iodine solution on the peel, did each cell get evenly coloured?

According to their chemical composition different regions of cells get coloured differentially. Some regions appear darker than other regions. Apart from iodine solution we could also use safranin solution or methylene blue solution to stain the cells.

We have observed cells from an onion; let us now observe cells from our own body.

Activity 5.7

- Let us take a glass slide with a drop of water on it. Using an ice-cream spoon gently scrape the inside surface of the cheek. Does any material get stuck on the spoon? With the help of a needle we can transfer this material and spread it evenly on the glass slide kept ready for this. To colour the material we can put a drop of methylene blue solution on it. Now the material is ready for observation under microscope. Do not forget to put a cover-slip on it!
- What do we observe? What is the shape of the cells we see? Draw it on the observation sheet.

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- Was there a darkly coloured, spherical or oval, dot-like structure near the centre of each cell? This structure is called nucleus. Were there similar structures in onion peel cells?

The nucleus has a double layered covering called nuclear membrane. The nuclear membrane has pores which allow the transfer of material from inside the nucleus to its outside, that is, to the cytoplasm (which we will talk about in section 5.2.4).

The nucleus contains chromosomes, which are visible as rod-shaped structures only when the cell is about to divide. Chromosomes contain information for inheritance of characters from parents to next generation in the form of DNA (Deoxyribo Nucleic Acid) molecules. Chromosomes are composed of DNA and protein. DNA molecules contain the information necessary for constructing and organising cells. Functional segments of DNA are called genes. In a cell which is not dividing, this DNA is present as part of chromatin material. Chromatin material is visible as entangled mass of thread like structures. Whenever the cell is about to divide, the chromatin material gets organised into chromosomes.

The nucleus plays a central role in cellular reproduction, the process by which a single cell divides and forms two new cells. It also plays a crucial part, along with the environment, in determining the way the cell will develop and what form it will exhibit at maturity, by directing the chemical activities of the cell.

In some organisms like bacteria, the nuclear region of the cell may be poorly defined due to the absence of a nuclear membrane. Such an undefined nuclear region containing only nucleic acids is called a nucleoid. Such organisms, whose cells lack a nuclear membrane, are called prokaryotes (Pro = primitive or primary; karyote ≈ karyon = nucleus). Organisms with cells having a nuclear membrane are called eukaryotes.

Prokaryotic cells (see Fig. 5.4) also lack most of the other cytoplasmic organelles present in eukaryotic cells. Many of the functions of such organelles are also performed by poorly organised parts of the cytoplasm (see section 5.2.4). The chlorophyll in photosynthetic prokaryotic bacteria is associated with membranous vesicles (bag like structures) but not with plastids as in eukaryotic cells (see section 5.2.5).

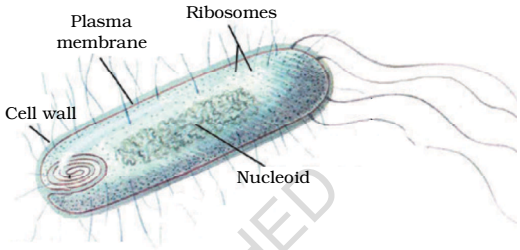


Fig. 5.4: Prokaryotic cell

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5.2.4 Cytoplasm

When we look at the temporary mounts of onion peel as well as human cheek cells, we can see a large region of each cell enclosed by the cell membrane. This region takes up very little stain. It is called the cytoplasm. The cytoplasm is the fluid content inside the plasma membrane. It also contains many specialised cell organelles. Each of these organelles performs a specific function for the cell.

Cell organelles are enclosed by membranes. In prokaryotes, beside the absence of a defined nuclear region, the membrane-bound cell organelles are also absent. On the other hand, the eukaryotic cells have nuclear membrane as well as membrane-enclosed organelles.

The significance of membranes can be illustrated with the example of viruses. Viruses lack any membranes and hence do not show characteristics of life until they enter a living body and use its cell machinery to multiply.

Question

1. *Fill in the gaps in the following table illustrating differences between prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells.*

Prokaryotic Cell	Eukaryotic Cell
1. Size : generally small (1-10 μm) 1 μm = 10^{-6} m	1. Size: generally large (5-100 μm)
2. Nuclear region: _____ _____ and known as__	2. Nuclear region: well defined and surrounded by a nuclear membrane
3. Chromosome: single	3. More than one chromosome
4. Membrane-bound cell organelles absent	4. _____ _____ _____

5.2.5 Cell Organelles

Every cell has a membrane around it to keep its own contents separate from the external environment. Large and complex cells, including cells from multicellular organisms, need a lot of chemical activities to support their complicated structure and function. To keep these activities of different kinds separate from each other, these cells use membrane-bound little structures (or 'organelles') within themselves. This is one of the features of the eukaryotic cells that distinguish them from prokaryotic cells. Some of these organelles are visible only with an electron microscope.

We have talked about the nucleus in a previous section. Some important examples of cell organelles which we will discuss now are: endoplasmic reticulum, Golgi apparatus, lysosomes, mitochondria and plastids. They are important because they carry out some very crucial functions in cells.

5.2.5 (i) *Endoplasmic reticulum (ER)*

The endoplasmic reticulum (ER) is a large network of membrane-bound tubes and sheets. It looks like long tubules or round or oblong bags (vesicles). The ER membrane is similar in structure to the plasma membrane. There are two types of ER– rough endoplasmic reticulum (RER) and smooth endoplasmic reticulum (SER). RER looks rough under a microscope because it has particles called ribosomes attached to its surface. The ribosomes, which are present in all active cells, are the sites of protein manufacture. The manufactured proteins are then sent to various places in the cell depending on need, using the ER. The SER helps in the manufacture of fat molecules, or lipids, important for cell function. Some of these proteins and lipids help in building the cell membrane. This process is known as membrane biogenesis. Some other proteins and lipids function as enzymes and hormones. Although the ER varies greatly in appearance in different cells, it always forms a network system.

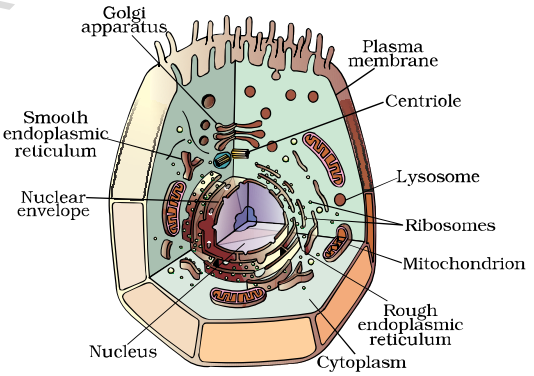


Fig. 5.5: Animal cell

Thus, one function of the ER is to serve as channels for the transport of materials (especially proteins) between various regions of the cytoplasm or between the cytoplasm and the nucleus. The ER also functions as a cytoplasmic framework providing a surface

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for some of the biochemical activities of the cell. In the liver cells of the group of animals called vertebrates (see Chapter 7), SER plays a crucial role in detoxifying many poisons and drugs.

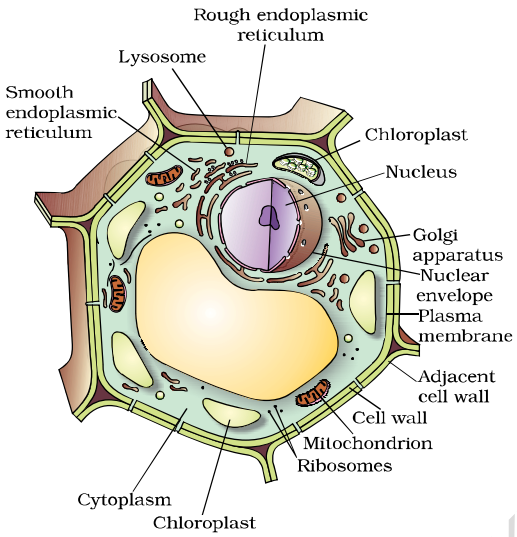
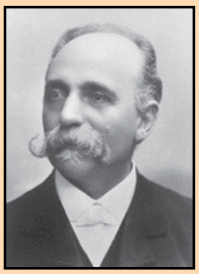


Fig. 5.6: *Plant cell*

5.2.5 (ii) *Golgi apparatus*

The Golgi apparatus, first described by Camillo Golgi, consists of a system of membrane-bound vesicles (flattened sacs) arranged approximately parallel to each other in stacks called cisterns. These membranes often have connections with the membranes of ER and therefore constitute another portion of a complex cellular membrane system.

The material synthesised near the ER is packaged and dispatched to various targets inside and outside the cell through the Golgi apparatus. Its functions include the storage, modification and packaging of products in vesicles. In some cases, complex sugars may be made from simple sugars in the Golgi apparatus. The Golgi apparatus is also involved in the formation of lysosomes [see 5.2.5 (iii)].



Camillo Golgi was born at Corteno near Brescia in 1843. He studied medicine at the University of Pavia. After graduating in 1865, he continued to work in Pavia at the Hospital of St. Matteo. At that time most of his investigations were concerned with the nervous system, In 1872 he accepted the post of Chief Medical Officer at the Hospital for the Chronically Sick at Abbiategrasso. He first started his investigations into the nervous system in a little kitchen of this hospital, which he had converted into a laboratory. However, the work of greatest importance, which Golgi carried out was a revolutionary method of staining individual nerve and cell structures. This method is referred to as the 'black reaction'. This method uses a weak solution of silver nitrate and is particularly valuable in tracing the processes and most delicate ramifications of cells. All through his life, he continued to work on these lines, modifying and improving this technique. Golgi received the highest honours and awards in recognition of his work. He shared the Nobel prize in 1906 with Santiago Ramony Cajal for their work on the structure of the nervous system.

5.2.5 (iii) *Lysosomes*

Structurally, lysosomes are membrane-bound sacs filled with digestive enzymes. These enzymes are made by RER. Lysosomes are a kind of waste disposal system of the cell. These help to keep the cell clean by digesting any foreign material as well as worn-out cell organelles. Foreign materials entering the cell, such as bacteria or food, as well as old organelles end up in the lysosomes, which break complex substances into simpler substances. Lysosomes are able to do this because they contain powerful digestive enzymes capable of breaking down all organic material. During the disturbance in cellular metabolism, for example, when the cell gets

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damaged, lysosomes may burst and the enzymes digest their own cell. Therefore, lysosomes are also known as the 'suicide bags' of a cell.

5.2.5 (iv) *Mitochondria*

Mitochondria are known as the powerhouses of the cell. Mitochondria have two membrane coverings. The outer membrane is porous while the inner membrane is deeply folded. These folds increase surface area for ATP-generating chemical reactions. The energy required for various chemical activities needed for life is released by mitochondria in the form of ATP (Adenosine triphopshate) molecules. ATP is known as the energy currency of the cell. The body uses energy stored in ATP for making new chemical compounds and for mechanical work.

Mitochondria are strange organelles in the sense that they have their own DNA and ribosomes. Therefore, mitochondria are able to make some of their own proteins.

5.2.5 (v) *Plastids*

Plastids are present only in plant cells. There are two types of plastids – chromoplasts (coloured plastids) and leucoplasts (white or colourless plastids). Chromoplasts containing the pigment chlorophyll are known as chloroplasts. Chloroplasts are important for photosynthesis in plants. Chloroplasts also contain various yellow or orange pigments in addition to chlorophyll. Leucoplasts are primarily organelles in which materials such as starch, oils and protein granules are stored.

The internal organisation of the Chloroplast consists of numerous membrane layers embedded in a material called the stroma. These are similar to mitochondria in external structure. Like the mitochondria, plastids also have their own DNA and ribosomes.

5.2.5 (vi) *Vacuoles*

Vacuoles are storage sacs for solid or liquid contents. Vacuoles are small sized in animal cells while plant cells have very large vacuoles. The central vacuole of some plant cells may occupy 50-90% of the cell volume.

In plant cells vacuoles are full of cell sap and provide turgidity and rigidity to the cell. Many substances of importance in the life of the plant cell are stored in vacuoles. These include amino acids, sugars, various organic acids and some proteins. In single-celled organisms like *Amoeba*, the food vacuole contains the food items that the *Amoeba* has consumed. In some unicellular organisms, specialised vacuoles also play important roles in expelling excess water and some wastes from the cell.

Questions

1. *Can you name the two organelles we have studied that contain their own genetic material?*
2. *If the organisation of a cell is destroyed due to some physical or chemical influence, what will happen?*
3. *Why are lysosomes known as suicide bags?*
4. *Where are proteins synthesised inside the cell?*

Each cell thus acquires its structure and ability to function because of the organisation of its membrane and organelles in specific ways. The cell thus has a basic structural organisation. This helps the cells to perform functions like respiration, obtaining nutrition, and clearing of waste material, or forming new proteins.

Thus, the cell is the fundamental structural unit of living organisms. It is also the basic functional unit of life.

Cell Division

New cells are formed in organisms in order to grow, to replace old, dead and injured cells, and to form gametes required for reproduction. The process by which new cells are made is called cell division. There are two main types of cell division: mitosis and meiosis.

The process of cell division by which most of the cells divide for growth is called mitosis. In this process, each cell called mother cell

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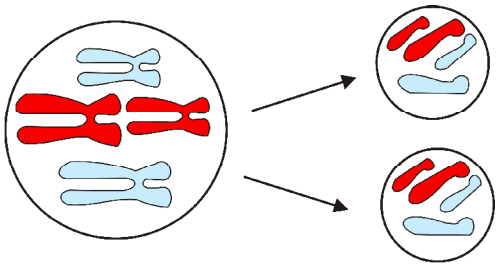


Fig. 5.7: Mitosis

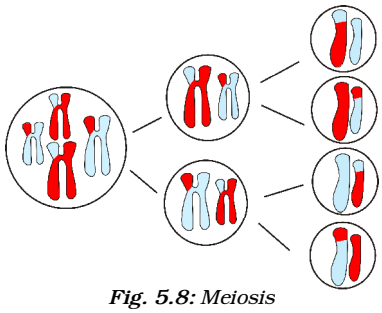


Fig. 5.8: Meiosis

divides to form two identical daughter cells (Fig. 5.7). The daughter cells have the same number of chromosomes as mother cell. It helps in growth and repair of tissues in organisms.

Specific cells of reproductive organs or tissues in animals and plants divide to form gametes, which after fertilisation give rise to offspring. They divide by a different process called meiosis which involves two consecutive divisions. When a cell divides by meiosis it produces four new cells instead of just two (Fig. 5.8). The new cells only have half the number of chromosomes than that of the mother cells. Can you think as to why the chromosome number has reduced to half in daughter cells?



What you have learnt

- The fundamental organisational unit of life is the cell.
- Cells are enclosed by a plasma membrane composed of lipids and proteins.
- The cell membrane is an active part of the cell. It regulates the movement of materials between the ordered interior of the cell and the outer environment.
- In plant cells, a cell wall composed mainly of cellulose is located outside the cell membrane.
- The presence of the cell wall enables the cells of plants, fungi and bacteria to exist in hypotonic media without bursting.
- The nucleus in eukaryotes is separated from the cytoplasm by double-layered membrane and it directs the life processes of the cell.
- The ER functions both as a passageway for intracellular transport and as a manufacturing surface.
- The Golgi apparatus consists of stacks of membrane-bound vesicles that function in the storage, modification and packaging of substances manufactured in the cell.
- Most plant cells have large membranous organelles called plastids, which are of two types—chromoplasts and leucoplasts.

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- Chromoplasts that contain chlorophyll are called chloroplasts and they perform photosynthesis.
- The primary function of leucoplasts is storage.
- Most mature plant cells have a large central vacuole that helps to maintain the turgidity of the cell and stores important substances including wastes.
- Prokaryotic cells have no membrane-bound organelles, their chromosomes are composed of only nucleic acid, and they have only very small ribosomes as organelles.
- Cells in organisms divide for growth of body, for repalcing dead cells, and for forming gametes for reproduction.



Exercises

1. Make a comparison and write down ways in which plant cells are different from animal cells.
2. How is a prokaryotic cell different from a eukaryotic cell?
3. What would happen if the plasma membrane ruptures or breaks down?
4. What would happen to the life of a cell if there was no Golgi apparatus?
5. Which organelle is known as the powerhouse of the cell? Why?
6. Where do the lipids and proteins constituting the cell membrane get synthesised?
7. How does an *Amoeba* obtain its food?
8. What is osmosis?
9. Carry out the following osmosis experiment:
   - Take four peeled potato halves and scoos each one out to make potato cups. One of these potato cups should be made from a boiled potato. Put each potato cup in a trough containing water. Now,
     (a) Keep cup A empty
     (b) Put one teaspoon sugar in cup B
     (c) Put one teaspoon salt in cup C
     (d) Put one teaspoon sugar in the boiled potato cup D.

     Keep these for two hours. Then observe the four potato cups and answer the following:
     (i) Explain why water gathers in the hollowed portion of B and C.
     (ii) Why is potato A necessary for this experiment?
     (iii) Explain why water does not gather in the hollowed out portions of A and D.
10. Which type of cell division is required for growth and repair of body and which type is involved in formation of gametes?

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Chapter 6

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TISSUES

From the last chapter, we recall that all living organisms are made of cells. In unicellular organisms, a single cell performs all basic functions. For example, in *Amoeba*, a single cell carries out movement, intake of food, gaseous exchange and excretion. But in multi-cellular organisms there are millions of cells. Most of these cells are specialised to carry out specific functions. Each specialised function is taken up by a different group of cells. Since these cells carry out only a particular function, they do it very efficiently. In human beings, muscle cells contract and relax to cause movement, nerve cells carry messages, blood flows to transport oxygen, food, hormones and waste material and so on. In plants, vascular tissues conduct food and water from one part of the plant to other parts. So, multi-cellular organisms show division of labour. Cells specialising in one function are often grouped together in the body. This means that a particular function is carried out by a cluster of cells at a definite place in the body. This cluster of cells, called a tissue, is arranged and designed so as to give the highest possible efficiency of function. Blood, phloem and muscle are all examples of tissues.

A group of cells that are similar in structure and/or work together to achieve a particular function forms a tissue.

6.1 Are Plants and Animals Made of Same Types of Tissues?

Let us compare their structure and functions. Do plants and animals have the same structure? Do they both perform similar functions?

There are noticeable differences between the two. Plants are stationary or fixed – they don't move. Since they have to be upright, they have a large quantity of supportive tissue. The supportive tissue generally has dead cells.

Animals on the other hand move around in search of food, mates and shelter. They consume more energy as compared to plants. Most of the tissues they contain are living.

Another difference between animals and plants is in the pattern of growth. The growth in plants is limited to certain regions, while this is not so in animals. There are some tissues in plants that divide throughout their life. These tissues are localised in certain regions. Based on the dividing capacity of the tissues, various plant tissues can be classified as growing or meristematic tissue and permanent tissue. Cell growth in animals is more uniform. So, there is no such demarcation of dividing and non-dividing regions in animals.

The structural organisation of organs and organ systems is far more specialised and localised in complex animals than even in very complex plants. This fundamental difference reflects the different modes of life pursued by these two major groups of organisms, particularly in their different feeding methods. Also, they are differently adapted for a sedentary existence on one hand (plants) and active locomotion on the other (animals), contributing to this difference in organ system design.

It is with reference to these complex animal and plant bodies that we will now talk about the concept of tissues in some detail.

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Questions

1. *What is a tissue?*
2. *What is the utility of tissues in multi-cellular organisms?*

6.2 Plant Tissues

6.2.1 Meristematic tissue

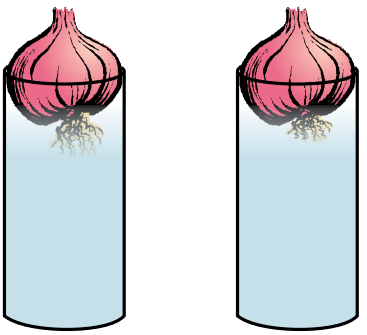


Fig. 6.1: Growth of roots in onion bulbs

Activity 6.1

- Take two glass jars and fill them with water.
- Now, take two onion bulbs and place one on each jar, as shown in Fig. 6.1.
- Observe the growth of roots in both the bulbs for a few days.
- Measure the length of roots on day 1, 2 and 3.
- On day 4, cut the root tips of the onion bulb in jar 2 by about 1 cm. After this, observe the growth of roots in both the jars and measure their lengths each day for five more days and record the observations in tables, like the table below:

Length	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5
Jar 1					
Jar 2					

- From the above observations, answer the following questions:
  1. Which of the two onions has longer roots? Why?
  2. Do the roots continue growing even after we have removed their tips?
  3. Why would the tips stop growing in jar 2 after we cut them?

The growth of plants occurs only in certain specific regions. This is because the dividing tissue, also known as meristematic tissue, is located only at these points. Depending on the region where they are present, meristematic tissues are classified as apical, lateral and intercalary (Fig. 6.2). New cells produced by meristem are initially like those of meristem itself, but as they grow and mature, their characteristics slowly change and they become differentiated as components of other tissues.

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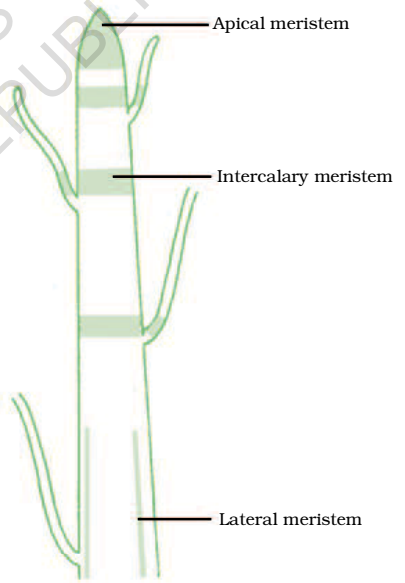


Fig. 6.2: Location of meristematic tissue in plant body

Apical meristem is present at the growing tips of stems and roots and increases the length of the stem and the root. The girth of the stem or root increases due to lateral meristem (cambium). Intercalary meristem seen in some plants is located near the node.

Cells of meristematic tissue are very active, they have dense cytoplasm, thin cellulose walls and prominent nuclei. They lack vacuoles. Can we think why they would lack vacuoles? (You might want to refer to the functions of vacuoles in the chapter on cells.)

6.2.2 Permanent tissue

What happens to the cells formed by meristematic tissue? They take up a specific role and lose the ability to divide. As a result, they form a permanent tissue. This process of taking up a permanent shape, size, and a function is called differentiation. Differentiation leads to the development of various types of permanent tissues.

- 3. Can we think of reasons why there would be so many types of cells?
- We can also try to cut sections of plant roots. We can even try cutting sections of root and stem of different plants.

6.2.2 (i) *Simple permanent tissue*

A few layers of cells beneath the epidermis are generally simple permanent tissue. Parenchyma is the most common simple permanent tissue. It consists of relatively unspecialised cells with thin cell walls. They are living cells. They are usually loosely arranged, thus large spaces between cells (intercellular spaces) are found in this tissue (Fig. 6.4 a). This tissue generally stores food.

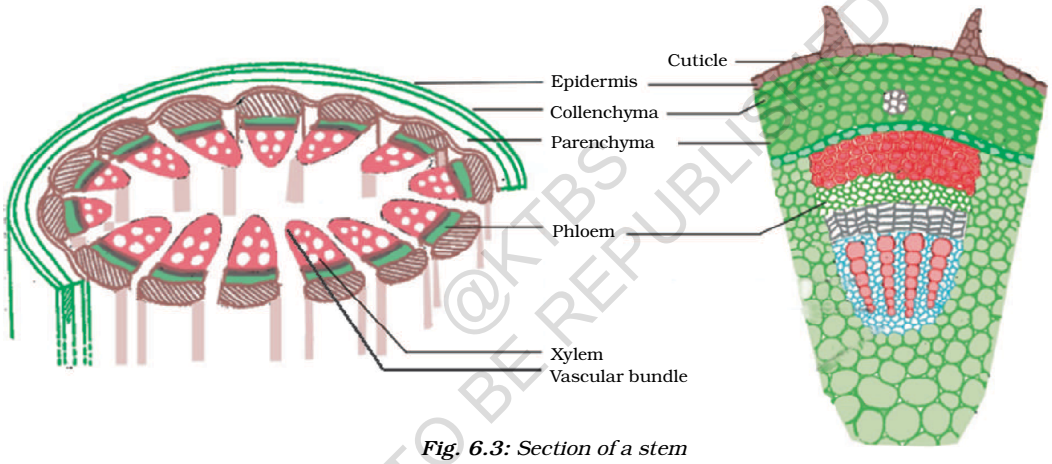


Fig. 6.3: Section of a stem

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Activity 6.2

- Take a plant stem and with the help of your teacher cut into very thin slices or sections.
- Now, stain the slices with safranin. Place one neatly cut section on a slide, and put a drop of glycerine.
- Cover with a cover-slip and observe under a microscope. Observe the various types of cells and their arrangement. Compare it with Fig. 6.3.
- Now, answer the following on the basis of your observation:
  1. Are all cells similar in structure?
  2. How many types of cells can be seen?

In some situations, it contains chlorophyll and performs photosynthesis, and then it is called chlorenchyma. In aquatic plants, large air cavities are present in parenchyma to help them float. Such a parenchyma type is called aerenchyma.

The flexibility in plants is due to another permanent tissue, collenchyma. It allows bending of various parts of a plant like tendrils and stems of climbers without breaking. It also provides mechanical support. We can find this tissue in leaf stalks below the epidermis. The cells of this tissue are living, elongated and irregularly thickened at the corners. There is very little intercellular space (Fig. 6.4 b).

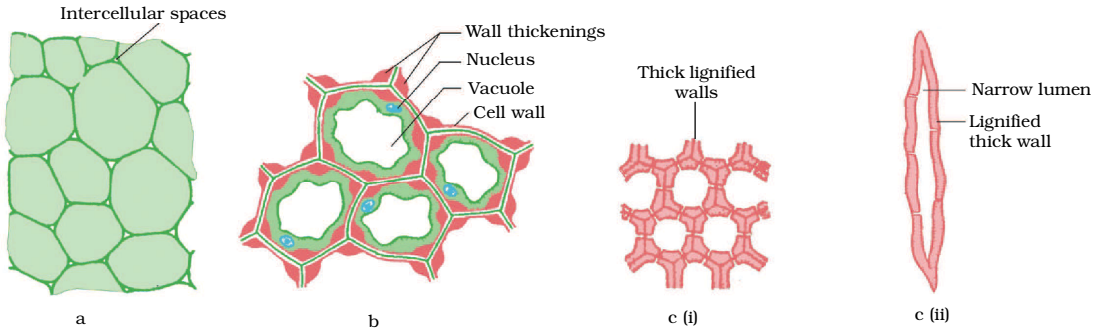


Fig. 6.4: Various types of simple tissues: (a) Parenchyma (b) Collenchyma (c) Sclerenchyma (i) transverse section, (ii) longitudinal section.

Yet another type of permanent tissue is sclerenchyma. It is the tissue which makes the plant hard and stiff. We have seen the husk of a coconut. It is made of sclerenchymatous tissue. The cells of this tissue are dead. They are long and narrow as the walls are thickened due to lignin. Often these walls are so thick that there is no internal space inside the cell (Fig. 6.4 c). This tissue is present in stems, around vascular bundles, in the veins of leaves and in the hard covering of seeds and nuts. It provides strength to the plant parts.

Activity 6.3

- Take a freshly plucked leaf of Rhoeo.
- Stretch and break it by applying pressure.
- While breaking it, keep it stretched gently so that some peel or skin projects out from the cut.
- Remove this peel and put it in a petri dish filled with water.
- Add a few drops of safranin.
- Wait for a couple of minutes and then transfer it onto a slide. Gently place a cover slip over it.
- Observe under microscope.

What you observe is the outermost layer of cells, called epidermis. The epidermis is usually made of a single layer of cells. In some plants living in very dry habitats, the epidermis may be thicker since protection against water loss is critical. The entire surface of a plant has an outer covering epidermis. It protects all the parts of the plant. Epidermal cells on the aerial

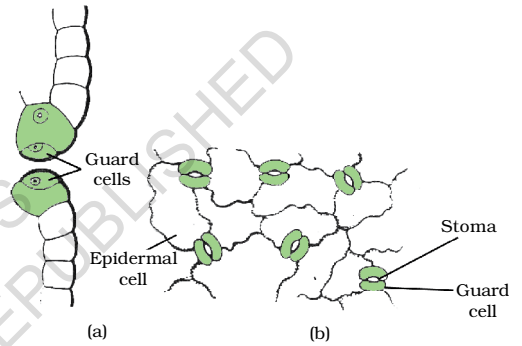


Fig. 6.5: Guard cells and epidermal cells: (a) lateral view, (b) surface view

parts of the plant often secrete a waxy, water-resistant layer on their outer surface. This aids in protection against loss of water, mechanical injury and invasion by parasitic fungi. Since it has a protective role to play, cells of epidermal tissue form a continuous layer without intercellular spaces. Most epidermal cells are relatively flat. Often their outer and side walls are thicker than the inner wall.

We can observe small pores here and there in the epidermis of the leaf. These pores are called stomata (Fig. 6.5). Stomata are enclosed by two kidney-shaped cells called guard cells. They are necessary for exchanging gases with the atmosphere. Transpiration (loss of water in the form of water vapour) also takes place through stomata.

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Recall which gas is required for photosynthesis.
Find out the role of transpiration in plants.

Epidermal cells of the roots, whose function is water absorption, commonly bear long hair-like parts that greatly increase the total absorptive surface area.

In some plants like desert plants, epidermis has a thick waxy coating of cutin (chemical substance with waterproof quality) on its outer surface. Can we think of a reason for this?

Is the outer layer of a branch of a tree different from the outer layer of a young stem?

As plants grow older, the outer protective tissue undergoes certain changes. A strip of secondary meristem located in the cortex forms layers of cells which constitute the cork. Cells of cork are dead and compactly arranged without intercellular spaces (Fig. 6.6). They also have a substance called suberin in their walls that makes them impervious to gases and water.

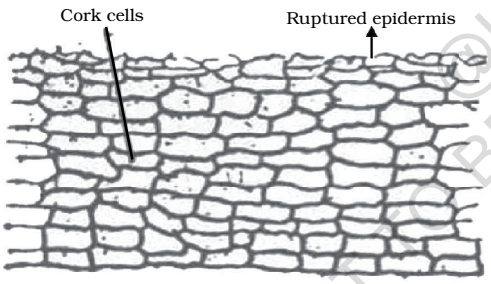


Fig. 6.6: *Protective tissue*

6.2.2 (ii) *Complex permanent tissue*

The different types of tissues we have discussed until now are all made of one type of cells, which look like each other. Such tissues are called simple permanent tissue. Yet another type of permanent tissue is complex tissue. Complex tissues are made of more than one type of cells. All these cells coordinate to perform a common function. Xylem and phloem are examples of such complex tissues. They are both conducting tissues and constitute a vascular bundle. Vascular tissue is a distinctive feature of the complex plants, one that has made possible their survival in the terrestrial environment. In Fig. 6.3 showing a section of stem, can you see different types of cells in the vascular bundle?

Xylem consists of tracheids, vessels, xylem parenchyma (Fig. 6.7 a,b,c) and xylem fibres. Tracheids and vessels have thick walls, and many are dead cells when mature. Tracheids and vessels are tubular structures. This allows them to transport water and minerals vertically. The parenchyma stores food. Xylem fibres are mainly supportive in function.

Phloem is made up of five types of cells: sieve cells, sieve tubes, companion cells, phloem fibres and the phloem parenchyma [Fig. 6.7 (d)]. Sieve tubes are tubular cells with perforated walls. Phloem transports food from leaves to other parts of the plant. Except phloem fibres, other phloem cells are living cells.

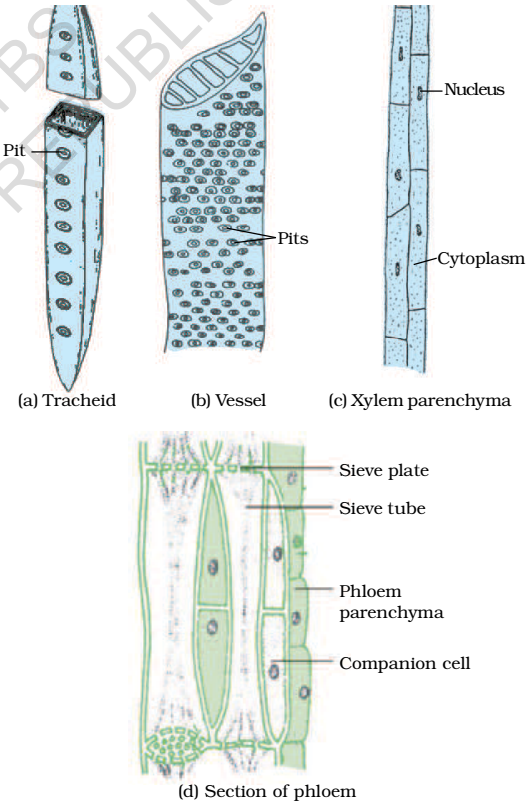


Fig. 6.7: *Types of complex tissue*

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Questions

1. *Name types of simple tissues.*
2. *Where is apical meristem found?*
3. *Which tissue makes up the husk of coconut?*
4. *What are the constituents of phloem?*

6.3 Animal Tissues

When we breathe we can actually feel the movement of our chest. How do these body parts move? For this we have specialised cells called muscle cells (Fig. 6.8). The contraction and relaxation of these cells result in movement.

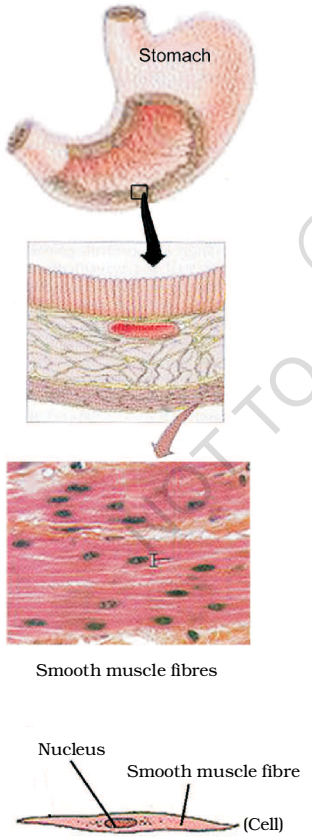


Fig. 6.8: *Location of muscle fibres*

During breathing we inhale oxygen. Where does this oxygen go? It is absorbed in the lungs and then is transported to all the body cells through blood. Why would cells need oxygen? The functions of mitochondria we studied earlier provide a clue to this question. Blood flows and carries various substances from one part of the body to the other. For example, it carries oxygen and food to all cells. It also collects wastes from all parts of the body and carries them to the liver and kidney for disposal.

Blood and muscles are both examples of tissues found in our body. On the basis of the functions they perform we can think of different types of animal tissues, such as epithelial tissue, connective tissue, muscular tissue and nervous tissue. Blood is a type of connective tissue, and muscle forms muscular tissue.

6.3.1 Epithelial Tissue

The covering or protective tissues in the animal body are epithelial tissues. Epithelium covers most organs and cavities within the body. It also forms a barrier to keep different body systems separate. The skin, the lining of the mouth, the lining of blood vessels, lung alveoli and kidney tubules are all made of epithelial tissue. Epithelial tissue cells are tightly packed and form a continuous sheet. They have only a small amount of cementing material between them and almost no intercellular spaces. Obviously, anything entering or leaving the body must cross at least one layer of epithelium. As a result, the permeability of the cells of various epithelia play an important role in regulating the exchange of materials between the body and the external environment and also between different parts of the body. Regardless of the type, all epithelium is usually separated from the underlying tissue by an extracellular fibrous basement membrane.

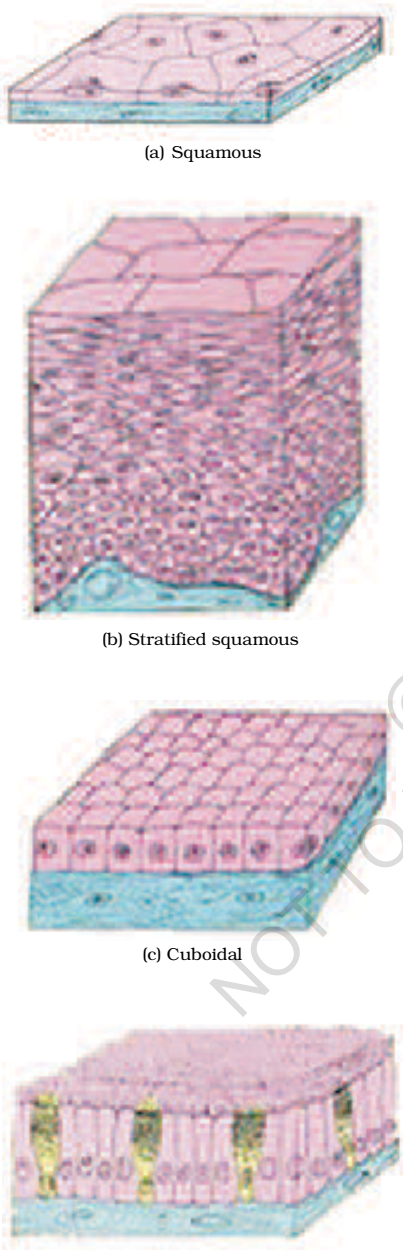
Different epithelia (Fig. 6.9) show differing structures that correlate with their unique functions. For example, in cells lining blood vessels or lung alveoli, where transportation of substances occurs through a selectively permeable surface, there is a simple flat kind

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of epithelium. This is called the simple squamous epithelium (squama means scale of skin). Simple squamous epithelial cells are extremely thin and flat and form a delicate lining. The oesophagus and the lining of the mouth are also covered with squamous epithelium. The skin, which protects the body, is also made of squamous epithelium. Skin epithelial cells are arranged in many layers to prevent wear and tear. Since they are arranged in a pattern of layers, the epithelium is called stratified squamous epithelium.

Where absorption and secretion occur, as in the inner lining of the intestine, tall epithelial cells are present. This columnar (meaning 'pillar-like') epithelium facilitates movement across the epithelial barrier. In the respiratory tract, the columnar epithelial tissue also has cilia, which are hair-like projections on the outer surfaces of epithelial cells. These cilia can move, and their movement pushes the mucus forward to clear it. This type of epithelium is thus ciliated columnar epithelium.

Cuboidal epithelium (with cube-shaped cells) forms the lining of kidney tubules and ducts of salivary glands, where it provides mechanical support. Epithelial cells often acquire additional specialisation as gland cells, which can secrete substances at the epithelial surface. Sometimes a portion of the epithelial tissue folds inward, and a multicellular gland is formed. This is glandular epithelium.



(a) Squamous

(b) Stratified squamous

(c) Cuboidal

(d) Columnar (Ciliated)

Fig. 6.9: *Different types of epithelial tissues*

6.3.2 Connective tissue

Blood is a type of connective tissue. Why would it be called 'connective' tissue? A clue is provided in the introduction of this chapter! Now, let us look at this type of tissue in some more detail. The cells of connective tissue are loosely spaced and embedded in an intercellular matrix (Fig. 6.10). The matrix may be jelly like, fluid, dense or rigid. The nature of matrix differs in concordance with the function of the particular connective tissue.

Activity 6.4

- Take a drop of blood on a slide and observe different cells present in it under a microscope.

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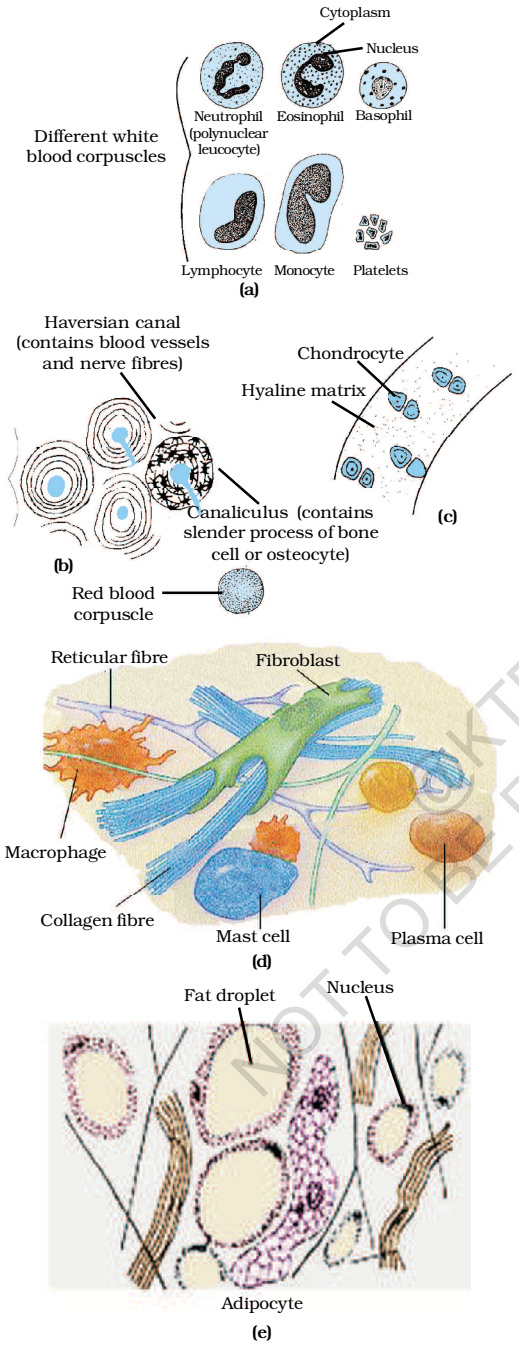


Fig. 6.10: *Types of connective tissues: (a) types of blood cells, (b) compact bone, (c) hyaline cartilage, (d) areolar tissue, (e) adipose tissue*

Blood has a fluid (liquid) matrix called plasma, in which red blood corpuscles (RBCs), white blood corpuscles (WBCs) and platelets are suspended. The plasma contains proteins, salts and hormones. Blood flows and transports gases, digested food, hormones and waste materials to different parts of the body.

Bone is another example of a connective tissue. It forms the framework that supports the body. It also anchors the muscles and supports the main organs of the body. It is a strong and nonflexible tissue (what would be the advantage of these properties for bone functions?). Bone cells are embedded in a hard matrix that is composed of calcium and phosphorus compounds.

Two bones can be connected to each other by another type of connective tissue called the ligament. This tissue is very elastic. It has considerable strength. Ligaments contain very little matrix and connect bones with bones. Tendons connect muscles to bones and are another type of connective tissue. Tendons are fibrous tissue with great strength but limited flexibility.

Another type of connective tissue, cartilage, has widely spaced cells. The solid matrix is composed of proteins and sugars. Cartilage smoothens bone surfaces at joints and is also present in the nose, ear, trachea and larynx. We can fold the cartilage of the ears, but we cannot bend the bones in our arms. Think of how the two tissues are different!

Areolar connective tissue is found between the skin and muscles, around blood vessels and nerves and in the bone marrow. It fills the space inside the organs, supports internal organs and helps in repair of tissues.

Where are fats stored in our body? Fat-storing adipose tissue is found below the skin and between internal organs. The cells of this tissue are filled with fat globules. Storage of fats also lets it act as an insulator.

6.3.3 Muscular Tissue

Muscular tissue consists of elongated cells, also called muscle fibres. This tissue is responsible for movement in our body.

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Muscles contain special proteins called contractile proteins, which contract and relax to cause movement.

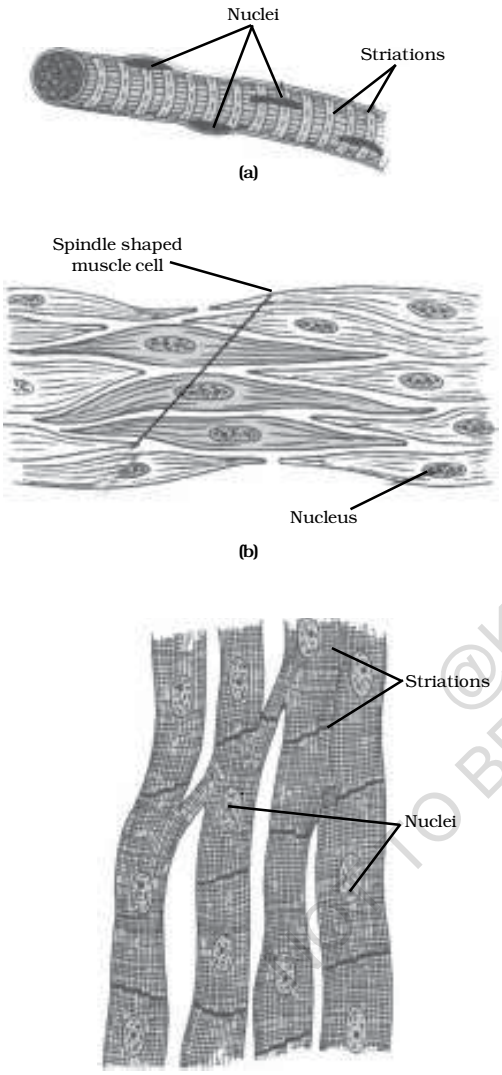


Fig. 6.11: Types of muscles fibres: (a) striated muscle, (b) smooth muscle, (c) cardiac muscle

We can move some muscles by conscious will. Muscles present in our limbs move when we want them to, and stop when we so decide. Such muscles are called voluntary muscles [Fig. 6.11(a)]. These muscles are also called skeletal muscles as they are mostly attached to bones and help in body movement. Under the microscope, these muscles show alternate light and dark bands or striations when stained appropriately. As a result, they are also called striated muscles. The cells of this tissue are long, cylindrical, unbranched and multinucleate (having many nuclei).

The movement of food in the alimentary canal or the contraction and relaxation of blood vessels are involuntary movements. We cannot really start them or stop them simply by wanting to do so! Smooth muscles [Fig. 6.11(b)] or involuntary muscles control such movements. They are also found in the iris of the eye, in ureters and in the bronchi of the lungs. The cells are long with pointed ends (spindle-shaped) and uninucleate (having a single nucleus). They are also called unstriated muscles – why would they be called that?

The muscles of the heart show rhythmic contraction and relaxation throughout life. These involuntary muscles are called cardiac muscles [Fig. 6.11(c)]. Heart muscle cells are cylindrical, branched and uninucleate.

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Activity 6.5

Compare the structures of different types of muscular tissues. Note down their shape, number of nuclei and position of nuclei within the cell in the Table 6.1.

Table 6.1:

Features	Striated	Smooth	Cardiac
Shape			
Number of nuclei			
Position of nuclei			

6.3.4 Nervous Tissue

All cells possess the ability to respond to stimuli. However, cells of the nervous tissue are highly specialised for being stimulated and

then transmitting the stimulus very rapidly from one place to another within the body. The brain, spinal cord and nerves are all composed of the nervous tissue. The cells of this tissue are called nerve cells or neurons. A neuron consists of a cell body with a nucleus and cytoplasm, from which long thin hair-like parts arise (Fig. 6.12). Usually each neuron has a single long part (process), called the axon, and many short, branched parts (processes) called dendrites. An individual nerve cell may be up to a metre long. Many nerve fibres bound together by connective tissue make up a nerve.

The signal that passes along the nerve fibre is called a nerve impulse. Nerve impulses allow us to move our muscles when we want to. The functional combination of nerve and muscle tissue is fundamental to most animals. This combination enables animals to move rapidly in response to stimuli.

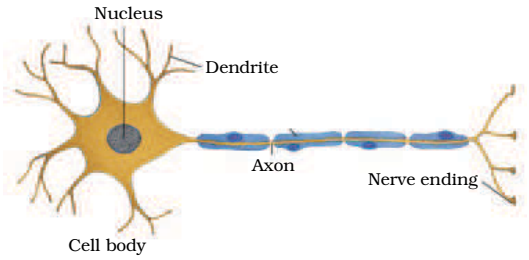


Fig. 6.12: *Neuron-unit of nervous tissue*

Questions

1. *Name the tissue responsible for movement in our body.*
2. *What does a neuron look like?*
3. *Give three features of cardiac muscles.*
4. *What are the functions of areolar tissue?*



What you have learnt

- Tissue is a group of cells similar in structure and function.
- Plant tissues are of two main types – meristematic and permanent.
- Meristematic tissue is the dividing tissue present in the growing regions of the plant.
- Permanent tissues are derived from meristematic tissue once they lose the ability to divide. They are classified as simple and complex tissues.
- Parenchyma, collenchyma and sclerenchyma are three types of simple tissues. Xylem and phloem are types of complex tissues.
- Animal tissues can be epithelial, connective, muscular and nervous tissue.
- Depending on shape and function, epithelial tissue is classified as squamous, cuboidal, columnar, ciliated and glandular.

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- The different types of connective tissues in our body include areolar tissue, adipose tissue, bone, tendon, ligament, cartilage and blood.
- Striated, unstriated and cardiac are three types of muscle tissues.
- Nervous tissue is made of neurons that receive and conduct impulses.

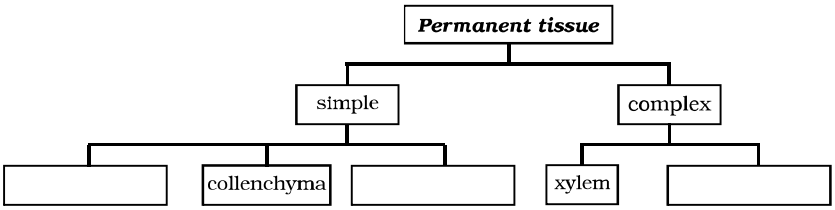


Exercises

1. Define the term "tissue".
2. How many types of elements together make up the xylem tissue? Name them.
3. How are simple tissues different from complex tissues in plants?
4. Differentiate between parenchyma, collenchyma and sclerenchyma on the basis of their cell wall.
5. What are the functions of the stomata?
6. Diagrammatically show the difference between the three types of muscle fibres.
7. What is the specific function of the cardiac muscle?
8. Differentiate between striated, unstriated and cardiac muscles on the basis of their structure and site/location in the body.
9. Draw a labelled diagram of a neuron.
10. Name the following.
    (a) Tissue that forms the inner lining of our mouth.
    (b) Tissue that connects muscle to bone in humans.
    (c) Tissue that transports food in plants.
    (d) Tissue that stores fat in our body.
    (e) Connective tissue with a fluid matrix.
    (f) Tissue present in the brain.
11. Identify the type of tissue in the following: skin, bark of tree, bone, lining of kidney tubule, vascular bundle.

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12. Name the regions in which parenchyma tissue is present.
13. What is the role of epidermis in plants?
14. How does the cork act as a protective tissue?
15. Complete the following chart:



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Chapter 7

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MOTION

In everyday life, we see some objects at rest and others in motion. Birds fly, fish swim, blood flows through veins and arteries, and cars move. Atoms, molecules, planets, stars and galaxies are all in motion. We often perceive an object to be in motion when its position changes with time. However, there are situations where the motion is inferred through indirect evidences. For example, we infer the motion of air by observing the movement of dust and the movement of leaves and branches of trees. What causes the phenomena of sunrise, sunset and changing of seasons? Is it due to the motion of the earth? If it is true, why don't we directly perceive the motion of the earth?

An object may appear to be moving for one person and stationary for some other. For the passengers in a moving bus, the roadside trees appear to be moving backwards. A person standing on the road–side perceives the bus alongwith the passengers as moving. However, a passenger inside the bus sees his fellow passengers to be at rest. What do these observations indicate?

Most motions are complex. Some objects may move in a straight line, others may take a circular path. Some may rotate and a few others may vibrate. There may be situations involving a combination of these. In this chapter, we shall first learn to describe the motion of objects along a straight line. We shall also learn to express such motions through simple equations and graphs. Later, we shall discuss ways of describing circular motion.

Activity 7.1

- Discuss whether the walls of your classroom are at rest or in motion.

Activity 7.2

- Have you ever experienced that the train in which you are sitting appears to move while it is at rest?
- Discuss and share your experience.

Think and Act

We sometimes are endangered by the motion of objects around us, especially if that motion is erratic and uncontrolled as observed in a flooded river, a hurricane or a tsunami. On the other hand, controlled motion can be a service to human beings such as in the generation of hydro-electric power. Do you feel the necessity to study the erratic motion of some objects and learn to control them?

7.1 Describing Motion

We describe the location of an object by specifying a reference point. Let us understand this by an example. Let us assume that a school in a village is 2 km north of the railway station. We have specified the position of the school with respect to the railway station. In this example, the railway station is the reference point. We could have also chosen other reference points according to our convenience. Therefore, to describe the position of an object we need to specify a reference point called the origin.

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7.1.1 Motion along a straight line

The simplest type of motion is the motion along a straight line. We shall first learn to describe this by an example. Consider the motion of an object moving along a straight path. The object starts its journey from O which is treated as its reference point (Fig. 7.1). Let A, B and C represent the position of the object at different instants. At first, the object moves through C and B and reaches A. Then it moves back along the same path and reaches C through B.

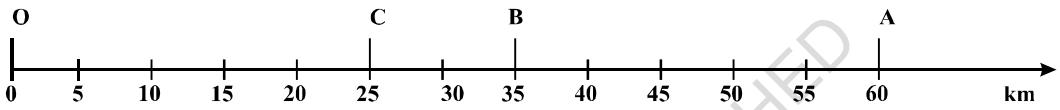


Fig. 7.1: Positions of an object on a straight line path

The total path length covered by the object is OA + AC, that is 60 km + 35 km = 95 km. This is the distance covered by the object. To describe distance we need to specify only the numerical value and not the direction of motion. There are certain quantities which are described by specifying only their numerical values. The numerical value of a physical quantity is its magnitude. From this example, can you find out the distance of the final position C of the object from the initial position O? This difference will give you the numerical value of the displacement of the object from O to C through A. The shortest distance measured from the initial to the final position of an object is known as the displacement.

Can the magnitude of the displacement be equal to the distance travelled by an object? Consider the example given in (Fig. 7.1). For motion of the object from O to A, the distance covered is 60 km and the magnitude of displacement is also 60 km. During its motion from O to A and back to B, the distance covered = 60 km + 25 km = 85 km while the magnitude of displacement = 35 km. Thus, the magnitude of displacement (35 km) is not equal to the path length (85 km). Further, we will notice that the magnitude of the displacement for a course of motion may be zero but the corresponding distance covered is not zero. If we consider the object to travel back to O, the final position concides with the initial position, and therefore, the displacement is zero. However, the distance covered in this journey is OA + AO = 60 km + 60 km = 120 km. Thus, two different physical quantities—the distance and the displacement, are used to describe the overall motion of an object and to locate its final position with reference to its initial position at a given time.

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Activity 7.3

- Take a metre scale and a long rope.
- Walk from one corner of a basket-ball court to its oppposite corner along its sides.
- Measure the distance covered by you and magnitude of the displacement.
- What difference would you notice between the two in this case?

Activity 7.4

- Automobiles are fitted with a device that shows the distance travelled. Such a device is known as an odometer. A car is driven from Bhubaneshwar to New Delhi. The difference between the final reading and the initial reading of the odometer is 1850 km.
- Find the magnitude of the displacement between Bhubaneshwar and New Delhi by using the Road Map of India.

Questions

1. *An object has moved through a distance. Can it have zero displacement? If yes, support your answer with an example.*
2. *A farmer moves along the boundary of a square field of side 10 m in 40 s. What will be the magnitude of displacement of the farmer at the end of 2 minutes 20 seconds from his initial position?*
3. *Which of the following is true for displacement?*
   (a) It cannot be zero.
   (b) Its magnitude is greater than the distance travelled by the object.

7.1.2 Uniform motion and non-uniform motion

Consider an object moving along a straight line. Let it travel 5 m in the first second, 5 m more in the next second, 5 m in the third second and 5 m in the fourth second. In this case, the object covers 5 m in each second. As the object covers equal distances in equal intervals of time, it is said to be in uniform motion. The time interval in this motion should be small. In our day-to-day life, we come across motions where objects cover unequal distances in equal intervals of time, for example, when a car is moving on a crowded street or a person is jogging in a park. These are some instances of non-uniform motion.

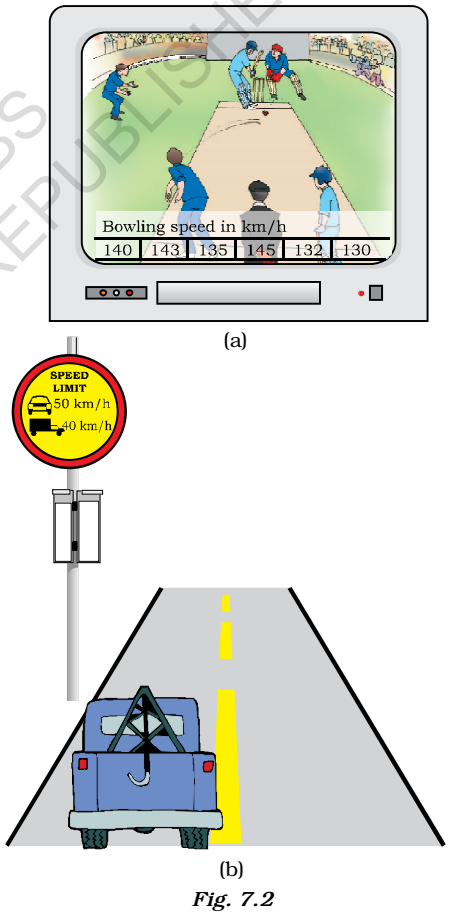
Activity 7.5

- The data regarding the motion of two different objects A and B are given in Table 7.1.
- Examine them carefully and state whether the motion of the objects is uniform or non-uniform.

Table 7.1

Time	Distance travelled by object A in m	Distance travelled by object B in m
9:30 am	10	12
9:45 am	20	19
10:00 am	30	23
10:15 am	40	35
10:30 am	50	37
10:45 am	60	41
11:00 am	70	44

7.2 Measuring the Rate of Motion



(a)

(b)

Fig. 7.2

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Look at the situations given in Fig. 7.2. If the bowling speed is 143 km h^{-1} in Fig. 7.2(a) what does it mean? What do you understand from the signboard in Fig. 7.2(b)?

Different objects may take different amounts of time to cover a given distance. Some of them move fast and some move slowly. The rate at which objects move can be different. Also, different objects can move at the same rate. One of the ways of measuring the rate of motion of an object is to find out the distance travelled by the object in unit time. This quantity is referred to as speed. The SI unit of speed is metre per second. This is represented by the symbol m s^{-1} or m/s. The other units of speed include centimetre per second (cm s^{-1}) and kilometre per hour (km h^{-1}). To specify the speed of an object, we require only its magnitude. The speed of an object need not be constant. In most cases, objects will be in non-uniform motion. Therefore, we describe the rate of motion of such objects in terms of their average speed. The average speed of an object is obtained by dividing the total distance travelled by the total time taken. That is,

$$\text{average speed} = \frac{\text{Total distance travelled}}{\text{Total time taken}}$$

If an object travels a distance s in time t then its speed v is,

$$v = \frac{s}{t} \qquad (7.1)$$

Let us understand this by an example. A car travels a distance of 100 km in 2 h. Its average speed is 50 km h^{-1}. The car might not have travelled at 50 km h^{-1} all the time. Sometimes it might have travelled faster and sometimes slower than this.

Example 7.1 An object travels 16 m in 4 s and then another 16 m in 2 s. What is the average speed of the object?

Solution:

Total distance travelled by the object = 16 m + 16 m = 32 m

Total time taken = 4 s + 2 s = 6 s

$$\text{Average speed} = \frac{\text{Total distance travelled}}{\text{Total time taken}}$$

$$= \frac{32 \text{ m}}{6 \text{ s}} = 5.33 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

Therefore, the average speed of the object is 5.33 m s^{-1}.

7.2.1 Speed with Direction

The rate of motion of an object can be more comprehensive if we specify its direction of motion along with its speed. The quantity that specifies both these aspects is called velocity. Velocity is the speed of an object moving in a definite direction. The velocity of an object can be uniform or variable. It can be changed by changing the object's speed, direction of motion or both. When an object is moving along a straight line at a variable speed, we can express the magnitude of its rate of motion in terms of average velocity. It is calculated in the same way as we calculate average speed.

In case the velocity of the object is changing at a uniform rate, then average velocity is given by the arithmetic mean of initial velocity and final velocity for a given period of time. That is,

$$\text{average velocity} = \frac{\text{initial velocity} + \text{final velocity}}{2}$$

Mathematically, $v_{av} = \frac{u + v}{2}$ (7.2)

where v_{av} is the average velocity, u is the initial velocity and v is the final velocity of the object.

Speed and velocity have the same units, that is, m s^{-1} or m/s.

Activity 7.6

- Measure the time it takes you to walk from your house to your bus stop or the school. If you consider that your average walking speed is 4 km h^{-1}, estimate the distance of the bus stop or school from your house.

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Activity 7.7

- At a time when it is cloudy, there may be frequent thunder and lightning. The sound of thunder takes some time to reach you after you see the lightning.
- Can you answer why this happens?
- Measure this time interval using a digital wrist watch or a stop watch.
- Calculate the distance of the nearest point of lightning. (Speed of sound in air = 346 m s^{-1}.)

Questions

1. *Distinguish between speed and velocity.*
2. *Under what condition(s) is the magnitude of average velocity of an object equal to its average speed?*
3. *What does the odometer of an automobile measure?*
4. *What does the path of an object look like when it is in uniform motion?*
5. *During an experiment, a signal from a spaceship reached the ground station in five minutes. What was the distance of the spaceship from the ground station? The signal travels at the speed of light, that is, 3×10^8 m s^{-1}.*

Example 7.2 The odometer of a car reads 2000 km at the start of a trip and 2400 km at the end of the trip. If the trip took 8 h, calculate the average speed of the car in km h^{-1} and m s^{-1}.

Solution:

Distance covered by the car,
s = 2400 km – 2000 km = 400 km
Time elapsed, t = 8 h
Average speed of the car is,

$$v_{av} = \frac{s}{t} = \frac{400 \text{ km}}{8 \text{ h}}$$

$$= 50 \text{ km h}^{-1}$$

$$= 50 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{h}} \times \frac{1000 \text{ m}}{1 \text{ km}} \times \frac{1 \text{ h}}{3600 \text{ s}}$$

$$= 13.9 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

The average speed of the car is 50 km h^{-1} or 13.9 m s^{-1}.

Example 7.3 Usha swims in a 90 m long pool. She covers 180 m in one minute by swimming from one end to the other and back along the same straight path. Find the average speed and average velocity of Usha.

Solution:

Total distance covered by Usha in 1 min is 180 m.
Displacement of Usha in 1 min = 0 m

$$\text{Average speed} = \frac{\text{Total distance covered}}{\text{Total time taken}}$$

$$= \frac{180 \text{ m}}{1 \text{ min}} = \frac{180 \text{ m}}{1 \text{ min}} \times \frac{1 \text{ min}}{60 \text{ s}}$$

$$= 3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

$$\text{Average velocity} = \frac{\text{Displacement}}{\text{Total time taken}}$$

$$= \frac{0 \text{ m}}{60 \text{ s}}$$

$$= 0 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

The average speed of Usha is 3 m s^{-1} and her average velocity is 0 m s^{-1}.

7.3 Rate of Change of Velocity

During uniform motion of an object along a straight line, the velocity remains constant with time. In this case, the change in velocity of the object for any time interval is zero. However, in non-uniform motion, velocity varies with time. It has different values at different instants and at different points of the path. Thus, the change in velocity of the object during any time interval is not zero. Can we now express the change in velocity of an object?

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To answer such a question, we have to introduce another physical quantity called acceleration, which is a measure of the change in the velocity of an object per unit time. That is,

$$\text{acceleration} = \frac{\text{change in velocity}}{\text{time taken}}$$

If the velocity of an object changes from an initial value u to the final value v in time t, the acceleration a is,

$$a = \frac{v - u}{t} \qquad (7.3)$$

This kind of motion is known as accelerated motion. The acceleration is taken to be positive if it is in the direction of velocity and negative when it is opposite to the direction of velocity. The SI unit of acceleration is m s^{-2}.

If an object travels in a straight line and its velocity increases or decreases by equal amounts in equal intervals of time, then the acceleration of the object is said to be uniform. The motion of a freely falling body is an example of uniformly accelerated motion. On the other hand, an object can travel with non-uniform acceleration if its velocity changes at a non-uniform rate. For example, if a car travelling along a straight road increases its speed by unequal amounts in equal intervals of time, then the car is said to be moving with non-uniform acceleration.

Activity 7.8

- In your everyday life you come across a range of motions in which
  (a) acceleration is in the direction of motion,
  (b) acceleration is against the direction of motion,
  (c) acceleration is uniform,
  (d) acceleration is non-uniform.
- Can you identify one example each for the above type of motion?

Example 7.4 Starting from a stationary position, Rahul paddles his bicycle to attain a velocity of 6 m s^{-1} in 30 s. Then he applies brakes such that the velocity of the bicycle comes down to 4 m s^{-1} in the next 5 s. Calculate the acceleration of the bicycle in both the cases.

Solution:

In the first case:
initial velocity, $u = 0$;
final velocity, $v = 6$ m s^{-1} ;
time, $t = 30$ s .
From Eq. (8.3), we have

$$a = \frac{v - u}{t}$$

Substituting the given values of u, v and t in the above equation, we get

$$a = \frac{\left(6\,\text{m s}^{-1} - 0\,\text{m s}^{-1}\right)}{30\ \text{s}}$$

$$= 0.2\ \text{m s}^{-2}$$

In the second case:
initial velocity, $u = 6$ m s^{-1};
final velocity, $v = 4$ m s^{-1};
time, $t = 5$ s.

Then, $$a = \frac{\left(4\,\text{m s}^{-1} - 6\,\text{m s}^{-1}\right)}{5\ \text{s}}$$

$$= -0.4\ \text{m s}^{-2}.$$

The acceleration of the bicycle in the first case is 0.2 m s^{-2} and in the second case, it is –0.4 m s^{-2}.

Questions

1. *When will you say a body is in (i) uniform acceleration? (ii) non-uniform acceleration?*
2. *A bus decreases its speed from 80 km h^{-1} to 60 km h^{-1} in 5 s. Find the acceleration of the bus.*
3. *A train starting from a railway station and moving with uniform acceleration attains a speed 40 km h^{-1} in 10 minutes. Find its acceleration.*

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7.4 Graphical Representation of Motion

Graphs provide a convenient method to present basic information about a variety of events. For example, in the telecast of a one-day cricket match, vertical bar graphs show the run rate of a team in each over. As you have studied in mathematics, a straight line graph helps in solving a linear equation having two variables.

To describe the motion of an object, we can use line graphs. In this case, line graphs show dependence of one physical quantity, such as distance or velocity, on another quantity, such as time.

7.4.1 Distance–Time Graphs

The change in the position of an object with time can be represented on the distance-time graph adopting a convenient scale of choice. In this graph, time is taken along the *x*–axis and distance is taken along the *y*-axis. Distance-time graphs can be employed under various conditions where objects move with uniform speed, non-uniform speed, remain at rest etc.

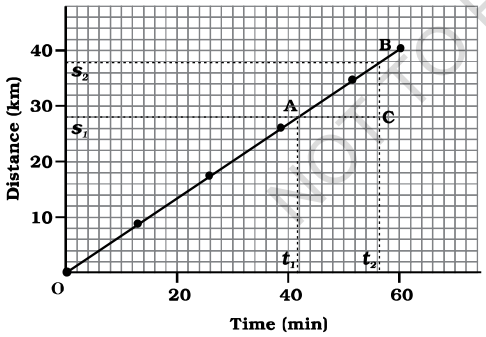


Fig. 7.3: Distance-time graph of an object moving with uniform speed

We know that when an object travels equal distances in equal intervals of time, it moves with uniform speed. This shows that the distance travelled by the object is directly proportional to time taken. Thus, for uniform speed, a graph of distance travelled against time is a straight line, as shown in Fig. 7.3. The portion OB of the graph shows that the distance is increasing at a uniform rate. Note that, you can also use the term uniform velocity in place of uniform speed if you take the magnitude of displacement equal to the distance travelled by the object along the *y*-axis.

We can use the distance-time graph to determine the speed of an object. To do so, consider a small part AB of the distance-time graph shown in Fig 7.3. Draw a line parallel to the *x*-axis from point A and another line parallel to the *y*-axis from point B. These two lines meet each other at point C to form a triangle ABC. Now, on the graph, AC denotes the time interval $(t_2 - t_1)$ while BC corresponds to the distance $(s_2 - s_1)$. We can see from the graph that as the object moves from the point A to B, it covers a distance $(s_2 - s_1)$ in time $(t_2 - t_1)$. The speed, v of the object, therefore can be represented as

$$v = \frac{s_2 - s_1}{t_2 - t_1} \qquad (7.4)$$

We can also plot the distance-time graph for accelerated motion. Table 7.2 shows the distance travelled by a car in a time interval of two seconds.

Table 7.2: Distance travelled by a car at regular time intervals

Time in seconds	Distance in metres
0	0
2	1
4	4
6	9
8	16
10	25
12	36

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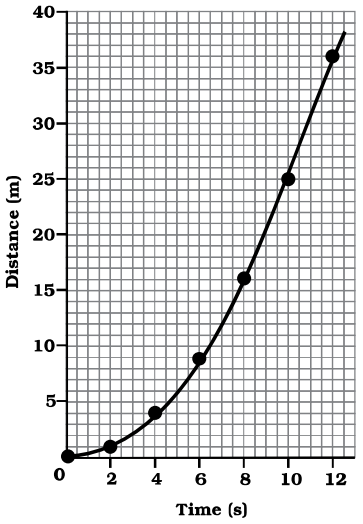


Fig. 7.4: Distance-time graph for a car moving with non-uniform speed

The distance-time graph for the motion of the car is shown in Fig. 7.4. Note that the shape of this graph is different from the earlier distance-time graph (Fig. 7.3) for uniform motion. The nature of this graph shows non-linear variation of the distance travelled by the car with time. Thus, the graph shown in Fig 7.4 represents motion with non-uniform speed.

7.4.2 Velocity-Time Graphs

The variation in velocity with time for an object moving in a straight line can be represented by a velocity-time graph. In this graph, time is represented along the *x*-axis and the velocity is represented along the *y*-axis. If the object moves at uniform velocity, the height of its velocity-time graph will not change with time (Fig. 7.5). It will be a straight line parallel to the *x*-axis. Fig. 7.5 shows the velocity-time graph for a car moving with uniform velocity of 40 km h^{-1}.

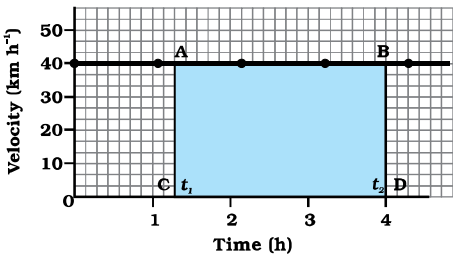


Fig. 7.5: Velocity-time graph for uniform motion of a car

We know that the product of velocity and time give displacement of an object moving with uniform velocity. The area enclosed by velocity-time graph and the time axis will be equal to the magnitude of the displacement.

To know the distance moved by the car between time t_1 and t_2 using Fig. 7.5, draw perpendiculars from the points corresponding to the time t_1 and t_2 on the graph. The velocity of 40 km h^{-1} is represented by the height AC or BD and the time $(t_2 - t_1)$ is represented by the length AB.

So, the distance s moved by the car in time $(t_2 - t_1)$ can be expressed as

s = AC CD
= [(40 km h^{-1}) $(t_2 - t_1)$ h]
= 40 $(t_2 - t_1)$ km
= area of the rectangle ABDC (shaded in Fig. 7.5).

We can also study about uniformly accelerated motion by plotting its velocity–time graph. Consider a car being driven along a straight road for testing its engine. Suppose a person sitting next to the driver records its velocity after every 5 seconds by noting the reading of the speedometer of the car. The velocity of the car, in km h^{-1} as well as in m s^{-1}, at different instants of time is shown in table 7.3.

Table 7.3: Velocity of a car at regular instants of time

Time (s)	Velocity of the car (m s^{-1})	(km h^{-1})
0	0	0
5	2.5	9
10	5.0	18
15	7.5	27
20	10.0	36
25	12.5	45
30	15.0	54

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In this case, the velocity-time graph for the motion of the car is shown in Fig. 7.6. The nature of the graph shows that velocity changes by equal amounts in equal intervals of time. Thus, for all uniformly accelerated motion, the velocity-time graph is a straight line.

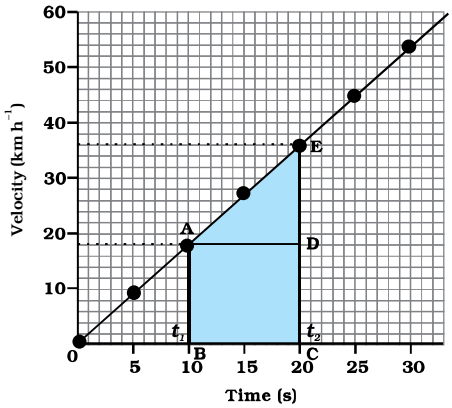


Fig. 7.6: Velocity-time graph for a car moving with uniform accelerations.

You can also determine the distance moved by the car from its velocity-time graph. The area under the velocity-time graph gives the distance (magnitude of displacement) moved by the car in a given interval of time. If the car would have been moving with uniform velocity, the distance travelled by it would be represented by the area ABCD under the graph (Fig. 7.6). Since the magnitude of the velocity of the car is changing due to acceleration, the distance s travelled by the car will be given by the area ABCDE under the velocity-time graph (Fig. 7.6).

That is,

s = area ABCDE

= area of the rectangle ABCD + area of the triangle ADE

= AB BC + $\frac{1}{2}$(AD DE)

In the case of non-uniformly accelerated motion, velocity-time graphs can have any shape.

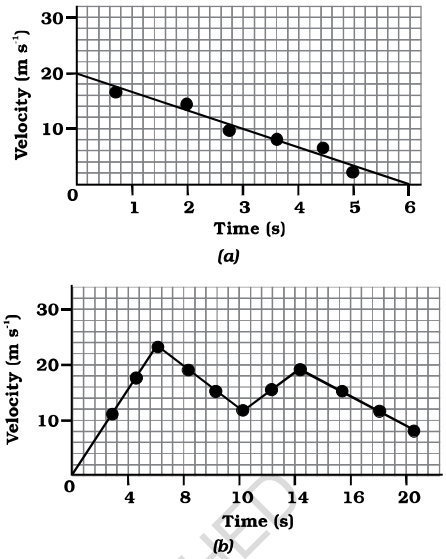


Fig. 7.7: Velocity-time graphs of an object in non-uniformly accelerated motion.

Fig. 7.7(a) shows a velocity-time graph that represents the motion of an object whose velocity is decreasing with time while Fig. 7.7 (b) shows the velocity-time graph representing the non-uniform variation of velocity of the object with time. Try to interpret these graphs.

Activity 7.9

- The times of arrival and departure of a train at three stations A, B and C and the distance of stations B and C from station A are given in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4: Distances of stations B and C from A and times of arrival and departure of the train

Station	Distance from A (km)	Time of arrival (hours)	Time of departure (hours)
A	0	08:00	08:15
B	120	11:15	11:30
C	180	13:00	13:15

- Plot and interpret the distance-time graph for the train assuming that its motion between any two stations is uniform.

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Activity 7.10

- Feroz and his sister Sania go to school on their bicycles. Both of them start at the same time from their home but take different times to reach the school although they follow the same route. Table 7.5 shows the distance travelled by them in different times

Table 7.5: Distance covered by Feroz and Sania at different times on their bicycles

Time	Distance travelled by Feroz (km)	Distance travelled by Sania (km)
8:00 am	0	0
8:05 am	1.0	0.8
8:10 am	1.9	1.6
8:15 am	2.8	2.3
8:20 am	3.6	3.0
8:25 am	–	3.6

- Plot the distance-time graph for their motions on the same scale and interpret.

Questions

1. *What is the nature of the distance-time graphs for uniform and non-uniform motion of an object?*
2. *What can you say about the motion of an object whose distance-time graph is a straight line parallel to the time axis?*
3. *What can you say about the motion of an object if its speed-time graph is a straight line parallel to the time axis?*
4. *What is the quantity which is measured by the area occupied below the velocity-time graph?*

7.5 Equations of Motion

When an object moves along a straight line with uniform acceleration, it is possible to relate its velocity, acceleration during motion and the distance covered by it in a certain time interval by a set of equations known as the equations of motion. For convenience, a set of three such equations are given below:

$$v = u + at \quad (7.5)$$

$$s = ut + \tfrac{1}{2} at^2 \quad (7.6)$$

$$2as = v^2 - u^2 \quad (7.7)$$

where u is the initial velocity of the object which moves with uniform acceleration a for time t, v is the final velocity, and s is the distance travelled by the object in time t. Eq. (7.5) describes the velocity-time relation and Eq. (7.6) represents the position-time relation. Eq. (7.7), which represents the relation between the position and the velocity, can be obtained from Eqs. (7.5) and (7.6) by eliminating t. These three equations can be derived by graphical method.

Example 7.5 A train starting from rest attains a velocity of 72 km h^{-1} in 5 minutes. Assuming that the acceleration is uniform, find (i) the acceleration and (ii) the distance travelled by the train for attaining this velocity.

Solution:

We have been given
$u = 0$; $v = 72$ km $h^{-1} = 20$ m s^{-1} and
$t = 5$ minutes $= 300$ s.

(i) From Eq. (7.5) we know that

$$a = \frac{(v-u)}{t}$$

$$= \frac{20\ \text{m s}^{-1} - 0\ \text{m s}^{-1}}{300\ \text{s}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{15}\ \text{m s}^{-2}$$

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(ii) From Eq. (7.7) we have
$2 a s = v^2 - u^2 = v^2 - 0$
Thus,

$$s = \frac{v^2}{2a}$$

$$= \frac{(20 \text{ m s}^{-1})^2}{2 \times (1/15) \text{ m s}^{-2}}$$

$$= 3000 \text{ m}$$
$$= 3 \text{ km}$$

The acceleration of the train is $\frac{1}{15}$ m s^{-2} and the distance travelled is 3 km.

Example 7.6 A car accelerates uniformly from 18 km h^{-1} to 36 km h^{-1} in 5 s. Calculate (i) the acceleration and (ii) the distance covered by the car in that time.

Solution:

We are given that
u = 18 km h^{-1} = 5 m s^{-1}
v = 36 km h^{-1} = 10 m s^{-1} and
t = 5 s .

(i) From Eq. (7.5) we have

$$a = \frac{v - u}{t}$$

$$= \frac{10 \text{ m s}^{-1} - 5 \text{ m s}^{-1}}{5 \text{ s}}$$

$$= 1 \text{ m s}^{-2}$$

(ii) From Eq. (7.6) we have

$$s = u t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2$$

$$= 5 \text{ m s}^{-1} \times 5 \text{ s} + \frac{1}{2} \times 1 \text{ m s}^{-2} \times (5 \text{ s})^2$$

$$= 25 \text{ m} + 12.5 \text{ m}$$

$$= 37.5 \text{ m}$$

The acceleration of the car is 1 m s^{-2} and the distance covered is 37.5 m.

Example 7.7 The brakes applied to a car produce an acceleration of 6 m s^{-2} in the opposite direction to the motion. If the car takes 2 s to stop after the application of brakes, calculate the distance it travels during this time.

Solution:

We have been given
$a = -6$ m s^{-2} ; $t = 2$ s and $v = 0$ m s^{-1}.
From Eq. (7.5) we know that
$v = u + at$
$0 = u + (-6 \text{ m s}^{-2})$ 2 s
or $u = 12$ m s^{-1} .
From Eq. (7.6) we get

$$s = u t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2$$

$$= (12 \text{ m s}^{-1}) \times (2 \text{ s}) + \frac{1}{2} (-6 \text{ m s}^{-2}) (2 \text{ s})^2$$

$$= 24 \text{ m} - 12 \text{ m}$$
$$= 12 \text{ m}$$

Thus, the car will move 12 m before it stops after the application of brakes. Can you now appreciate why drivers are cautioned to maintain some distance between vehicles while travelling on the road?

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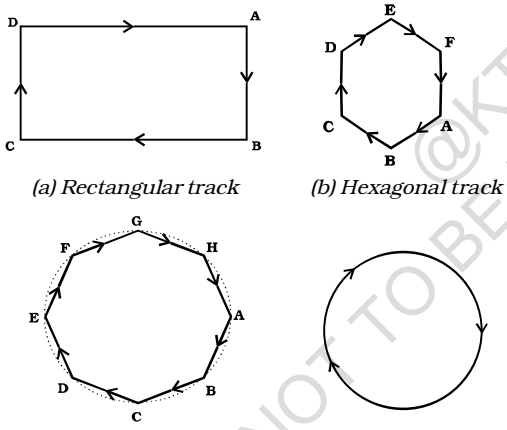
Questions

1. *A bus starting from rest moves with a uniform acceleration of 0.1 m s^{-2} for 2 minutes. Find (a) the speed acquired, (b) the distance travelled.*
2. *A train is travelling at a speed of 90 km h^{-1}. Brakes are applied so as to produce a uniform acceleration of – 0.5 m s^{-2}. Find how far the train will go before it is brought to rest.*
3. *A trolley, while going down an inclined plane, has an acceleration of 2 cm s^{-2}. What will be its velocity 3 s after the start?*

4. *A racing car has a uniform acceleration of 4 m s^{-2}. What distance will it cover in 10 s after start?*
5. *A stone is thrown in a vertically upward direction with a velocity of 5 m s^{-1}. If the acceleration of the stone during its motion is 10 m s^{-2} in the downward direction, what will be the height attained by the stone and how much time will it take to reach there?*

7.6 Uniform Circular Motion

When the velocity of an object changes, we say that the object is accelerating. The change in the velocity could be due to change in its magnitude or the direction of the motion or both. Can you think of an example when an object does not change its magnitude of velocity but only its direction of motion?



(a) Rectangular track *(b) Hexagonal track*

(c) Octagonal shaped track *(d) A circular track*

Fig. 7.8: *The motion of an athlete along closed tracks of different shapes.*

Let us consider an example of the motion of a body along a closed path. Fig 8.9 (a) shows the path of an athlete along a rectangular track ABCD. Let us assume that the athlete runs at a uniform speed on the straight parts AB, BC, CD and DA of the track. In order to keep himself on track, he quickly changes his speed at the corners. How many times will the athlete have to change his direction of motion, while he completes one round? It is clear that to move in a rectangular track once, he has to change his direction of motion four times.

Now, suppose instead of a rectangular track, the athlete is running along a hexagonal shaped path ABCDEF, as shown in Fig. 7.8(b). In this situation, the athlete will have to change his direction six times while he completes one round. What if the track was not a hexagon but a regular octagon, with eight equal sides as shown by ABCDEFGH in Fig. 7.8(c)? It is observed that as the number of sides of the track increases the athelete has to take turns more and more often. What would happen to the shape of the track as we go on increasing the number of sides indefinitely? If you do this you will notice that the shape of the track approaches the shape of a circle and the length of each of the sides will decrease to a point. If the athlete moves with a velocity of constant magnitude along the circular path, the only change in his velocity is due to the change in the direction of motion. The motion of the athlete moving along a circular path is, therefore, an example of an accelerated motion.

We know that the circumference of a circle of radius r is given by $2\pi r$. If the athlete takes t seconds to go once around the circular path of radius r, the speed v is given by

$$v = \frac{2\pi r}{t} \qquad (7.8)$$

When an object moves in a circular path with uniform speed, its motion is called uniform circular motion.

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Activity 7.11

- Take a piece of thread and tie a small piece of stone at one of its ends. Move the stone to describe a circular path with constant speed by holding the thread at the other end, as shown in Fig. 7.9.

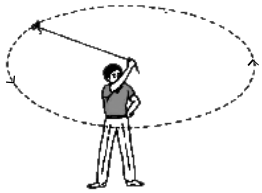


Fig. 7.9: A stone describing a circular path with a velocity of constant magnitude.

- Now, let the stone go by releasing the thread.
- Can you tell the direction in which the stone moves after it is released?
- By repeating the activity for a few times and releasing the stone at different positions of the circular path, check whether the direction in which the stone moves remains the same or not.

If you carefully note, on being released the stone moves along a straight line tangential to the circular path. This is because once the stone is released, it continues to move along the direction it has been moving at that instant. This shows that the direction of motion changed at every point when the stone was moving along the circular path.

When an athlete throws a hammer or a discus in a sports meet, he/she holds the hammer or the discus in his/her hand and gives it a circular motion by rotating his/her own body. Once released in the desired direction, the hammer or discus moves in the direction in which it was moving at the time it was released, just like the piece of stone in the activity described above. There are many more familiar examples of objects moving under uniform circular motion, such as the motion of the moon and the earth, a satellite in a circular orbit around the earth, a cyclist on a circular track at constant speed and so on.

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What you have learnt

- Motion is a change of position; it can be described in terms of the distance moved or the displacement.
- The motion of an object could be uniform or non-uniform depending on whether its velocity is constant or changing.
- The speed of an object is the distance covered per unit time, and velocity is the displacement per unit time.
- The acceleration of an object is the change in velocity per unit time.
- Uniform and non-uniform motions of objects can be shown through graphs.
- The motion of an object moving at uniform acceleration can be described with the help of the following equations, namely

$$v = u + at$$

$$s = ut + \tfrac{1}{2} at^2$$

$$2as = v^2 - u^2$$

where u is initial velocity of the object, which moves with uniform acceleration a for time t, v is its final velocity and s is the distance it travelled in time t.

- If an object moves in a circular path with uniform speed, its motion is called uniform circular motion.



Exercises

1. An athlete completes one round of a circular track of diameter 200 m in 40 *s*. What will be the distance covered and the displacement at the end of 2 minutes 20 s?
2. Joseph jogs from one end A to the other end B of a straight 300 m road in 2 minutes 30 seconds and then turns around and jogs 100 m back to point C in another 1 minute. What are Joseph's average speeds and velocities in jogging (a) from A to B and (b) from A to C?
3. Abdul, while driving to school, computes the average speed for his trip to be 20 km h^{-1}. On his return trip along the same route, there is less traffic and the average speed is 30 km h^{-1}. What is the average speed for Abdul's trip?
4. A motorboat starting from rest on a lake accelerates in a straight line at a constant rate of 3.0 m s^{-2} for 8.0 s. How far does the boat travel during this time?
5. A driver of a car travelling at 52 km h^{-1} applies the brakes Shade the area on the graph that represents the distance travelled by the car during the period.

   (b) Which part of the graph represents uniform motion of the car?
6. Fig 7.10 shows the distance-time graph of three objects A,B and C. Study the graph and answer the following questions:

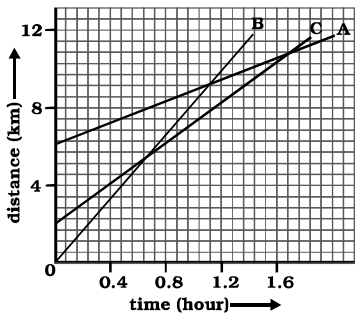


Fig. 7.10

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(a) Which of the three is travelling the fastest?

(b) Are all three ever at the same point on the road?

(c) How far has C travelled when B passes A?

(d) How far has B travelled by the time it passes C?

7. A ball is gently dropped from a height of 20 m. If its velocity increases uniformly at the rate of 10 m s^{-2}, with what velocity will it strike the ground? After what time will it strike the ground?

8. The speed-time graph for a car is shown is Fig. 7.11.

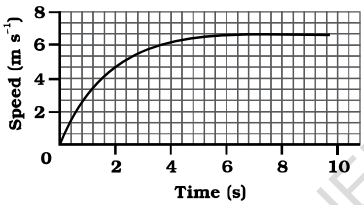


Fig. 7.11

(a) Find how far does the car travel in the first 4 seconds. Shade the area on the graph that represents the distance travelled by the car during the period.

(b) Which part of the graph represents uniform motion of the car?

9. State which of the following situations are possible and give an example for each of these:

(a) an object with a constant acceleration but with zero velocity

(b) an object moving with an acceleration but with uniform speed.

(c) an object moving in a certain direction with an acceleration in the perpendicular direction.

10. An artificial satellite is moving in a circular orbit of radius 42250 km. Calculate its speed if it takes 24 hours to revolve around the earth.

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Chapter 8

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FORCE AND LAWS OF MOTION

In the previous chapter, we described the motion of an object along a straight line in terms of its position, velocity and acceleration. We saw that such a motion can be uniform or non-uniform. We have not yet discovered what causes the motion. Why does the speed of an object change with time? Do all motions require a cause? If so, what is the nature of this cause? In this chapter we shall make an attempt to quench all such curiosities.

For many centuries, the problem of motion and its causes had puzzled scientists and philosophers. A ball on the ground, when given a small hit, does not move forever. Such observations suggest that rest is the "natural state" of an object. This remained the belief until Galileo Galilei and Isaac Newton developed an entirely different approach to understand motion.



(a) The trolley moves along the direction we push it.

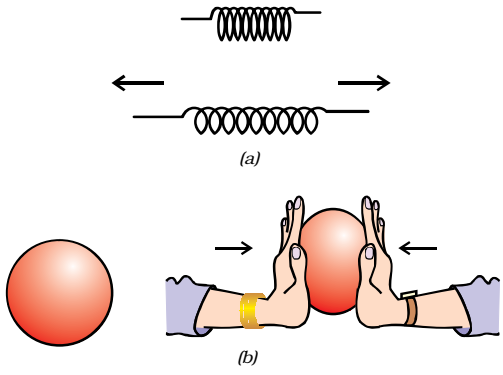
(b) The drawer is pulled.

(c) The hockey stick hits the ball forward

Fig. 8.1: *Pushing, pulling, or hitting objects change their state of motion.*

In our everyday life we observe that some effort is required to put a stationary object into motion or to stop a moving object. We ordinarily experience this as a muscular effort and say that we must push or hit or pull on an object to change its state of motion. The concept of force is based on this push, hit or pull. Let us now ponder about a 'force'. What is it? In fact, no one has seen, tasted or felt a force. However, we always see or feel the effect of a force. It can only be explained by describing what happens when a force is applied to an object. Pushing, hitting and pulling of objects are all ways of bringing objects in motion (Fig. 8.1). They move because we make a force act on them.

From your studies in earlier classes, you are also familiar with the fact that a force can be used to change the magnitude of velocity of an object (that is, to make the object move faster or slower) or to change its direction of motion. We also know that a force can change the shape and size of objects (Fig. 8.2).



(a)

(b)

Fig. 8.2: (a) *A spring expands on application of force; (b) A spherical rubber ball becomes oblong as we apply force on it.*

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8.1 Balanced and Unbalanced Forces

Fig. 8.3 shows a wooden block on a horizontal table. Two strings X and Y are tied to the two opposite faces of the block as shown. If we apply a force by pulling the string X, the block begins to move to the right. Similarly, if we pull the string Y, the block moves to the left. But, if the block is pulled from both the sides with equal forces, the block will not move. Such forces are called balanced forces and do not change the state of rest or of motion of an object. Now, let us consider a situation in which two opposite forces of different magnitudes pull the block. In this case, the block would begin to move in the direction of the greater force. Thus, the two forces are not balanced and the unbalanced force acts in the direction the block moves. This suggests that an unbalanced force acting on an object brings it in motion.

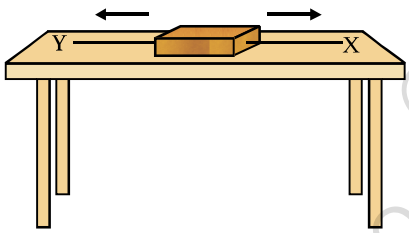
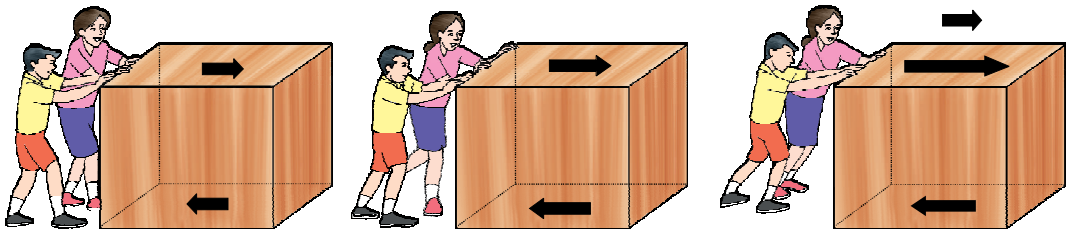


Fig. 8.3: Two forces acting on a wooden block

What happens when some children try to push a box on a rough floor? If they push the box with a small force, the box does not move because of friction acting in a direction opposite to the push [Fig. 8.4(a)]. This friction force arises between two surfaces in contact; in this case, between the bottom of the box and floor's rough surface. It balances the pushing force and therefore the box does not move. In Fig. 8.4(b), the children push the box harder but the box still does not move. This is because the friction force still balances the pushing force. If the children push the box harder still, the pushing force becomes bigger than the friction force [Fig. 8.4(c)]. There is an unbalanced force. So the box starts moving.

What happens when we ride a bicycle? When we stop pedalling, the bicycle begins to slow down. This is again because of the friction forces acting opposite to the direction of motion. In order to keep the bicycle moving, we have to start pedalling again. It thus appears that an object maintains its motion under the continuous application of an unbalanced force. However, it is quite incorrect. An object moves with a uniform velocity when the forces (pushing force and frictional force) acting on the object are balanced and there is no net external force on it. If an unbalanced force is applied on the object, there will be a change either in its speed or in the direction of its motion. Thus, to accelerate the motion of an object, an unbalanced force is required. And the change in its speed (or in the direction of motion) would continue as long as this unbalanced force is applied. However, if this force is

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(*a*) (*b*) (*c*)

Fig. 8.4

removed completely, the object would continue to move with the velocity it has acquired till then.

8.2 First Law of Motion

By observing the motion of objects on an inclined plane Galileo deduced that objects move with a constant speed when no force acts on them. He observed that when a marble rolls down an inclined plane, its velocity increases [Fig. 8.5(a)]. In the next chapter, you will learn that the marble falls under the unbalanced force of gravity as it rolls down and attains a definite velocity by the time it reaches the bottom. Its velocity decreases when it climbs up as shown in Fig. 8.5(b). Fig. 8.5(c) shows a marble resting on an ideal frictionless plane inclined on both sides. Galileo argued that when the marble is released from left, it would roll down the slope and go up on the opposite side to the same height from which it was released. If the inclinations of the planes on both sides are equal then the marble will climb the same distance that it covered while rolling down. If the angle of inclination of the right-side plane were gradually decreased, then the marble would travel further distances till it reaches the original height. If the right-side plane were ultimately made horizontal (that is, the slope is reduced to zero), the marble would continue to travel forever trying to reach the same height that it was released from. The unbalanced forces on the marble in this case are zero. It thus suggests that an unbalanced (external) force is required to change the motion of the marble but no net force is needed to sustain the uniform motion of the marble. In practical situations it is difficult to achieve a zero unbalanced force. This is because of the presence of the frictional force acting opposite to the direction of motion. Thus, in practice the marble stops after travelling some distance. The effect of the frictional force may be minimised by using a smooth marble and a smooth plane and providing a lubricant on top of the planes.

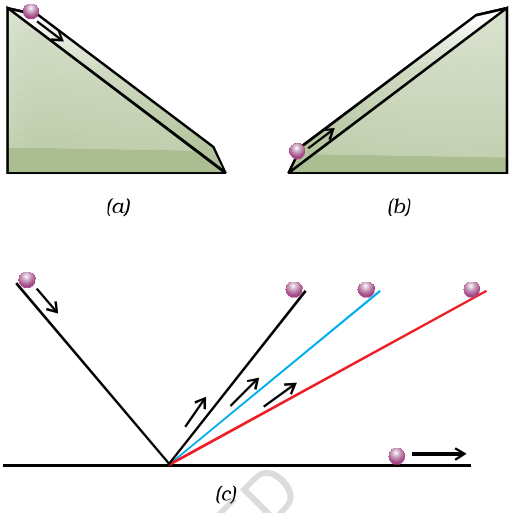


Fig. 8.5: *(a) the downward motion; (b) the upward motion of a marble on an inclined plane; and (c) on a double inclined plane.*

Newton further studied Galileo's ideas on force and motion and presented three fundamental laws that govern the motion of objects. These three laws are known as Newton's laws of motion. The first law of motion is stated as:

An object remains in a state of rest or of uniform motion in a straight line unless compelled to change that state by an applied force.

In other words, all objects resist a change in their *state of motion*. In a qualitative way, the tendency of undisturbed objects to stay at rest or to keep moving with the same velocity is called inertia. This is why, the first law of motion is also known as the law of inertia.

Certain experiences that we come across while travelling in a motorcar can be explained on the basis of the law of inertia. We tend to remain at rest with respect to the seat until the driver applies a braking force to stop the motorcar. With the application of brakes, the car slows down but our body tends to continue in the same state of motion because of its inertia. A sudden application of brakes may thus cause injury to us by impact

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Galileo Galilei (1564 – 1642)

Galileo Galilei was born on 15 February 1564 in Pisa, Italy. Galileo, right from his childhood, had interest in mathematics and natural philosophy. But his father Vincenzo Galilei wanted him to become a medical doctor. Accordingly, Galileo enrolled himself for a medical degree at the University of Pisa in 1581 which he never completed because of his real interest in mathematics. In 1586, he wrote his first scientific book *'The Little Balance* [*La Balancitta*]', in which he described Archimedes' method of finding the relative densities (or specific gravities) of substances using a balance. In 1589, in his series of essays – *De Motu*, he presented his theories about falling objects using an inclined plane to slow down the rate of descent.

In 1592, he was appointed professor of mathematics at the University of Padua in the Republic of Venice. Here he continued his observations on the theory of motion and through his study of inclined planes and the pendulum, formulated the correct law for uniformly accelerated objects that the distance the object moves is proportional to the square of the time taken.

Galileo was also a remarkable craftsman. He developed a series of telescopes whose optical performance was much better than that of other telescopes available during those days. Around 1640, he designed the first pendulum clock. In his book *'Starry Messenger'* on his astronomical discoveries, Galileo claimed to have seen mountains on the moon, the milky way made up of tiny stars, and four small bodies orbiting Jupiter. In his books *'Discourse on Floating Bodies'* and *'Letters on the Sunspots'*, he disclosed his observations of sunspots.

Using his own telescopes and through his observations on Saturn and Venus, Galileo argued that all the planets must orbit the Sun and not the earth, contrary to what was believed at that time.

or collision with the panels in front. Safety belts are worn to prevent such accidents. Safety belts exert a force on our body to make the forward motion slower. An opposite experience is encountered when we are standing in a bus and the bus begins to move suddenly. Now we tend to fall backwards. This is because the sudden start of the bus brings motion to the bus as well as to our feet in contact with the floor of the bus. But the rest of our body opposes this motion because of its inertia.

When a motorcar makes a sharp turn at a high speed, we tend to get thrown to one side. This can again be explained on the basis of the law of inertia. We tend to continue in our straight-line motion. When an unbalanced force is applied by the engine to change the direction of motion of the motorcar, we slip to one side of the seat due to the inertia of our body.

The fact that a body will remain at rest unless acted upon by an unbalanced force can be illustrated through the following activities:

Activity 8.1

- Make a pile of similar carom coins on a table, as shown in Fig. 8.6.
- Attempt a sharp horizontal hit at the bottom of the pile using another carom coin or the striker. If the hit is strong enough, the bottom coin moves out quickly. Once the lowest coin is removed, the inertia of the other coins makes them 'fall' vertically on the table.

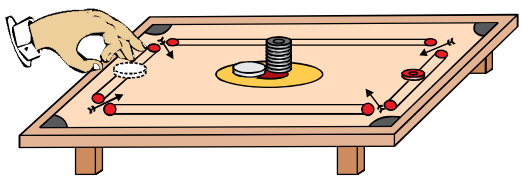


Fig. 8.6: *Only the carom coin at the bottom of a pile is removed when a fast moving carom coin (or striker) hits it.*

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Activity 8.2

- Set a five-rupee coin on a stiff card covering an empty glass tumbler standing on a table as shown in Fig. 8.7.
- Give the card a sharp horizontal flick with a finger. If we do it fast then the card shoots away, allowing the coin to fall vertically into the glass tumbler due to its inertia.
- The inertia of the coin tries to maintain its state of rest even when the card flows off.

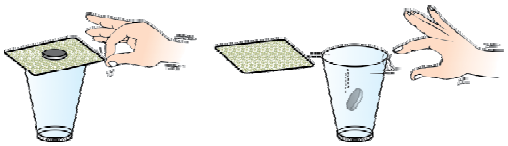


Fig. 8.7: When the card is flicked with the finger the coin placed over it falls in the tumbler.

Activity 8.3

- Place a water-filled tumbler on a tray.
- Hold the tray and turn around as fast as you can.
- We observe that the water spills. Why?

Observe that a groove is provided in a saucer for placing the tea cup. It prevents the cup from toppling over in case of sudden jerks.

8.3 Inertia and Mass

All the examples and activities given so far illustrate that there is a resistance offered by an object to change its state of motion. If it is at rest it tends to remain at rest; if it is moving it tends to keep moving. This property of an object is called its inertia. Do all bodies have the same inertia? We know that it is easier to push an empty box than a box full of books. Similarly, if we kick a football it flies away. But if we kick a stone of the same size with equal force, it hardly moves. We may, in fact, get an injury in our foot while doing so! Similarly, in activity 8.2, instead of a five-rupees coin if we use a one-rupee coin, we find that a lesser force is required to perform the activity. A force that is just enough to cause a small cart to pick up a large velocity will produce a negligible change in the motion of a train. This is because, in comparison to the cart the train has a much lesser tendency to change its state of motion. Accordingly, we say that the train has more inertia than the cart. Clearly, heavier or more massive objects offer larger inertia. Quantitatively, the inertia of an object is measured by its mass. We may thus relate inertia and mass as follows:

Inertia is the natural tendency of an object to resist a change in its state of motion or of rest. The mass of an object is a measure of its inertia.

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Questions

1. *Which of the following has more inertia: (a) a rubber ball and a stone of the same size? (b) a bicycle and a train? (c) a five-rupees coin and a one-rupee coin?*
2. *In the following example, try to identify the number of times the velocity of the ball changes:*
   "A football player kicks a football to another player of his team who kicks the football towards the goal. The goalkeeper of the opposite team collects the football and kicks it towards a player of his own team".
   Also identify the agent supplying the force in each case.
3. *Explain why some of the leaves may get detached from a tree if we vigorously shake its branch.*
4. *Why do you fall in the forward direction when a moving bus brakes to a stop and fall backwards when it accelerates from rest?*

8.4 Second Law of Motion

The first law of motion indicates that when an unbalanced external force acts on an object,

its velocity changes, that is, the object gets an acceleration. We would now like to study how the acceleration of an object depends on the force applied to it and how we measure a force. Let us recount some observations from our everyday life. During the game of table tennis if the ball hits a player it does not hurt him. On the other hand, when a fast moving cricket ball hits a spectator, it may hurt him. A truck at rest does not require any attention when parked along a roadside. But a moving truck, even at speeds as low as 5 m s^{-1}, may kill a person standing in its path. A small mass, such as a bullet may kill a person when fired from a gun. These observations suggest that the impact produced by the objects depends on their mass and velocity. Similarly, if an object is to be accelerated, we know that a greater force is required to give a greater velocity. In other words, there appears to exist some quantity of importance that combines the object's mass and its velocity. One such property called momentum was introduced by Newton. The momentum, p of an object is defined as the product of its mass, m and velocity, v. That is,

$$p = mv \quad (8.1)$$

Momentum has both direction and magnitude. Its direction is the same as that of velocity, v. The SI unit of momentum is kilogram-metre per second (kg m s^{-1}). Since the application of an unbalanced force brings a change in the velocity of the object, it is therefore clear that a force also produces a change of momentum.

Let us consider a situation in which a car with a dead battery is to be pushed along a straight road to give it a speed of 1 m s^{-1}, which is sufficient to start its engine. If one or two persons give a sudden push (unbalanced force) to it, it hardly starts. But a continuous push over some time results in a gradual acceleration of the car to this speed. It means that the change of momentum of the car is not only determined by the magnitude of the force but also by the time during which the force is exerted. It may then also be concluded that the force necessary to change the momentum of an object depends on the time rate at which the momentum is changed.

The second law of motion states that the rate of change of momentum of an object is proportional to the applied unbalanced force in the direction of force.

8.4.1 Mathematical formulation of second law of motion

Suppose an object of mass, m is moving along a straight line with an initial velocity, u. It is uniformly accelerated to velocity, v in time, t by the application of a constant force, F throughout the time, t. The initial and final momentum of the object will be, $p_1 = mu$ and $p_2 = mv$ respectively.

The change in momentum $\propto p_2 - p_1$
$\propto mv - mu$
$\propto m \times (v - u)$.

The rate of change of momentum $\propto \frac{m \times (v-u)}{t}$

Or, the applied force,

$$F \propto \frac{m \times (v-u)}{t}$$

$$F = \frac{km \times (v-u)}{t} \quad (8.2)$$

$$= kma \quad (8.3)$$

Here a [= $(v - u)/t$] is the acceleration, which is the rate of change of velocity. The quantity, k is a constant of proportionality. The SI units of mass and acceleration are kg and m s^{-2} respectively. The unit of force is so chosen that the value of the constant, k becomes one. For this, one unit of force is defined as the amount that produces an acceleration of 1 m s^{-2} in an object of 1 kg mass. That is,

1 unit of force = $k \times$ (1 kg) $\times$ (1 m s^{-2}).

Thus, the value of k becomes 1. From Eq. (8.3)

$$F = ma \quad (8.4)$$

The unit of force is kg m s^{-2} or newton, which has the symbol N. The second law of

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motion gives us a method to measure the force acting on an object as a product of its mass and acceleration.

The second law of motion is often seen in action in our everyday life. Have you noticed that while catching a fast moving cricket ball, a fielder in the ground gradually pulls his hands backwards with the moving ball? In doing so, the fielder increases the time during which the high velocity of the moving ball decreases to zero. Thus, the acceleration of the ball is decreased and therefore the impact of catching the fast moving ball (Fig. 8.8) is also reduced. If the ball is stopped suddenly then its high velocity decreases to zero in a very short interval of time. Thus, the rate of change of momentum of the ball will be large. Therefore, a large force would have to be applied for holding the catch that may hurt the palm of the fielder. In a high jump athletic event, the athletes are made to fall either on a cushioned bed or on a sand bed. This is to increase the time of the athlete's fall to stop after making the jump. This decreases the rate of change of momentum and hence the force. Try to ponder how a karate player breaks a slab of ice with a single blow.



Fig. 8.8: A fielder pulls his hands gradually with the moving ball while holding a catch.

The first law of motion can be mathematically stated from the mathematical expression for the second law of motion. Eq. (8.4) is

$$F = ma$$

$$\text{or} \quad F = \frac{m(v-u)}{t} \qquad (8.5)$$

$$\text{or} \quad Ft = mv - mu$$

That is, when $F = 0$, $v = u$ for whatever time, t is taken. This means that the object will continue moving with uniform velocity, u throughout the time, t. If u is zero then v will also be zero. That is, the object will remain at rest.

Example 8.1 A constant force acts on an object of mass 5 kg for a duration of 2 s. It increases the object's velocity from 3 m s^{-1} to 7 m s^{-1}. Find the magnitude of the applied force. Now, if the force was applied for a duration of 5 s, what would be the final velocity of the object?

Solution:

We have been given that u = 3 m s^{-1} and v = 7 m s^{-1}, t = 2 s and m = 5 kg. From Eq. (8.5) we have,

$$F = \frac{m(v-u)}{t}$$

Substitution of values in this relation gives

F = 5 kg (7 m s^{-1} – 3 m s^{-1})/2 s = 10 N.

Now, if this force is applied for a duration of 5 s (t = 5 s), then the final velocity can be calculated by rewriting Eq. (8.5) as

$$v = u + \frac{Ft}{m}$$

On substituting the values of u, F, m and t, we get the final velocity,

v = 13 m s^{-1}.

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Example 8.2 Which would require a greater force — accelerating a 2 kg mass at 5 m s^{-2} or a 4 kg mass at 2 m s^{-2}?

Solution:

From Eq. (8.4), we have $F = ma$.
Here we have m_1 = 2 kg; a_1 = 5 m s^{-2} and m_2 = 4 kg; a_2 = 2 m s^{-2}.
Thus, $F_1 = m_1a_1$ = 2 kg × 5 m s^{-2} = 10 N;
and $F_2 = m_2a_2$ = 4 kg × 2 m s^{-2} = 8 N.
$\Rightarrow F_1 > F_2$.
Thus, accelerating a 2 kg mass at 5 m s^{-2} would require a greater force.

Example 8.3 A motorcar is moving with a velocity of 108 km/h and it takes 4 s to stop after the brakes are applied. Calculate the force exerted by the brakes on the motorcar if its mass along with the passengers is 1000 kg.

Solution:

The initial velocity of the motorcar
u = 108 km/h
= 108 × 1000 m/(60 × 60 s)
= 30 m s^{-1}
and the final velocity of the motorcar v = 0 m s^{-1}.
The total mass of the motorcar along with its passengers = 1000 kg and the time taken to stop the motorcar, t = 4 s.
From Eq. (8.5) we have the magnitude of the force *(F)* applied by the brakes as $m(v - u)/t$.
On substituting the values, we get
F = 1000 kg × (0 – 30) m s^{-1}/4 s
= – 7500 kg m s^{-2} or – 7500 N.
The negative sign tells us that the force exerted by the brakes is opposite to the direction of motion of the motorcar.

Example 8.4 A force of 5 N gives a mass m_1, an acceleration of 10 m s^{-2} and a mass m_2, an acceleration of 20 m s^{-2}. What acceleration would it give if both the masses were tied together?

Solution:

From Eq. (8.4) we have $m_1 = F/a_1$; and $m_2 = F/a_2$. Here, a_1 = 10 m s^{-2}; a_2 = 20 m s^{-2} and F = 5 N.
Thus, m_1 = 5 N/10 m s^{-2} = 0.50 kg; and m_2 = 5 N/20 m s^{-2} = 0.25 kg.
If the two masses were tied together, the total mass, m would be
m = 0.50 kg + 0.25 kg = 0.75 kg.
The acceleration, a produced in the combined mass by the 5 N force would be, $a = F/m$ = 5 N/0.75 kg = 6.67 m s^{-2}.

Example 8.5 The velocity-time graph of a ball of mass 20 g moving along a straight line on a long table is given in Fig. 8.9.

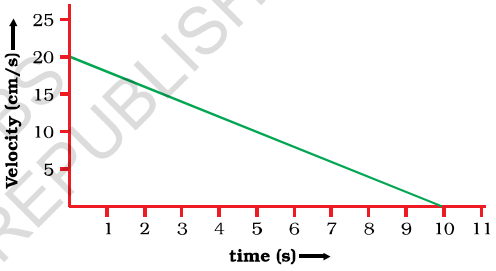


Fig. 8.9

How much force does the table exert on the ball to bring it to rest?

Solution:

The initial velocity of the ball is 20 cm s^{-1}. Due to the frictional force exerted by the table, the velocity of the ball decreases down to zero in 10 s. Thus, u = 20 cm s^{-1}; v = 0 cm s^{-1} and t = 10 s. Since the velocity-time graph is a straight line, it is clear that the ball moves with a constant acceleration. The acceleration a is

$$a = \frac{v - u}{t}$$

= (0 cm s^{-1} – 20 cm s^{-1})/10 s
= –2 cm s^{-2} = –0.02 m s^{-2}.

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The force exerted on the ball F is,

$F = ma = (20/1000)\ \text{kg} \times (-0.02\ \text{m s}^{-2})$

$= -0.0004$ N.

The negative sign implies that the frictional force exerted by the table is opposite to the direction of motion of the ball.

8.5 Third Law of Motion

The first two laws of motion tell us how an applied force changes the motion and provide us with a method of determining the force. The third law of motion states that when one object exerts a force on another object, the second object instantaneously exerts a force back on the first. These two forces are always equal in magnitude but opposite in direction. These forces act on different objects and never on the same object. In the game of football sometimes we, while looking at the football and trying to kick it with a greater force, collide with a player of the opposite team. Both feel hurt because each applies a force to the other. In other words, there is a pair of forces and not just one force. The two opposing forces are also known as action and reaction forces.

Let us consider two spring balances connected together as shown in Fig. 8.10. The fixed end of balance B is attached with a rigid support, like a wall. When a force is applied through the free end of spring balance A, it is observed that both the spring balances show the same readings on their scales. It means that the force exerted by spring balance A on balance B is equal but opposite in direction to the force exerted by the balance B on balance A. Any of these two forces can be called as *action* and the other as *reaction*. This gives us an alternative statement of the third law of motion i.e., to every action there is an equal and opposite reaction. However, it must be remembered that the action and reaction always act on two different objects, simultaneously.

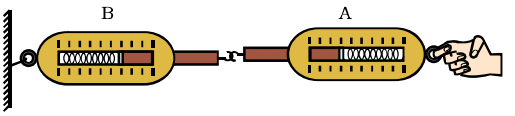


Fig. 8.10: Action and reaction forces are equal and opposite.

Suppose you are standing at rest and intend to start walking on a road. You must accelerate, and this requires a force in accordance with the second law of motion. Which is this force? Is it the muscular effort you exert on the road? Is it in the direction we intend to move? No, you push the road below backwards. The road exerts an equal and opposite force on your feet to make you move forward.

It is important to note that even though the action and reaction forces are always equal in magnitude, these forces may not produce accelerations of equal magnitudes. This is because each force acts on a different object that may have a different mass.

When a gun is fired, it exerts a forward force on the bullet. The bullet exerts an equal and opposite force on the gun. This results in the recoil of the gun (Fig. 8.11). Since the gun has a much greater mass than the bullet, the acceleration of the gun is much less than the acceleration of the bullet. The third law of motion can also be illustrated when a sailor jumps out of a rowing boat. As the sailor jumps forward, the force on the boat moves it backwards (Fig. 8.12).

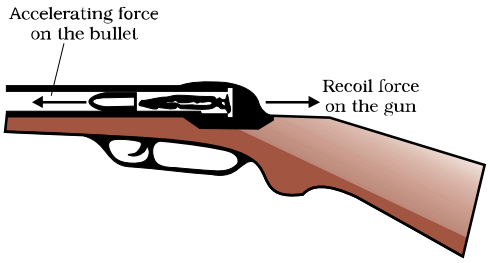


Fig. 8.11: A forward force on the bullet and recoil of the gun.

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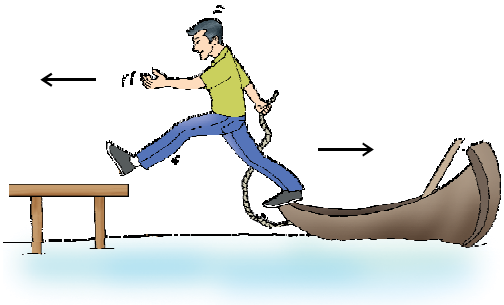


Fig. 8.12: As the sailor jumps in forward direction, the boat moves backwards.

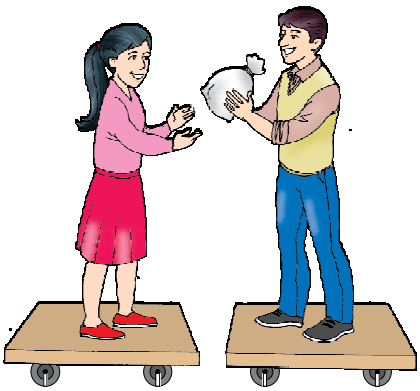


Fig. 8.13

Activity 8.4

- Request two children to stand on two separate carts as shown in Fig. 8.13.
- Give them a bag full of sand or some other heavy object. Ask them to play a game of catch with the bag.
- Does each of them experience an instantaneous force as a result of throwing the sand bag?
- You can paint a white line on cartwheels to observe the motion of the two carts when the children throw the bag towards each other.

Now, place two children on one cart and one on another cart. The second law of motion can be seen, as this arrangement would show different accelerations for the same force.

The cart shown in this activity can be constructed by using a 12 mm or 18 mm thick plywood board of about 50 cm × 100 cm with two pairs of hard ball-bearing wheels (skate wheels are good to use). Skateboards are not as effective because it is difficult to maintain straight-line motion.

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What you have learnt

- First law of motion: An object continues to be in a state of rest or of uniform motion along a straight line unless acted upon by an unbalanced force.
- The natural tendency of objects to resist a change in their state of rest or of uniform motion is called inertia.
- The mass of an object is a measure of its inertia. Its SI unit is kilogram (kg).
- Force of friction always opposes motion of objects.
- Second law of motion: The rate of change of momentum of an object is proportional to the applied unbalanced force in the direction of the force.

- The SI unit of force is kg m s^{-2}. This is also known as newton and represented by the symbol N. A force of one newton produces an acceleration of 1 m s^{-2} on an object of mass 1 kg.
- The momentum of an object is the product of its mass and velocity and has the same direction as that of the velocity. Its SI unit is kg m s^{-1}.
- Third law of motion: To every action, there is an equal and opposite reaction and they act on two different bodies.

Exercises



1. An object experiences a net zero external unbalanced force. Is it possible for the object to be travelling with a non-zero velocity? If yes, state the conditions that must be placed on
2. When a carpet is beaten with a stick, dust comes out of it, Explain.
3. Why is it advised to tie any luggage kept on the roof of a bus with a rope?
4. A batsman hits a cricket ball which then rolls on a level ground. After covering a short distance, the ball comes to rest. The ball slows to a stop because
   (a) the batsman did not hit the ball hard enough.
   (b) velocity is proportional to the force exerted on the ball.
   (c) there is a force on the ball opposing the motion.
   (d) there is no unbalanced force on the ball, so the ball would want to come to rest.
5. A truck starts from rest and rolls down a hill with a constant acceleration. It travels a distance of 400 m in 20 s. Find its acceleration. Find the force acting on it if its mass is 7 tonnes (*Hint*: 1 tonne = 1000 kg.)
6. A stone of 1 kg is thrown with a velocity of 20 m s^{-1} across the frozen surface of a lake and comes to rest after travelling a distance of 50 m. What is the force of friction between the stone and the ice?
7. A 8000 kg engine pulls a train of 5 wagons, each of 2000 kg, along a horizontal track. If the engine exerts a force of 40000 N and the track offers a friction force of 5000 N, then calculate:
   (a) the net accelerating force and
   (b) the acceleration of the train.
8. An automobile vehicle has a mass of 1500 kg. What must be the force between the vehicle and road if the vehicle is to be

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stopped with a negative acceleration of 1.7 m s^{-2}?

9. What is the momentum of an object of mass *m,* moving with a velocity *v*?

   (a) $(mv)^2$ (b) mv^2 (c) ½ mv^2 (d) mv

10. Using a horizontal force of 200 N, we intend to move a wooden cabinet across a floor at a constant velocity. What is the friction force that will be exerted on the cabinet?

11. According to the third law of motion when we push on an object, the object pushes back on us with an equal and opposite force. If the object is a massive truck parked along the roadside, it will probably not move. A student justifies this by answering that the two opposite and equal forces cancel each other. Comment on this logic and explain why the truck does not move.

12. A hockey ball of mass 200 g travelling at 10 m s^{-1} is struck by a hockey stick so as to return it along its original path with a velocity at 5 m s^{-1}. Calculate the magnitude of change of momentum occurred in the motion of the hockey ball by the force applied by the hockey stick.

13. A bullet of mass 10 g travelling horizontally with a velocity of 150 m s^{-1} strikes a stationary wooden block and comes to rest in 0.03 s. Calculate the distance of penetration of the bullet into the block. Also calculate the magnitude of the force exerted by the wooden block on the bullet.

14. An object of mass 1 kg travelling in a straight line with a velocity of 10 m s^{-1} collides with, and sticks to, a stationary wooden block of mass 5 kg. Then they both move off together in the same straight line. Calculate the total momentum just before the impact and just after the impact. Also, calculate the velocity of the combined object.

15. An object of mass 100 kg is accelerated uniformly from a velocity of 5 m s^{-1} to 8 m s^{-1} in 6 s. Calculate the initial and final momentum of the object. Also, find the magnitude of the force exerted on the object.

16. Akhtar, Kiran and Rahul were riding in a motorcar that was moving with a high velocity on an expressway when an insect hit the windshield and got stuck on the windscreen. Akhtar and Kiran started pondering over the situation. Kiran suggested that the insect suffered a greater change in momentum as compared to the change in momentum of the motorcar (because the change in the velocity of the insect was much more than that of the motorcar). Akhtar said that since the motorcar was moving with a larger velocity, it exerted a larger force on the insect. And as a result the insect died. Rahul while putting an entirely new explanation

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said that both the motorcar and the insect experienced the same force and a change in their momentum. Comment on these suggestions.

17. How much momentum will a dumb-bell of mass 10 kg transfer to the floor if it falls from a height of 80 cm? Take its downward acceleration to be 10 m s^{-2}.



Additional Exercises

A1. The following is the distance-time table of an object in motion:

Time in seconds	Distance in metres
0	0
1	1
2	8
3	27
4	64
5	125
6	216
7	343

(a) What conclusion can you draw about the acceleration? Is it constant, increasing, decreasing, or zero?

(b) What do you infer about the forces acting on the object?

A2. Two persons manage to push a motorcar of mass 1200 kg at a uniform velocity along a level road. The same motorcar can be pushed by three persons to produce an acceleration of 0.2 m s^{-2}. With what force does each person push the motorcar? (Assume that all persons push the motorcar with the same muscular effort.)

A3. A hammer of mass 500 g, moving at 50 m s^{-1}, strikes a nail. The nail stops the hammer in a very short time of 0.01 s. What is the force of the nail on the hammer?

A4. A motorcar of mass 1200 kg is moving along a straight line with a uniform velocity of 90 km/h. Its velocity is slowed down to 18 km/h in 4 s by an unbalanced external force. Calculate the acceleration and change in momentum. Also calculate the magnitude of the force required.

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Answers

Chapter 7

1. (a) distance = 2200 m; displacement = 200 m.
2. (a) average speed = average velocity = 2.00 m s^{-1}
   (b) average speed = 1.90 m s^{-1}; average velocity = 0.952 m s^{-1}
3. average speed = 24 km h^{-1}
4. distance travelled = 96 m
7. velocity = 20 m s^{-1}; time = 2 s
10. speed = 3.07 km s^{-1}

Chapter 8

4. c
5. 2 m s^{-2}, 14000 N
6. – 4 N
7. (a) 35000 N
   (b) 1.944 m s^{-2}
8. 2550 N in a direction opposite to the motion of the vehicle
9. d
10. 200 N
12. 3 kg m s^{-1}
13. 2.25 m; 50 N
14. 10 kg m s^{-1}; 10 kg m s^{-1}; 5/3 m s^{-1}
15. 500 kg m s^{-1}; 800 kg m s^{-1}; 50 N
17. 40 kg m s^{-1}

A2. 240 N

A3. 2500 N

A4. 5 m s^{-2}; 24000 kg m s^{-1}; 6000 N

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Constitution of India

Part IV A (Article 51 A)

Fundamental Duties

It shall be the duty of every citizen of India —

(a) to abide by the Constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, the National Flag and the National Anthem;

(b) to cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired our national struggle for freedom;

(c) to uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India;

(d) to defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so;

(e) to promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India transcending religious, linguistic and regional or sectional diversities; to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women;

(f) to value and preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture;

(g) to protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers, wildlife and to have compassion for living creatures;

(h) to develop the scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform;

(i) to safeguard public property and to abjure violence;

(j) to strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity so that the nation constantly rises to higher levels of endeavour and achievement;

*(k) who is a parent or guardian, to provide opportunities for education to his child or, as the case may be, ward between the age of six and fourteen years.

Note: The Article 51A containing Fundamental Duties was inserted by the Constitution (42nd Amendment) Act, 1976 (with effect from 3 January 1977).

*(k) was inserted by the Constitution (86th Amendment) Act, 2002 (with effect from 1 April 2010).

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