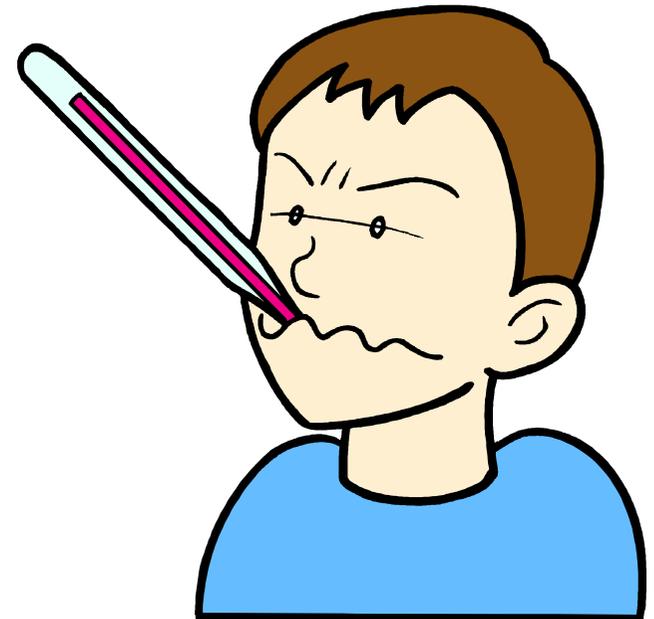


Standard Grade Physics

Medical Physics



Name: _____

Class: _____

Teacher: _____

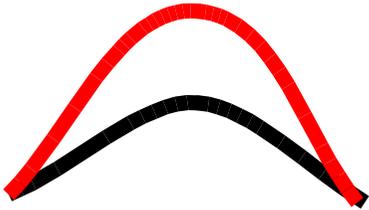
TEMPERATURE and THERMOMETERS

The **temperature** of an object is a measure of how **h**__ or **c**__ it is. Unit: **d**_____ **C**_____ (°C).

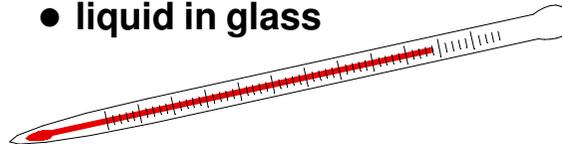
We measure **temperature** with a **t**_____.
This requires some measurable **p**_____ **q**_____ which changes with **temperature**.

The word bank contains measurable physical quantities which change with temperature.
By drawing lines, match these to the correct thermometer.

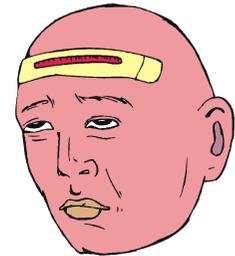
- thermocouple



- liquid in glass



- liquid crystal



- Electrical resistance of metal wire.

- **Volume of liquid.**

- Two metals expand by different amounts.

- **Colour of crystals.**

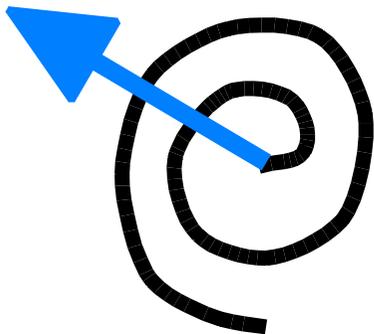
- Voltage difference between ends of 2 metals joined together.

- **Resistance of temperature sensitive resistor (thermistor).**

- resistance thermometer



- rotary (bimetallic strip)



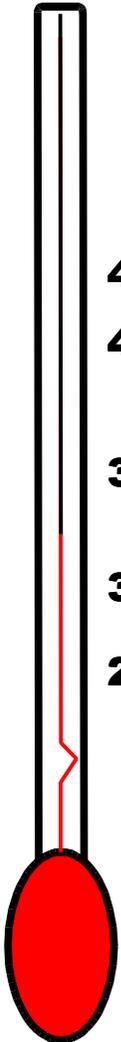
- digital (thermistor) thermometer



Human Body Temperature

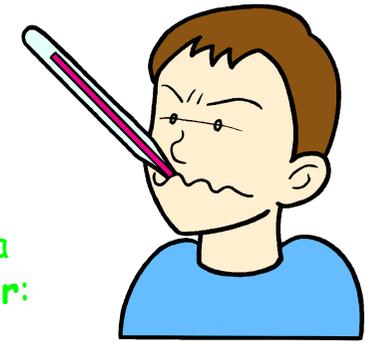
Doctors use **body temperature** to tell if a patient is **ill**.

- By drawing lines, match the terms in the **word bank** to the temperatures shown on the **clinical liquid in glass thermometer**.



- death
- death
- severe fever / poor blood flow round body/ unconsciousness
- hypothermia
- normal healthy body temperature
- shivering / reduced heart rate

Measuring Human Body Temperature



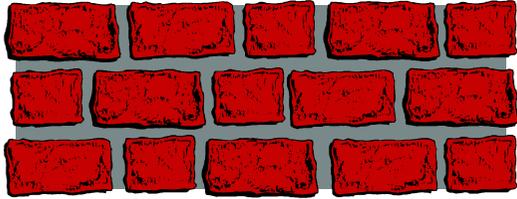
- Describe how to measure **human body temperature** with a **clinical liquid in glass thermometer**:

- Describe any **differences** in your measuring technique if you used a **digital clinical thermometer**:



Sound Travelling Through Materials

Can **sound** travel through:



• **solids** like brick?

yes no



• **liquids** like water?

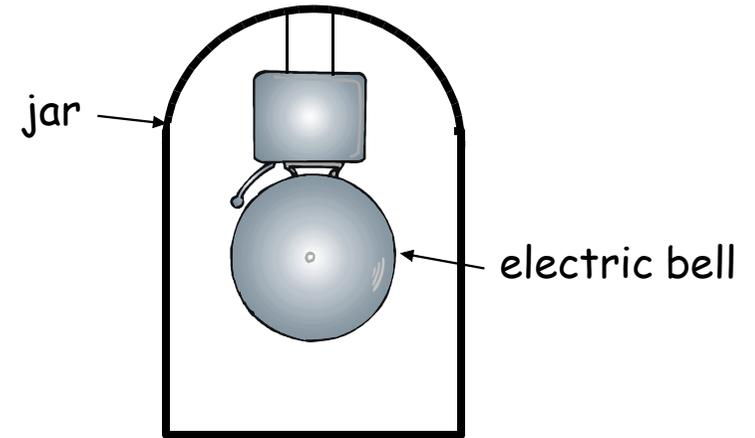
yes no



• **gases** like air?

yes no

Sound cannot travel through a **v** _____ where there are no **s** _____, **l** _____ or **g** _____ particles.



When the jar has **air** in it, we can hear the bell
r _____.

Describe and explain what happens when **air** is pumped out of the jar:

The Stethoscope

- Label the diagram of a **stethoscope**:

word bank

bells, ear pieces, rubber tubes



- Explain the basic principles of the **stethoscope** as a hearing aid:

Noise Pollution

Noise is any **s** _____ which is unpleasant to **h** _____.

- What can happen to people who are exposed to too much noise for a long time:

Some examples of **noise pollution** are:



- _____



- _____



- _____



- _____

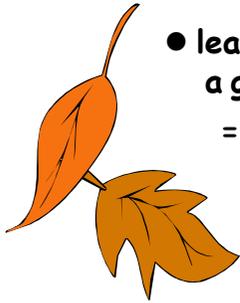
Sound Levels

Some **sounds** are **louder** than others.

We measure the **loudness** of **sound** in units called **d** _____ (___).

● Match the **sound levels** given in the box below to the appropriate situations:

0 dB	20 dB	30 dB	50 dB	70 dB	100 dB	110 dB	115 dB	120 dB	130 dB	140 dB
------	-------	-------	-------	-------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------



● leaves rustling in a gentle breeze
= _____



● low flying aircraft
= _____



● motor cycle at 1 metre
= _____



● normal conversation
= _____



● pain threshold
= _____



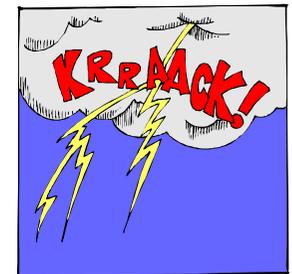
● loud television
= _____



● minimum sound level that can be heard
= _____



● danger level to hearing
= _____



● thunder
= _____



● whisper
= _____



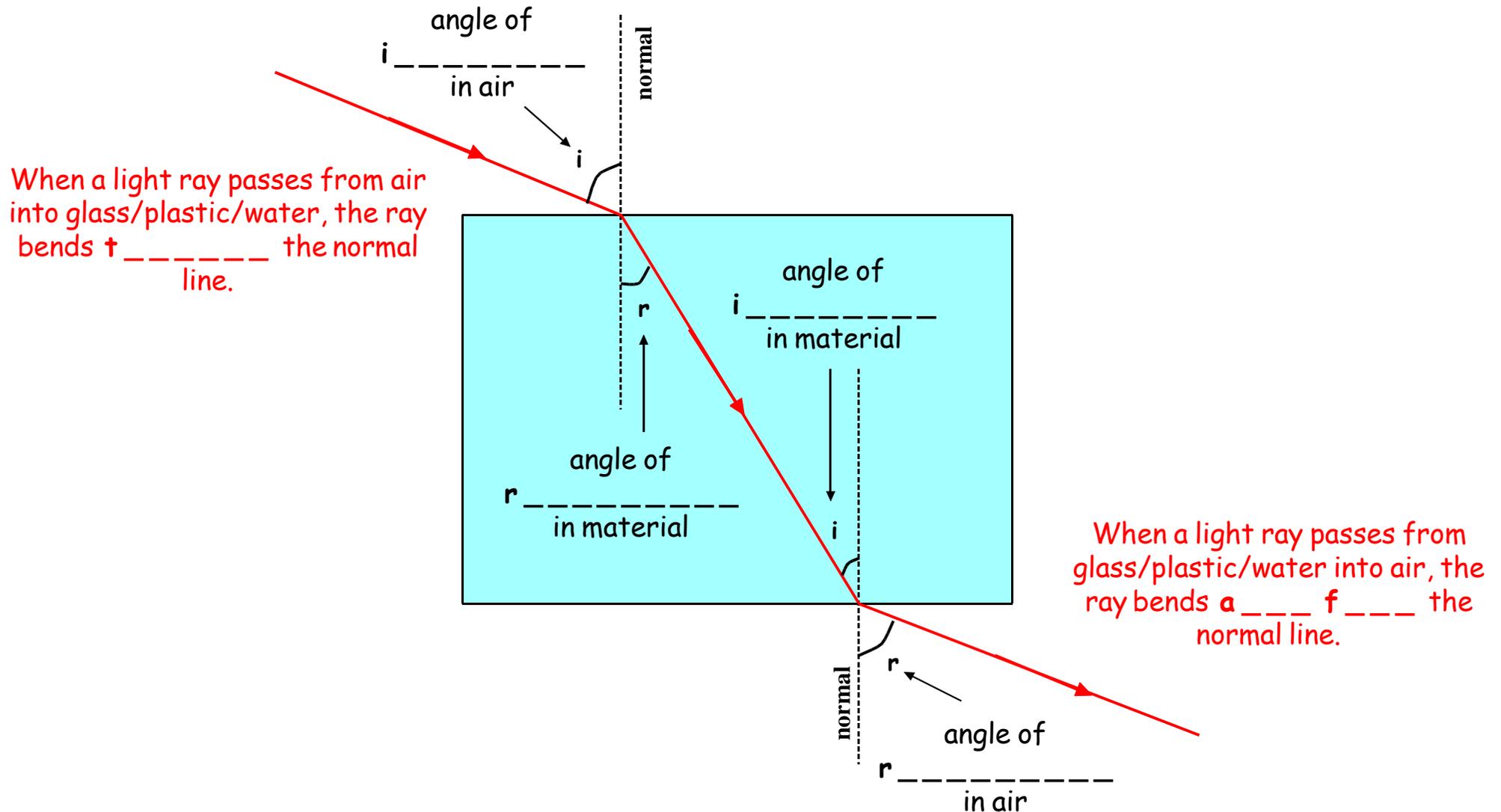
● pop group at 1 metre
= _____

Refraction of Light

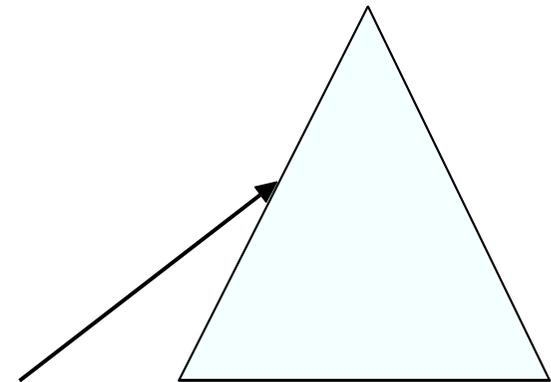
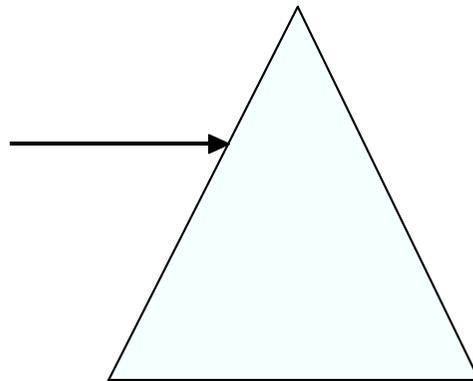
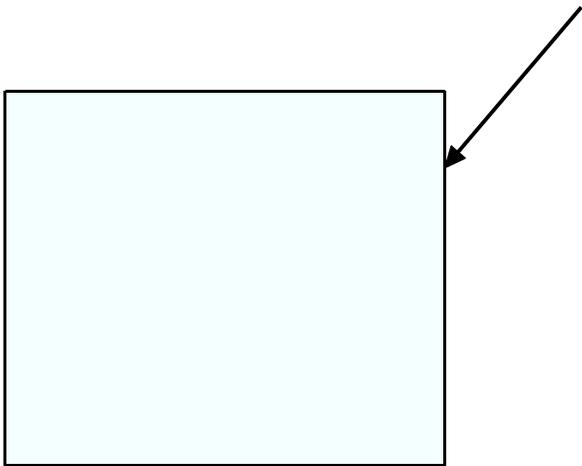
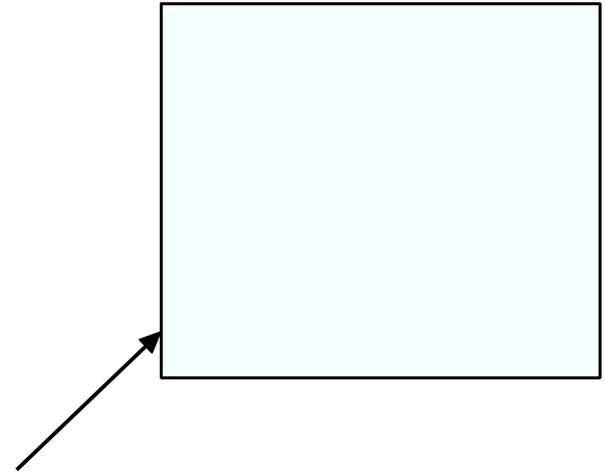
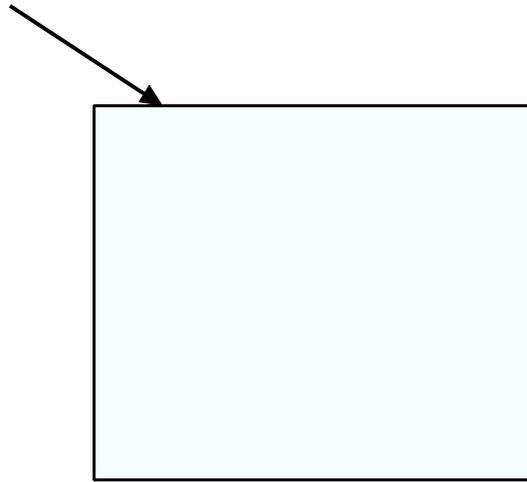
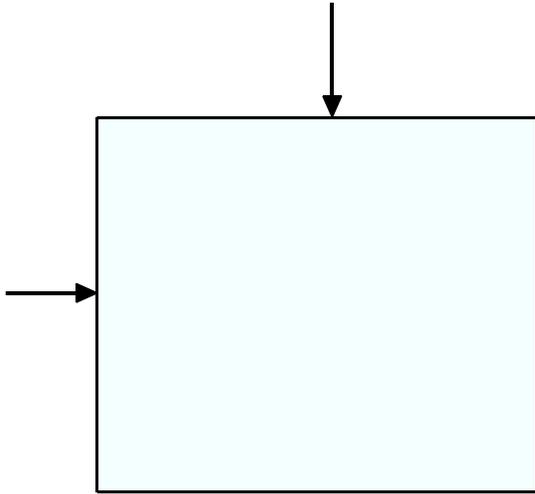
Light travels in **straight lines** called **light rays**.

When **light** passes from one material into another of different **density**, its **speed** changes and so its **direction** changes (unless the light hits the material at 90° to its surface) - This is known as **refraction**.

A normal is a dashed line drawn at 90° to the surface of a material where a light ray hits the material.



- Using a ruler and protractor, complete each diagram below to show what happens to the rays of light as they pass through the glass blocks. (Remember to draw normal lines).
TAKE YOUR TIME AND WORK VERY CAREFULLY.



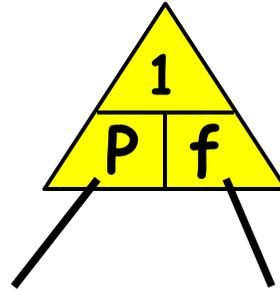
Focal Length and Power of Lenses

T_____ lenses refract (b____) light more than t_____ lenses - so t_____ lenses are more p_____.

A **powerful** lens has a **s**_____ focal length.

Convex lenses have a **p**_____ (____) power. Concave lenses have a **n**_____ (____) power.

$$\text{power (P)} = \frac{1}{\text{focal length in metres (f)}}$$



dioptries (D)

metres (m)

$$\text{focal length in metres (f)} = \frac{1}{\text{power (P)}}$$

Convex Lenses

A convex lens has a power of +5 D. Calculate its focal length in metres.

A convex lens has a focal length of 0.5 m. Calculate its power.

Calculate the focal length of a lens with power +40 D.

Calculate the power of a convex lens of focal length 0.25 m.

Concave Lenses

A concave lens has a power of -4 D. Calculate its focal length in metres.

A concave lens has a focal length of 1.25 m. Calculate its power.

Calculate the focal length of a lens with power -8 D.

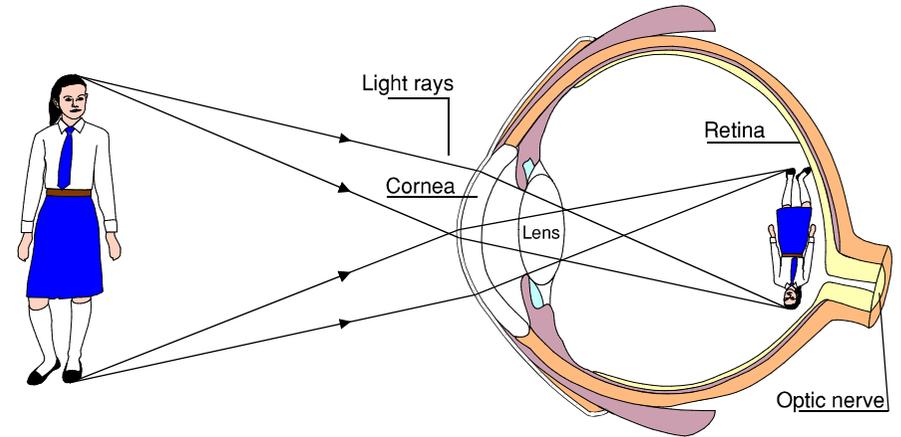
Calculate the power of a concave lens of focal length 0.6 m.

Image Formation on the Retina

At the back of an eye, there is a layer of light-sensitive cells called the **r**_____.

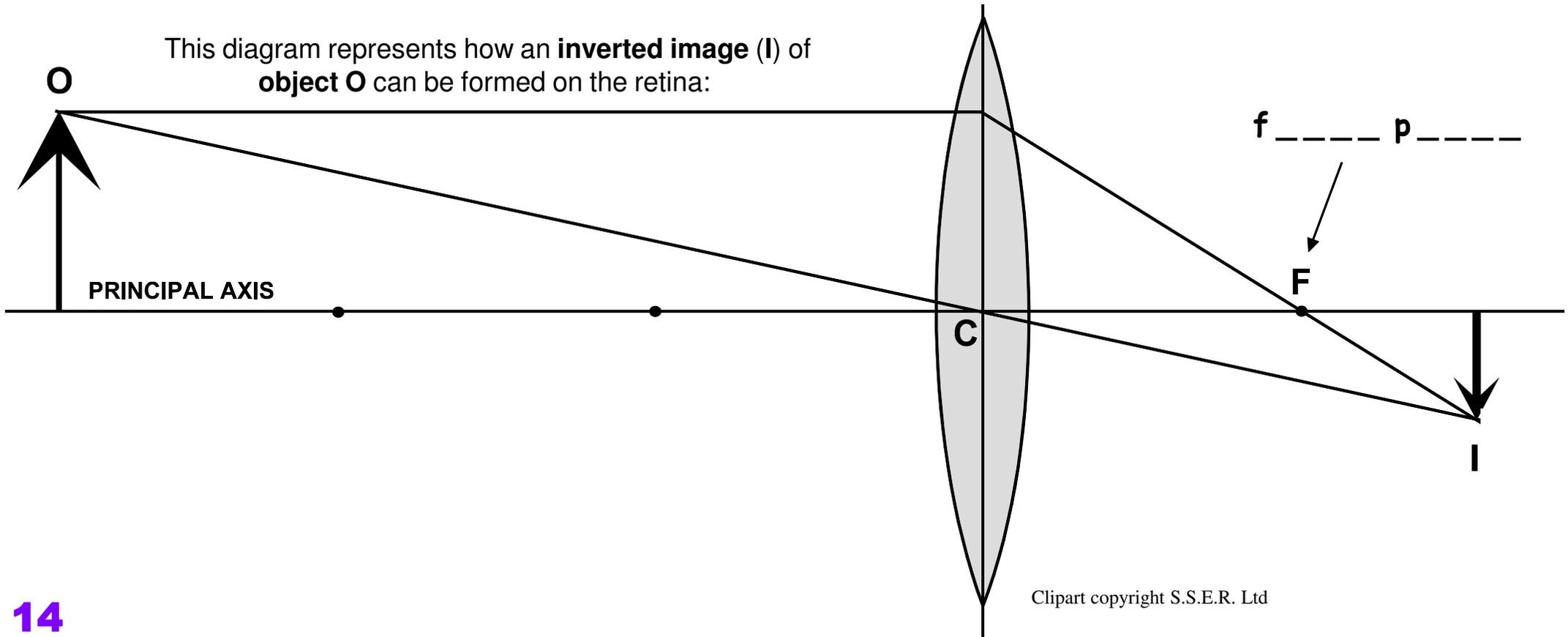
When we look at an object, an image (picture) of the object is formed on the **r**_____.

The image is **u**_____ **d**_____ and **i**_____ (**b**_____ to **f**_____).



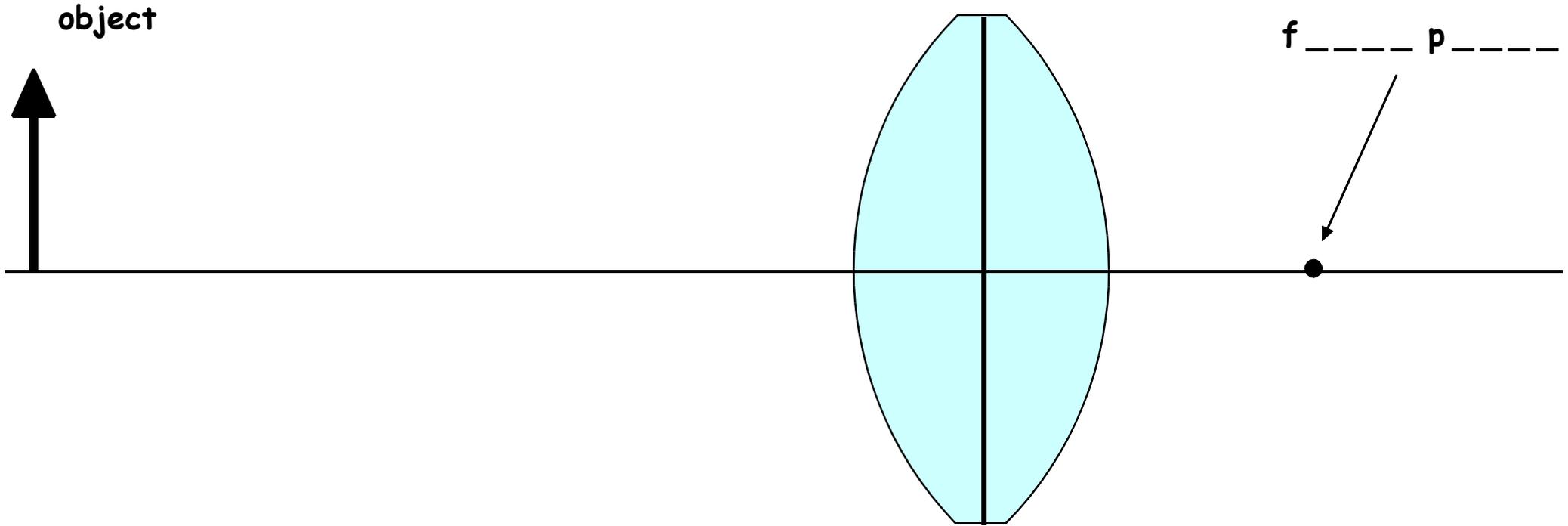
Clipart copyright S.S.E.R. Ltd

This diagram represents how an **inverted image (I)** of **object O** can be formed on the retina:



Clipart copyright S.S.E.R. Ltd

To help you understand how the **inverted image** is formed, complete the diagram below.
USE A PENCIL AND RULER !!! TAKE YOUR TIME !!! BE CAREFUL !!!



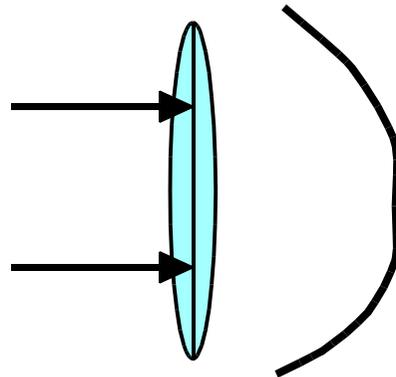
Clipart copyright S.S.E.R. Ltd

Looking at Distant Objects

When we look at an object some distance from the eye, the light rays from the object which enter our eye are **p** _____ to one another.

The muscles around our eye lens are **r** _____, so the eye lens is **t** _____.

Complete the diagram:

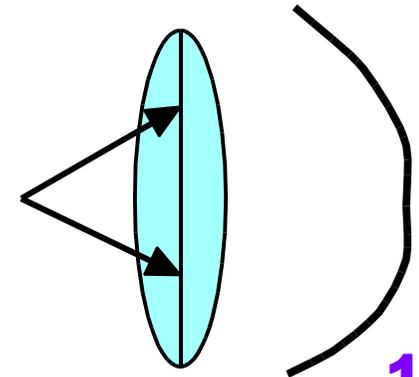


Looking at Close Objects

When we look at an object close to the eye, the light rays from the object which enter our eye are **n** ___ **p** _____ to one another.

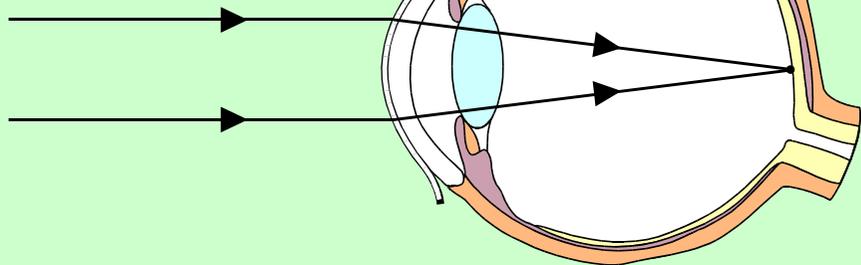
The muscles around our eye lens squash it, making the lens **t** _____ so it can focus the light rays on the retina.

Complete the diagram:

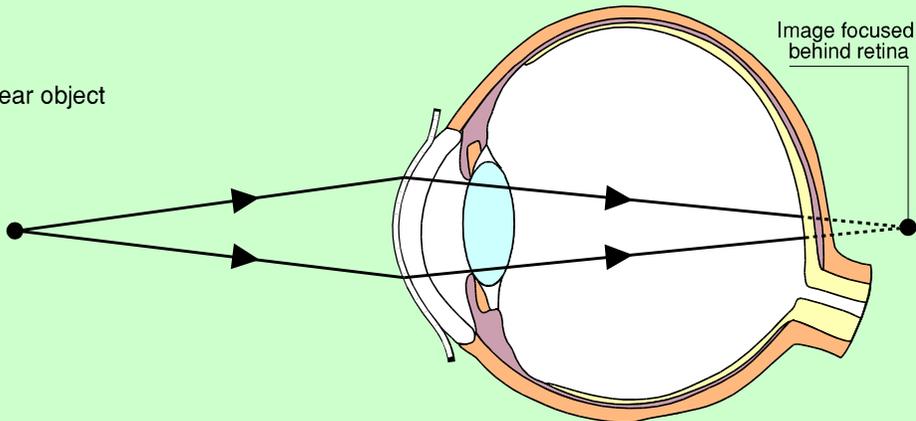


Long Sight

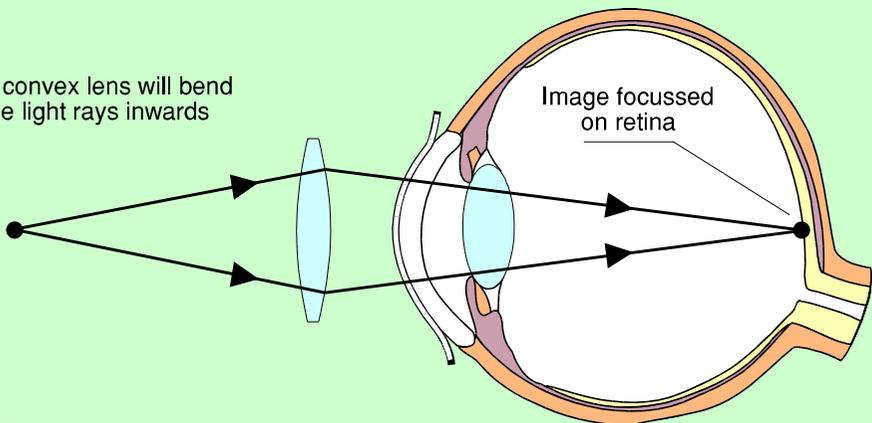
Can focus on a far object



Near object



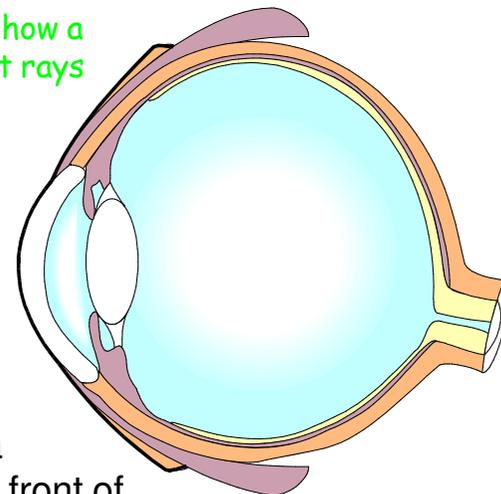
A convex lens will bend the light rays inwards



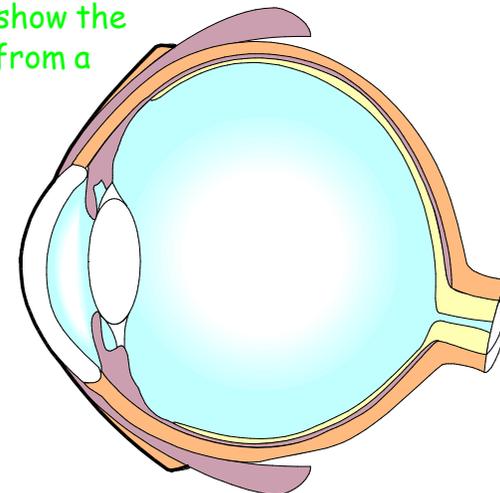
A person who is **l**____ **s**____ can see **c**____ objects which are **f**____ **a**____ - This is because the eye **c**____ focus the **p**____ light rays coming from the object on the **r**_____.

However, the person cannot see **c**____ objects which are **c**____ to them - This is because the eye **c**____ focus the **n**____ - **p**____ light rays coming from the object on the **r**_____.

Complete this diagram to show how a "long-sighted eye" focuses light rays from a **close** object.

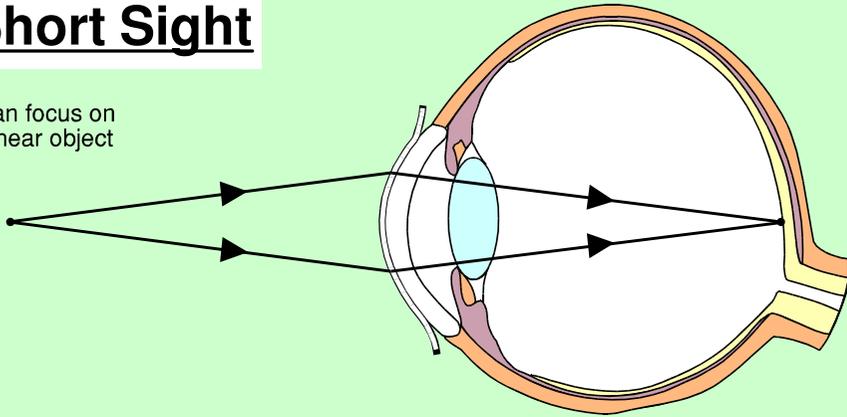


To correct long sight, a **c**____ **l**____ is placed in front of the eye. Complete this diagram to show the affect the lens has on light rays from a **close** object.

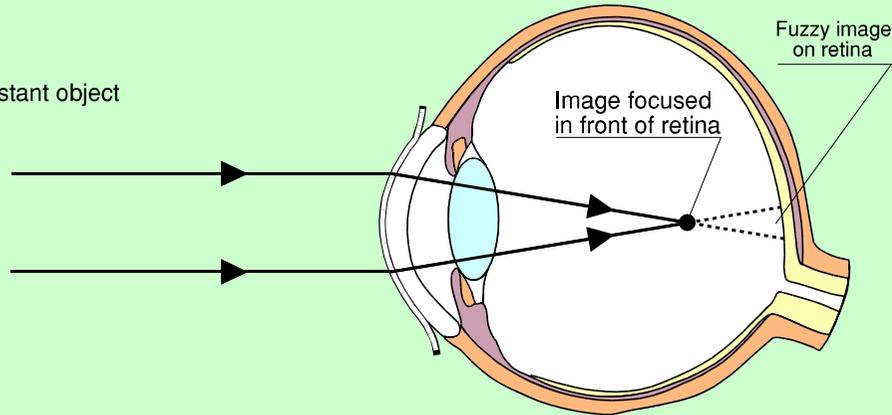


Short Sight

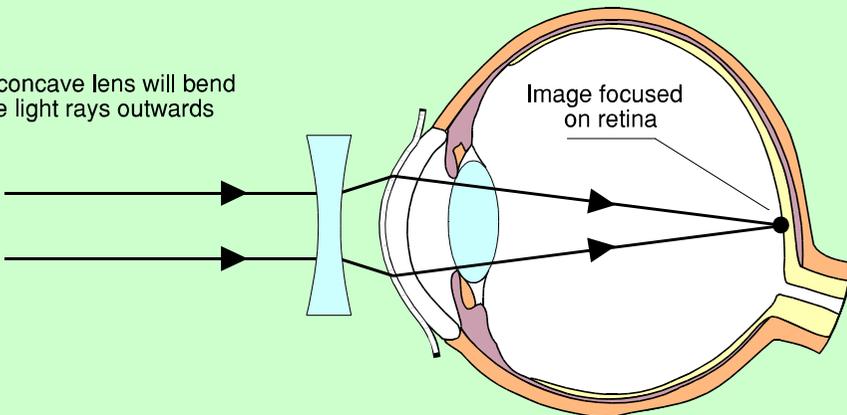
Can focus on a near object



Distant object



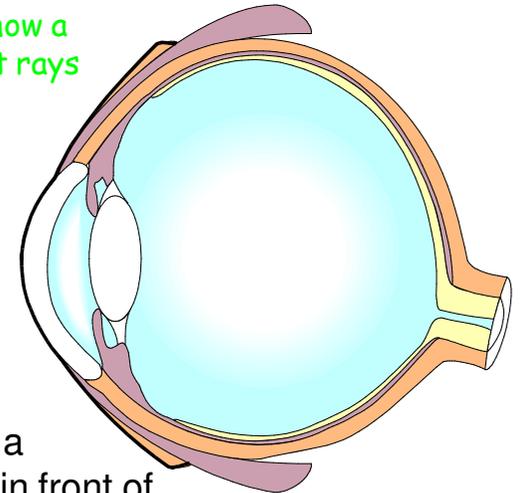
A concave lens will bend the light rays outwards



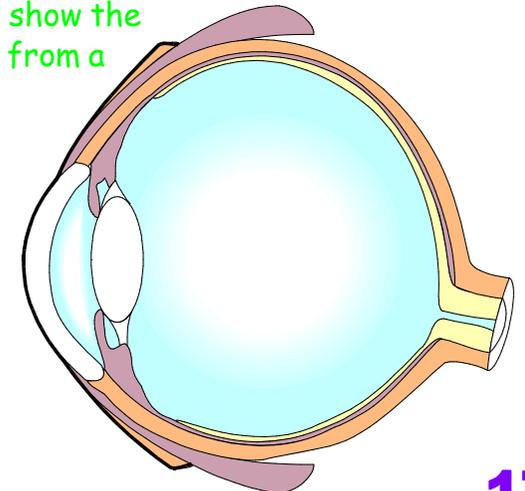
A person who is **s** _____ **s** _____ can see **c** _____ objects which are **c** _____ - This is because the eye **c** _____ focus the **n** _____ - **p** _____ light rays coming from the object on the **r** _____.

However, the person cannot see **c** _____ objects which are **d** _____ (**f** _____ **a** _____) - This is because the eye **c** _____ focus the **p** _____ light rays coming from the object on the **r** _____.

Complete this diagram to show how a "short-sighted eye" focuses light rays from a **distant** object.



To correct short sight, a **c** _____ **l** _____ is placed in front of the eye. Complete this diagram to show the affect the lens has on light rays from a **distant** object.



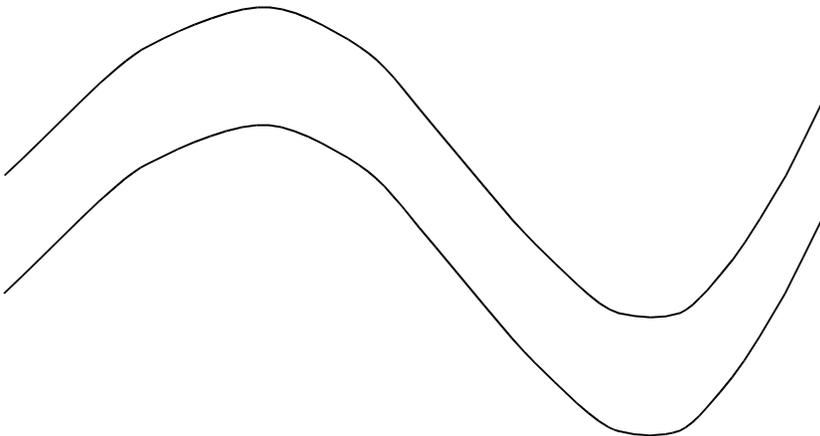
Fibre Optics and the Fibrescope (Endoscope)

Fibre optics can be used as a transmission system for **c ___ light** - No **h ___ energy** passes through the system.

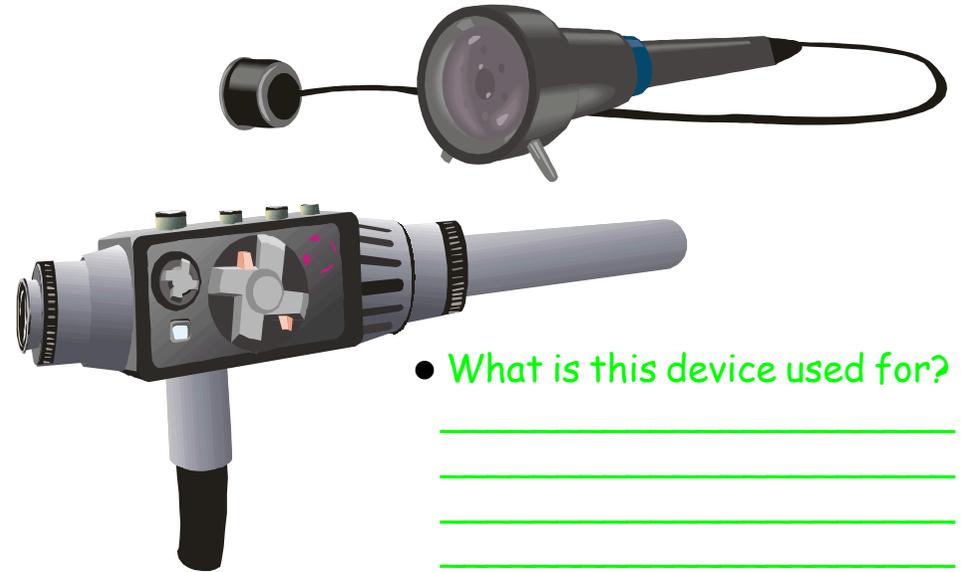
L ___ passes along an o ___ f ___ by
t ___ i ___ r ___.

• What do the words "**total**" and "**internal**" tell you about the **reflection**? _____

• Complete this diagram to show **light** passing along an **optic fibre**:



This diagram shows parts of a
f _____ (e _____)



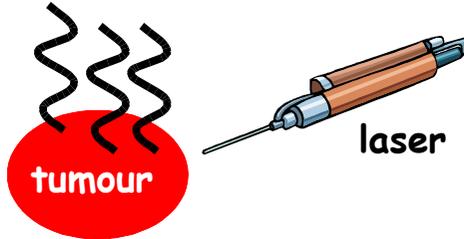
• What is this device used for?

• Describe and explain how it works: _____

Lasers

A **laser** produces an **intense** beam of light in **one direction**.
Lasers have various uses in **medicine**. For example:

Vaporising Cancer Tumours



Laser Scalpel



Eye Surgery



Removing Tattoos/Birth Marks



Infra-Red (I.R.)

Infra-red rays are **i** _____ **h** _____ rays given out by all **w** _____ **objects**.

Cancer tumours are **w** _____ than **healthy tissue**, so can be detected by the **i** _____ **rays** they give off.

Physiotherapists also use **infra-red rays** to heat up injured **m** _____ - This speeds up the healing process.



infra-red heat lamp

Ultra-Violet (U.V.)

Ultraviolet rays can be used to kill microbes. Hospitals use UV lamps to **s** _____ surgical equipment and the air in operating theatres. Food and drug companies also use UV lamps to **s** _____ their products.



Large doses of **ultraviolet** cause **s** _____ and even **s** _____ **c** _____. Fortunately, the ozone layer in the Earth's atmosphere screens us from most of the **ultraviolet** given off by the Sun. Think of a sun tan as a radiation burn!

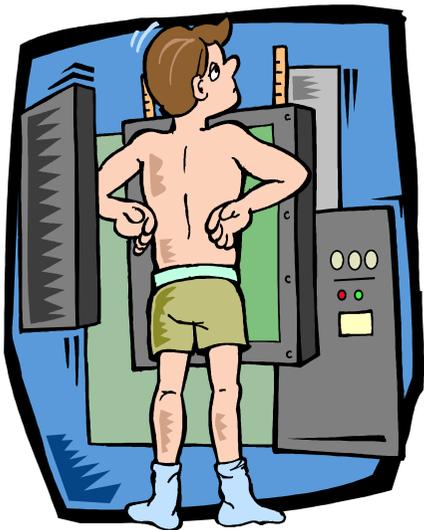
X - Rays

X-rays are very high frequency **w** _____, and carry a lot of **e** _____. They pass through most substances, and this makes them useful in medicine and industry to see inside things.

- **X-rays** are used by doctors to see inside people. They pass easily through **s** _____ **t** _____, but not so easily through **b** _____.

We use **p** _____ **f** _____ to detect **X-rays**.

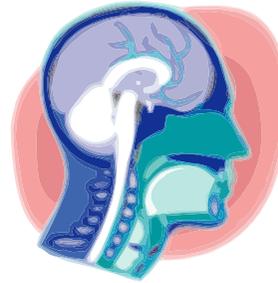
We send a beam of **X-Rays** through the patient and onto a piece of **p** _____ **f** _____, which goes **d** _____ where **X-Rays** hit it. This leaves **w** _____ patches on the film where the **b** _____ were in the way.



An X-ray machine



An X-ray photograph

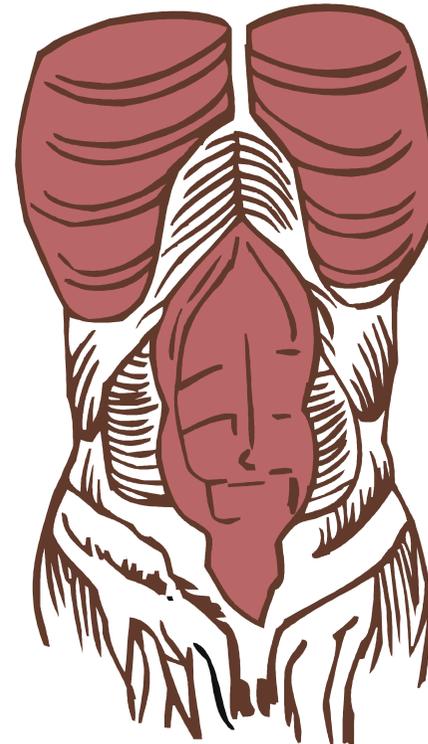


- **Low energy X-Rays** don't pass through tissues as easily as normal **X-Rays**. They can be used to scan soft areas such as the **b** _____.

X-Rays can also be used in **high doses** to kill **c** _____ **t** _____.

tumour

X-Rays and Computerised Tomography



Using a special **X-Ray** machine which **r** _____ around the body, **X-Rays images** of the body are taken in **t** _____ **s** _____.

A computer combines all these **images** to provide a **t** _____ - **d** _____ picture of the body.

A **3-D image** provides far more detail than a normal **2-D X-Ray image**.

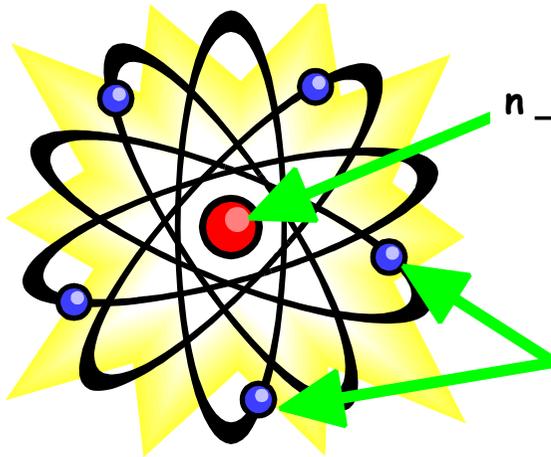
NUCLEAR RADIATION

The Atom

Everything is made up of tiny particles called **a** _____.

Each atom contains **p** _____ and **n** _____ which are tightly packed together in a tiny centre called the **n** _____.

Circling around the **n** _____ are **e** _____.



n _____ containing
p _____ and
n _____

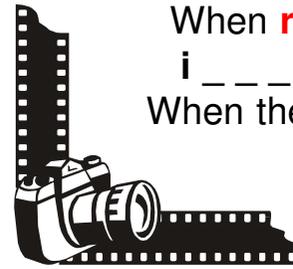
e _____

Ionisation of Atoms

Radioactivity can knock **e** _____ out of **atoms**. This is known as **i** _____.

Radioactivity can **i** _____ **atoms** in the **cells** of the **human body** - This can **k** _____ the **cells** or **change their n** _____ - The **cells** might grow in a different way to what they should or might change into **c** _____ **cells**.

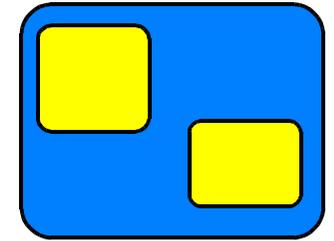
Because **radioactivity** kills living cells, it is used to **s** _____ surgical instruments - The **b** _____ **c** _____ are **k** _____.



When **radioactivity** hits **photographic film**, it **i** _____ the **atoms** on the **film** surface. When the **film** is developed, it looks **f** _____.

People who work with **radioactivity** often wear a **badge** containing **photographic film** - a **f** _____ **b** _____.

When they finish work, they hand in their **f** _____ **b** _____. The **photographic film** inside is developed.



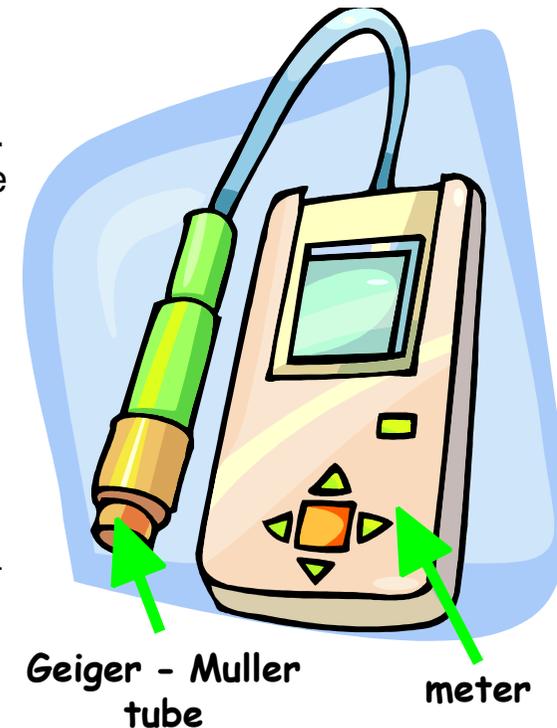
A film badge

We can tell how much **radioactivity** they have received at work by observing how **f** _____ the **film** is.

We can detect **radioactivity** with a **G** _____ - **M** _____ tube.

Inside the tube there is a **gas**. When **radioactivity** enters the tube through a thin window in the front or through its walls, **atoms** in the **gas** are **i** _____.

The **e** _____ knocked out of the **a** _____ form an **e** _____ **c** _____ - This produces a reading on a **m** _____. This shows us that **radioactivity** is present.



Geiger - Muller tube

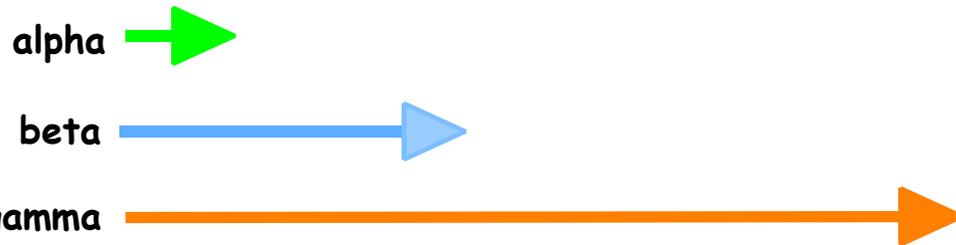
meter

Types of Radioactivity

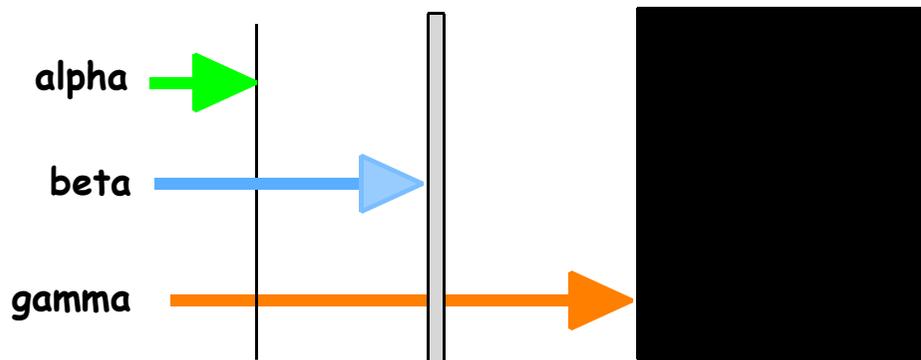
There are 3 types of **radioactivity**:

- **a** _____ **p** _____ (symbol ____)
- **b** _____ **p** _____ (symbol ____)
- **g** _____ **r** _____ (symbol ____)

These can travel different distances through the **air**:



They are **a** _____ by different **types** and **thicknesses** of material:



A _____ **p** _____ are the most dangerous type of **radioactivity** for humans because they cause the most **i** _____ and so the most **d** _____ to **body cells**.

Radioactivity Safety Precautions

When dealing with **radioactive** substances, it is necessary to adopt **safety procedures**.

For example:



radioactivity hazard symbol

Affect of Radioactivity on the Body

For **living materials**, the **biological effect** of radioactivity depends on the type of **absorbing t** _____ and the type of **r** _____.

A quantity called the **d** _____ **e** _____ takes account of the **t** _____ and **e** _____ of the **r** _____.

D _____ **e** _____ is measured in **s** _____ (_____).

Activity of a Radioactive Source

The **a** _____ of a **radioactive source** is the number of **a** _____ **p** _____, **b** _____ **p** _____ and **g** _____ **r** _____ it gives out every **s** _____.

A _____ is measured in **b** _____ (_____).

The **a** _____ of a **radioactive source** **d** _____ with **time**.

Background Radiation

The air around us is slightly **radioactive** - We are exposed to this **b** _____ **r** _____ 24 hours a day.

Sources of **b** _____ **r** _____ include:

- **C** _____ **r** _____ from outer space.
- Rocks such as **g** _____.
- Hospital waste from **c** _____ treatment.
- Nuclear **w** _____ tests and leaks from nuclear **p** _____ **s** _____.

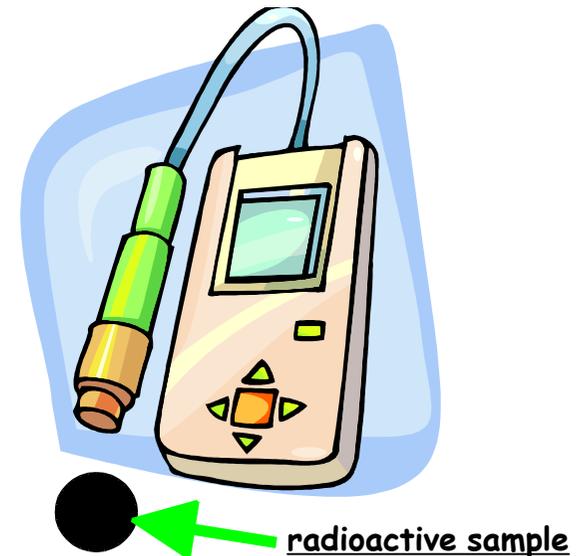
Half-Life of a Radioactive Source

The **h** _____ - **l** _____ of a **radioactive source** is the **t** _____ it takes for the **a** _____ of the **source** to **h** _____.

Different substances have **d** _____ **h** _____ - **l** _____.

For example: _____

Label this **apparatus** and describe how you would use it to measure the **half-life** of the **radioactive sample**. Include how you would allow for **background radiation**. Assume you have obtained the results provided on the next page and that you will use these results to plot a **half-life graph**:



The half-life of a radioactive substance is 15 minutes. How long will it take for the activity of the substance to fall from 160 Bq to 20 Bq?

How long will it take for the activity of a radioactive source to fall from 3 200 Bq to 100 Bq if the source has a half-life of 25 days?

Determine the half-life of a radioactive source if its activity falls from 200 Bq to 25 Bq in 120 minutes.

The activity of a radioactive sample decreases from 640 Bq to 20 Bq in 100 seconds. Calculate the half-life of the sample.