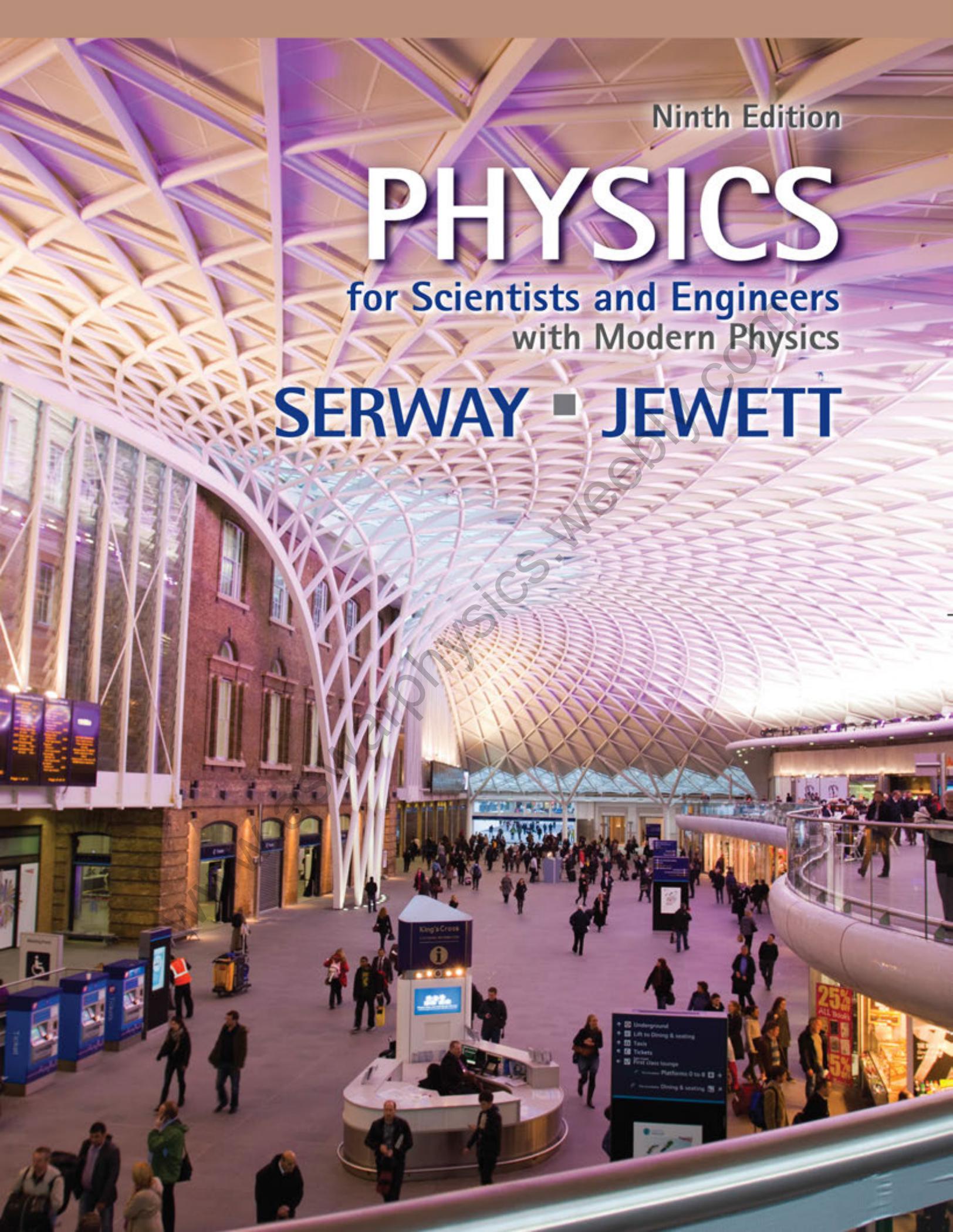


Ninth Edition

PHYSICS

for Scientists and Engineers
with Modern Physics

SERWAY ■ JEWETT



Pedagogical Color Chart

Mechanics and Thermodynamics

Displacement and position vectors 

Displacement and position component vectors 

Linear (\vec{v}) and angular ($\vec{\omega}$) velocity vectors 

Velocity component vectors 

Force vectors (\vec{F}) 

Force component vectors 

Acceleration vectors (\vec{a}) 

Acceleration component vectors 

Energy transfer arrows  W_{eng}

W_{eng}

Q_c

Q_c

Q_h

Q_h

Process arrow 

Linear (\vec{p}) and angular (\vec{L}) momentum vectors 

Momentum vectors 

Linear and angular momentum component vectors 

Torque vectors ($\vec{\tau}$) 

Torque component vectors 

Schematic linear or rotational motion directions 

Dimensional rotational arrow 

Enlargement arrow 

Springs 

Pulleys 



Electricity and Magnetism

Electric fields 

Electric field vectors 

Electric field component vectors 

Magnetic fields 

Magnetic field vectors 

Magnetic field component vectors 

Positive charges 

Negative charges 

Resistors 

Batteries and other DC power supplies 

Switches 

Capacitors 

Inductors (coils) 

Voltmeters 

Ammeters 

AC Sources 

Lightbulbs 

Ground symbol 

Current 

Light and Optics

Light ray 

Focal light ray 

Central light ray 

Converging lens 

Diverging lens 

Mirror 

Curved mirror 

Objects 

Images 

Some Physical Constants

| Quantity | Symbol | Value ^a |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|
| Atomic mass unit | u | $1.660\,538\,782\,(83) \times 10^{-27}$ kg $931.494\,028\,(23)$ MeV/ c^2 |
| Avogadro's number | N_A | $6.022\,141\,79\,(30) \times 10^{23}$ particles/mol |
| Bohr magneton | $\mu_B = \frac{e\hbar}{2m_e}$ | $9.274\,009\,15\,(23) \times 10^{-24}$ J/T |
| Bohr radius | $a_0 = \frac{\hbar^2}{m_e e^2 k_e}$ | $5.291\,772\,085\,9\,(36) \times 10^{-11}$ m |
| Boltzmann's constant | $k_B = \frac{R}{N_A}$ | $1.380\,650\,4\,(24) \times 10^{-23}$ J/K |
| Compton wavelength | $\lambda_C = \frac{h}{m_e c}$ | $2.426\,310\,217\,5\,(33) \times 10^{-12}$ m |
| Coulomb constant | $k_e = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$ | $8.987\,551\,788 \dots \times 10^9$ N·m ² /C ² (exact) |
| Deuteron mass | m_d | $3.343\,583\,20\,(17) \times 10^{-27}$ kg $2.013\,553\,212\,724\,(78)$ u |
| Electron mass | m_e | $9.109\,382\,15\,(45) \times 10^{-31}$ kg $5.485\,799\,094\,3\,(23) \times 10^{-4}$ u $0.510\,998\,910\,(13)$ MeV/ c^2 |
| Electron volt | eV | $1.602\,176\,487\,(40) \times 10^{-19}$ J |
| Elementary charge | e | $1.602\,176\,487\,(40) \times 10^{-19}$ C |
| Gas constant | R | $8.314\,472\,(15)$ J/mol·K |
| Gravitational constant | G | $6.674\,28\,(67) \times 10^{-11}$ N·m ² /kg ² |
| Neutron mass | m_n | $1.674\,927\,211\,(84) \times 10^{-27}$ kg $1.008\,664\,915\,97\,(43)$ u $939.565\,346\,(23)$ MeV/ c^2 |
| Nuclear magneton | $\mu_n = \frac{e\hbar}{2m_p}$ | $5.050\,783\,24\,(13) \times 10^{-27}$ J/T |
| Permeability of free space | μ_0 | $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ T·m/A (exact) |
| Permittivity of free space | $\epsilon_0 = \frac{1}{\mu_0 c^2}$ | $8.854\,187\,817 \dots \times 10^{-12}$ C ² /N·m ² (exact) |
| Planck's constant | h | $6.626\,068\,96\,(33) \times 10^{-34}$ J·s |
| | $\hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi}$ | $1.054\,571\,628\,(53) \times 10^{-34}$ J·s |
| Proton mass | m_p | $1.672\,621\,637\,(83) \times 10^{-27}$ kg $1.007\,276\,466\,77\,(10)$ u $938.272\,013\,(23)$ MeV/ c^2 |
| Rydberg constant | R_H | $1.097\,373\,156\,852\,7\,(73) \times 10^7$ m ⁻¹ |
| Speed of light in vacuum | c | $2.997\,924\,58 \times 10^8$ m/s (exact) |

Note: These constants are the values recommended in 2006 by CODATA, based on a least-squares adjustment of data from different measurements. For a more complete list, see P. J. Mohr, B. N. Taylor, and D. B. Newell, "CODATA Recommended Values of the Fundamental Physical Constants: 2006." *Rev. Mod. Phys.* **80**:2, 633–730, 2008.

^aThe numbers in parentheses for the values represent the uncertainties of the last two digits.

Solar System Data

| Body | Mass (kg) | Mean Radius (m) | Period (s) | Mean Distance from the Sun (m) |
|--------------------|------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------|
| Mercury | 3.30×10^{23} | 2.44×10^6 | 7.60×10^6 | 5.79×10^{10} |
| Venus | 4.87×10^{24} | 6.05×10^6 | 1.94×10^7 | 1.08×10^{11} |
| Earth | 5.97×10^{24} | 6.37×10^6 | 3.156×10^7 | 1.496×10^{11} |
| Mars | 6.42×10^{23} | 3.39×10^6 | 5.94×10^7 | 2.28×10^{11} |
| Jupiter | 1.90×10^{27} | 6.99×10^7 | 3.74×10^8 | 7.78×10^{11} |
| Saturn | 5.68×10^{26} | 5.82×10^7 | 9.29×10^8 | 1.43×10^{12} |
| Uranus | 8.68×10^{25} | 2.54×10^7 | 2.65×10^9 | 2.87×10^{12} |
| Neptune | 1.02×10^{26} | 2.46×10^7 | 5.18×10^9 | 4.50×10^{12} |
| Pluto ^a | 1.25×10^{22} | 1.20×10^6 | 7.82×10^9 | 5.91×10^{12} |
| Moon | 7.35×10^{22} | 1.74×10^6 | — | — |
| Sun | 1.989×10^{30} | 6.96×10^8 | — | — |

^aIn August 2006, the International Astronomical Union adopted a definition of a planet that separates Pluto from the other eight planets. Pluto is now defined as a “dwarf planet” (like the asteroid Ceres).

Physical Data Often Used

| | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Average Earth–Moon distance | 3.84×10^8 m |
| Average Earth–Sun distance | 1.496×10^{11} m |
| Average radius of the Earth | 6.37×10^6 m |
| Density of air (20°C and 1 atm) | 1.20 kg/m ³ |
| Density of air (0°C and 1 atm) | 1.29 kg/m ³ |
| Density of water (20°C and 1 atm) | 1.00×10^3 kg/m ³ |
| Free-fall acceleration | 9.80 m/s ² |
| Mass of the Earth | 5.97×10^{24} kg |
| Mass of the Moon | 7.35×10^{22} kg |
| Mass of the Sun | 1.99×10^{30} kg |
| Standard atmospheric pressure | 1.013×10^5 Pa |

Note: These values are the ones used in the text.

Some Prefixes for Powers of Ten

| Power | Prefix | Abbreviation | Power | Prefix | Abbreviation |
|------------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------|--------------|
| 10^{-24} | yocto | y | 10^1 | deka | da |
| 10^{-21} | zepto | z | 10^2 | hecto | h |
| 10^{-18} | atto | a | 10^3 | kilo | k |
| 10^{-15} | femto | f | 10^6 | mega | M |
| 10^{-12} | pico | p | 10^9 | giga | G |
| 10^{-9} | nano | n | 10^{12} | tera | T |
| 10^{-6} | micro | μ | 10^{15} | peta | P |
| 10^{-3} | milli | m | 10^{18} | exa | E |
| 10^{-2} | centi | c | 10^{21} | zetta | Z |
| 10^{-1} | deci | d | 10^{24} | yotta | Y |

Physics

for Scientists and Engineers
with Modern Physics

NINTH
EDITION

Raymond A. Serway

Emeritus, James Madison University

John W. Jewett, Jr.

*Emeritus, California State Polytechnic
University, Pomona*

With contributions from Vahé Perroomian,
University of California at Los Angeles

About the Cover

The cover shows a view inside the new railway departures concourse opened in March 2012 at the Kings Cross Station in London. The wall of the older structure (completed in 1852) is visible at the left. The sweeping shell-like roof is claimed by the architect to be the largest single-span station structure in Europe. Many principles of physics are required to design and construct such an open semicircular roof with a radius of 74 meters and containing over 2 000 triangular panels. Other principles of physics are necessary to develop the lighting design, optimize the acoustics, and integrate the new structure with existing infrastructure, historic buildings, and railway platforms.



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Publisher, Physics and Astronomy:
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Assistant Editor: Brandi Kirksey

Editorial Assistant: Brendan Killion

Media Editor: Rebecca Berardy Schwartz

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Senior Marketing Development Manager:
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Senior Art Director: Cate Barr

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We dedicate this book to our wives,
Elizabeth and Lisa, and all our children and
grandchildren for their loving understanding
when we spent time on writing
instead of being with them.

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About the Authors



Raymond A. Serway received his doctorate at Illinois Institute of Technology and is Professor Emeritus at James Madison University. In 2011, he was awarded with an honorary doctorate degree from his alma mater, Utica College. He received the 1990 Madison Scholar Award at James Madison University, where he taught for 17 years. Dr. Serway began his teaching career at Clarkson University, where he conducted research and taught from 1967 to 1980. He was the recipient of the Distinguished Teaching Award at Clarkson University in 1977 and the Alumni Achievement Award from Utica College in 1985. As Guest Scientist at the IBM Research Laboratory in Zurich, Switzerland, he worked with K. Alex Müller, 1987 Nobel Prize recipient. Dr. Serway also was a visiting scientist at Argonne National Laboratory, where he collaborated with his mentor and friend, the late Dr. Sam Marshall. Dr. Serway is the coauthor of *College Physics*, Ninth Edition; *Principles of Physics*, Fifth Edition; *Essentials of College Physics*; *Modern Physics*, Third Edition; and the high school textbook *Physics*,

published by Holt McDougal. In addition, Dr. Serway has published more than 40 research papers in the field of condensed matter physics and has given more than 60 presentations at professional meetings. Dr. Serway and his wife, Elizabeth, enjoy traveling, playing golf, fishing, gardening, singing in the church choir, and especially spending quality time with their four children, ten grandchildren, and a recent great grandson.



John W. Jewett, Jr. earned his undergraduate degree in physics at Drexel University and his doctorate at Ohio State University, specializing in optical and magnetic properties of condensed matter. Dr. Jewett began his academic career at Richard Stockton College of New Jersey, where he taught from 1974 to 1984. He is currently Emeritus Professor of Physics at California State Polytechnic University, Pomona. Through his teaching career, Dr. Jewett has been active in promoting effective physics education. In addition to receiving four National Science Foundation grants in physics education, he helped found and direct the Southern California Area Modern Physics Institute (SCAMPI) and Science IMPACT (Institute for Modern Pedagogy and Creative Teaching). Dr. Jewett's honors include the Stockton Merit Award at Richard Stockton College in 1980, selection as Outstanding Professor at California State Polytechnic University for 1991–1992, and the Excellence in Undergraduate Physics Teaching Award from the American Association of Physics Teachers

(AAPT) in 1998. In 2010, he received an Alumni Lifetime Achievement Award from Drexel University in recognition of his contributions in physics education. He has given more than 100 presentations both domestically and abroad, including multiple presentations at national meetings of the AAPT. He has also published 25 research papers in condensed matter physics and physics education research. Dr. Jewett is the author of *The World of Physics: Mysteries, Magic, and Myth*, which provides many connections between physics and everyday experiences. In addition to his work as the coauthor for *Physics for Scientists and Engineers*, he is also the coauthor on *Principles of Physics*, Fifth Edition, as well as *Global Issues*, a four-volume set of instruction manuals in integrated science for high school. Dr. Jewett enjoys playing keyboard with his all-physicist band, traveling, underwater photography, learning foreign languages, and collecting antique quack medical devices that can be used as demonstration apparatus in physics lectures. Most importantly, he relishes spending time with his wife, Lisa, and their children and grandchildren.

Preface

In writing this Ninth Edition of *Physics for Scientists and Engineers*, we continue our ongoing efforts to improve the clarity of presentation and include new pedagogical features that help support the learning and teaching processes. Drawing on positive feedback from users of the Eighth Edition, data gathered from both professors and students who use Enhanced WebAssign, as well as reviewers' suggestions, we have refined the text to better meet the needs of students and teachers.

This textbook is intended for a course in introductory physics for students majoring in science or engineering. The entire contents of the book in its extended version could be covered in a three-semester course, but it is possible to use the material in shorter sequences with the omission of selected chapters and sections. The mathematical background of the student taking this course should ideally include one semester of calculus. If that is not possible, the student should be enrolled in a concurrent course in introductory calculus.

Content

The material in this book covers fundamental topics in classical physics and provides an introduction to modern physics. The book is divided into six parts. Part 1 (Chapters 1 to 14) deals with the fundamentals of Newtonian mechanics and the physics of fluids; Part 2 (Chapters 15 to 18) covers oscillations, mechanical waves, and sound; Part 3 (Chapters 19 to 22) addresses heat and thermodynamics; Part 4 (Chapters 23 to 34) treats electricity and magnetism; Part 5 (Chapters 35 to 38) covers light and optics; and Part 6 (Chapters 39 to 46) deals with relativity and modern physics.

Objectives

This introductory physics textbook has three main objectives: to provide the student with a clear and logical presentation of the basic concepts and principles of physics, to strengthen an understanding of the concepts and principles through a broad range of interesting real-world applications, and to develop strong problem-solving skills through an effectively organized approach. To meet these objectives, we emphasize well-organized physical arguments and a focused problem-solving strategy. At the same time, we attempt to motivate the student through practical examples that demonstrate the role of physics in other disciplines, including engineering, chemistry, and medicine.

Changes in the Ninth Edition

A large number of changes and improvements were made for the Ninth Edition of this text. Some of the new features are based on our experiences and on current trends in science education. Other changes were incorporated in response to comments and suggestions offered by users of the Eighth Edition and by reviewers of the manuscript. The features listed here represent the major changes in the Ninth Edition.

Enhanced Integration of the Analysis Model Approach to Problem Solving. Students are faced with hundreds of problems during their physics courses. A relatively small number of fundamental principles form the basis of these problems. When faced with a new problem, a physicist forms a *model* of the problem that can be solved in a simple way by identifying the fundamental principle that is applicable in the problem. For example, many problems involve conservation of energy, Newton's second law, or kinematic equations. Because the physicist has studied these principles and their applications extensively, he or she can apply this knowledge as a model for solving a new problem. Although it would be ideal for students to follow this same process, most students have difficulty becoming familiar with the entire palette of fundamental principles that are available. It is easier for students to identify a *situation* rather than a fundamental principle.

The *Analysis Model approach* we focus on in this revision lays out a standard set of situations that appear in most physics problems. These situations are based on an entity in one of four simplification models: particle, system, rigid object, and wave. Once the simplification model is identified, the student thinks about what the entity is doing or how it interacts with its environment. This leads the student to identify a particular Analysis Model for the problem. For example, if an object is falling, the object is recognized as a particle experiencing an acceleration due to gravity that is constant. The student has learned that the Analysis Model of a *particle under constant acceleration* describes this situation. Furthermore, this model has a small number of equations associated with it for use in starting problems, the kinematic equations presented in Chapter 2. Therefore, an understanding of the situation has led to an Analysis Model, which then identifies a very small number of equations to start the problem, rather than the myriad equations that students see in the text. In this way, the use of Analysis Models leads the student to identify the fundamental principle. As the student gains more experience, he or she will lean less on the Analysis Model approach and begin to identify fundamental principles directly.

To better integrate the Analysis Model approach for this edition, **Analysis Model descriptive boxes** have been added at the end of any section that introduces a new Analysis Model. This feature recaps the Analysis Model introduced in the section and provides examples of the types of problems that a student could solve using the Analysis Model. These boxes function as a “refresher” before students see the Analysis Models in use in the worked examples for a given section.

Worked examples in the text that utilize Analysis Models are now designated with an **AM** icon for ease of reference. The solutions of these examples integrate the Analysis Model approach to problem solving. The approach is further reinforced in the end-of-chapter summary under the heading *Analysis Models for Problem Solving*, and through the new **Analysis Model Tutorials** that are based on selected end-of-chapter problems and appear in Enhanced WebAssign.

Analysis Model Tutorials. John Jewett developed 165 tutorials (indicated in each chapter’s problem set with an **AMT** icon) that strengthen students’ problem-solving skills by guiding them through the steps in the problem-solving process. Important first steps include making predictions and focusing on physics concepts before solving the problem quantitatively. A critical component of these tutorials is the selection of an appropriate Analysis Model to describe what is going on in the problem. This step allows students to make the important link between the situation in the problem and the mathematical representation of the situation. Analysis Model tutorials include meaningful feedback at each step to help students practice the problem-solving process and improve their skills. In addition, the feedback addresses student misconceptions and helps them to catch algebraic and other mathematical errors. Solutions are carried out symbolically as long as possible, with numerical values substituted at the end. This feature helps students understand the effects of changing the values of each variable in the problem, avoids unnecessary repetitive substitution of the same numbers, and eliminates round-off errors. Feedback at the end of the tutorial encourages students to compare the final answer with their original predictions.

Annotated Instructor’s Edition. New for this edition, the Annotated Instructor’s Edition provides instructors with teaching tips and other notes on how to utilize the textbook in the classroom, via cyan annotations. Additionally, the full complement of icons describing the various types of problems will be included in the questions/problems sets (the Student Edition contains only those icons needed by students).

PreLecture Explorations. The Active Figure questions in WebAssign from the Eighth Edition have been completely revised. The simulations have been updated, with additional parameters to enhance investigation of a physical phenomenon. Students can make predictions, change the parameters, and then observe the results. Each new PreLecture Exploration comes with conceptual and analytical questions that guide students to a deeper understanding and help promote a robust physical intuition.

New Master Its Added in Enhanced WebAssign. Approximately 50 new Master Its in Enhanced WebAssign have been added for this edition to the end-of-chapter problem sets.

Chapter-by-Chapter Changes

The list below highlights some of the major changes for the Ninth Edition.

Chapter 1

- Two new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Three new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 2

- A new introduction to the concept of Analysis Models has been included in Section 2.3.
- Three Analysis Model descriptive boxes have been added, in Sections 2.3 and 2.6.
- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- Three new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Five new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 3

- Three new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 4

- An Analysis Model descriptive box has been added, in Section 4.6.
- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- Three new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Five new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 5

- Two Analysis Model descriptive boxes have been added, in Section 5.7.
- Several examples have been modified so that numerical values are put in only at the end of the solution.
- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- Four new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 6

- An Analysis Model descriptive box has been added, in Section 6.1.
- Several examples have been modified so that numerical values are put in only at the end of the solution.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 7

- The notation for work done on a system externally and internally within a system has been clarified.
- The equations and discussions in several sections have been modified to more clearly show the comparisons of similar potential energy equations among different situations.

- One new Master It was added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 8

- Two Analysis Model descriptive boxes have been added, in Sections 8.1 and 8.2.
- The problem-solving strategy in Section 8.2 has been reworded to account for a more general application to both isolated and nonisolated systems.
- As a result of a suggestion from a PER team at University of Washington and Pennsylvania State University, Example 8.1 has been rewritten to demonstrate to students the effect of choosing different systems on the development of the solution.
- All examples in the chapter have been rewritten to begin with Equation 8.2 directly rather than beginning with the format $E_i = E_f$.
- Several examples have been modified so that numerical values are put in only at the end of the solution.
- The problem-solving strategy in Section 8.4 has been deleted and the text material revised to incorporate these ideas on handling energy changes when nonconservative forces act.
- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- One new Master It was added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 9

- Two Analysis Model descriptive boxes have been added, in Section 9.3.
- Several examples have been modified so that numerical values are put in only at the end of the solution.
- Five new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 10

- The order of four sections (10.4–10.7) has been modified so as to introduce moment of inertia through torque (rather than energy) and to place the two sections on energy together. The sections have been revised accordingly to account for the revised development of concepts. This revision makes the order of approach similar to the order of approach students have already seen in translational motion.
- New introductory paragraphs have been added to several sections to show how the development of our analysis of rotational motion parallels that followed earlier for translational motion.
- Two Analysis Model descriptive boxes have been added, in Sections 10.2 and 10.5.
- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.

- Two new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 11

- Two Analysis Model descriptive boxes have been added, in Sections 11.2 and 11.4.
- Angular momentum conservation equations have been revised so as to be presented as $\Delta L = (0 \text{ or } \tau dt)$ in order to be consistent with the approach in Chapter 8 for energy conservation and Chapter 9 for linear momentum conservation.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 12

- One Analysis Model descriptive box has been added, in Section 12.1.
- Several examples have been modified so that numerical values are put in only at the end of the solution.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 13

- Sections 13.3 and 13.4 have been interchanged to provide a better flow of concepts.
- A new analysis model has been introduced: *Particle in a Field (Gravitational)*. This model is introduced because it represents a physical situation that occurs often. In addition, the model is introduced to anticipate the importance of versions of this model later in electricity and magnetism, where it is even more critical. An Analysis Model descriptive box has been added in Section 13.3. In addition, a new summary flash card has been added at the end of the chapter, and textual material has been revised to make reference to the new model.
- The description of the historical goals of the Cavendish experiment in 1798 has been revised to be more consistent with Cavendish's original intent and the knowledge available at the time of the experiment.
- Newly discovered Kuiper belt objects have been added, in Section 13.4.
- Textual material has been modified to make a stronger tie-in to Analysis Models, especially in the energy sections 13.5 and 13.6.
- All conservation equations have been revised so as to be presented with the change in the system on the left and the transfer across the boundary of the system on the right, in order to be consistent with the approach in earlier chapters for energy conservation, linear momentum conservation, and angular momentum conservation.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 14

- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to Analysis Models.
- Several examples have been modified so that numerical values are put in only at the end of the solution.

- One new Master It was added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 15

- An Analysis Model descriptive box has been added, in Section 15.2.
- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to Analysis Models.
- Four new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 16

- A new Analysis Model descriptive box has been added, in Section 16.2.
- Section 16.3, on the derivation of the speed of a wave on a string, has been completely rewritten to improve the logical development.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 17

- One new Master It was added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 18

- Two Analysis Model descriptive boxes have been added, in Sections 18.1 and 18.3.
- Two new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 19

- Several examples have been modified so that numerical values are put in only at the end of the solution.
- One new Master It was added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 20

- Section 20.3 was revised to emphasize the focus on *systems*.
- Five new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 21

- A new introduction to Section 21.1 sets up the notion of *structural models* to be used in this chapter and future chapters for describing systems that are too large or too small to observe directly.
- Fifteen new equations have been numbered, and all equations in the chapter have been renumbered. This

new program of equation numbers allows easier and more efficient referencing to equations in the development of kinetic theory.

- The order of Sections 21.3 and 21.4 has been reversed to provide a more continuous discussion of specific heats of gases.
- One new Master It was added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 22

- In Section 22.4, the discussion of Carnot's theorem has been rewritten and expanded, with a new figure added that is connected to the proof of the theorem.
- The material in Sections 22.6, 22.7, and 22.8 has been completely reorganized, reordered, and rewritten. The notion of entropy as a measure of disorder has been removed in favor of more contemporary ideas from the physics education literature on entropy and its relationship to notions such as uncertainty, missing information, and energy spreading.
- Two new Pitfall Preventions have been added in Section 22.6 to help students with their understanding of entropy.
- There is a newly added argument for the equivalence of the entropy statement of the second law and the Clausius and Kelvin–Planck statements in Section 22.8.
- Two new summary flashcards have been added relating to the revised entropy discussion.
- Three new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 23

- A new analysis model has been introduced: *Particle in a Field (Electrical)*. This model follows on the introduction of the Particle in a Field (Gravitational) model introduced in Chapter 13. An Analysis Model descriptive box has been added, in Section 23.4. In addition, a new summary flash card has been added at the end of the chapter, and textual material has been revised to make reference to the new model.
- A new What If? has been added to Example 23.9 in order to make a connection to infinite planes of charge, to be further studied in later chapters.
- Several textual sections and worked examples have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- One new Master It was added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 24

- Section 24.1 has been significantly revised to clarify the geometry of area elements through which electric field lines pass to generate an electric flux.
- Two new figures have been added to Example 24.5 to further explore the electric fields due to single and paired infinite planes of charge.

- Two new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 25

- Sections 25.1 and 25.2 have been significantly revised to make connections to the new particle in a field analysis models introduced in Chapters 13 and 23.
- Example 25.4 has been moved so as to appear after the Problem-Solving Strategy in Section 25.5, allowing students to compare electric fields due to a small number of charges and a continuous charge distribution.
- Two new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 26

- The discussion of series and parallel capacitors in Section 26.3 has been revised for clarity.
- The discussion of potential energy associated with an electric dipole in an electric field in Section 26.6 has been revised for clarity.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 27

- The discussion of the Drude model for electrical conduction in Section 27.3 has been revised to follow the outline of structural models introduced in Chapter 21.
- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- Five new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 28

- The discussion of series and parallel resistors in Section 28.2 has been revised for clarity.
- Time-varying charge, current, and voltage have been represented with lowercase letters for clarity in distinguishing them from constant values.
- Five new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Two new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 29

- A new analysis model has been introduced: *Particle in a Field (Magnetic)*. This model follows on the introduction of the Particle in a Field (Gravitational) model introduced in Chapter 13 and the Particle in a Field (Electrical) model in Chapter 23. An Analysis Model descriptive box has been added, in Section 29.1. In addition, a new summary flash card has been added at the end of the chapter, and textual material has been revised to make reference to the new model.

- One new Master It was added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Six new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 30

- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- One new Master It was added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 31

- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- One new Master It was added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 32

- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- Time-varying charge, current, and voltage have been represented with lowercase letters for clarity in distinguishing them from constant values.
- Two new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Three new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 33

- Phasor colors have been revised in many figures to improve clarity of presentation.
- Three new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 34

- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- The status of spacecraft related to solar sailing has been updated in Section 34.5.
- Six new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 35

- Two new Analysis Model descriptive boxes have been added, in Sections 35.4 and 35.5.
- Several textual sections and worked examples have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- Five new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 36

- The discussion of the Keck Telescope in Section 36.10 has been updated, and a new figure from the Keck has

been included, representing the first-ever direct optical image of a solar system beyond ours.

- Five new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Three new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 37

- An Analysis Model descriptive box has been added, in Section 37.2.
- The discussion of the Laser Interferometer Gravitational-Wave Observatory (LIGO) in Section 37.6 has been updated.
- Three new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 38

- Four new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Three new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 39

- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- Sections 39.8 and 39.9 from the Eighth Edition have been combined into one section.
- Five new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Four new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 40

- The discussion of the Planck model for blackbody radiation in Section 40.1 has been revised to follow the outline of structural models introduced in Chapter 21.
- The discussion of the Einstein model for the photoelectric effect in Section 40.2 has been revised to follow the outline of structural models introduced in Chapter 21.
- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- Two new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Two new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 41

- An Analysis Model descriptive box has been added, in Section 41.2.
- One new Analysis Model Tutorial was added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 42

- The discussion of the Bohr model for the hydrogen atom in Section 42.3 has been revised to follow the outline of structural models introduced in Chapter 21.
- In Section 42.7, the tendency for atomic systems to drop to their lowest energy levels is related to the new discus-

sion of the second law of thermodynamics appearing in Chapter 22.

- The discussion of the applications of lasers in Section 42.10 has been updated to include laser diodes, carbon dioxide lasers, and excimer lasers.
- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- Five new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Three new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 43

- A new discussion of the contribution of carbon dioxide molecules in the atmosphere to global warming has been added to Section 43.2. A new figure has been added, showing the increasing concentration of carbon dioxide in the past decades.
- A new discussion of graphene (Nobel Prize in Physics, 2010) and its properties has been added to Section 43.4.
- The discussion of worldwide photovoltaic power plants in Section 43.7 has been updated.
- The discussion of transistor density on microchips in Section 43.7 has been updated.
- Several textual sections and worked examples have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- One new Analysis Model Tutorial was added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 44

- Data for the helium-4 atom were added to Table 44.1.
- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- Three new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- Two new Analysis Model Tutorials were added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 45

- Discussion of the March 2011 nuclear disaster after the earthquake and tsunami in Japan was added to Section 45.3.
- The discussion of the International Thermonuclear Experimental Reactor (ITER) in Section 45.4 has been updated.
- The discussion of the National Ignition Facility (NIF) in Section 45.4 has been updated.
- The discussion of radiation dosage in Section 45.5 has been cast in terms of SI units grays and sieverts.
- Section 45.6 from the Eighth Edition has been deleted.
- Four new Master Its were added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- One new Analysis Model Tutorial was added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Chapter 46

- A discussion of the ALICE (A Large Ion Collider Experiment) project searching for a quark–gluon plasma at the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) has been added to Section 46.9.
- A discussion of the July 2012 announcement of the discovery of a Higgs-like particle from the ATLAS (A Toroidal LHC Apparatus) and CMS (Compact Muon Solenoid) projects at the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) has been added to Section 46.10.
- A discussion of closures of colliders due to the beginning of operations at the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) has been added to Section 46.10.
- A discussion of recent missions and the new Planck mission to study the cosmic background radiation has been added to Section 46.11.
- Several textual sections have been revised to make more explicit references to analysis models.
- One new Master It was added to the end-of-chapter problems set.
- One new Analysis Model Tutorial was added for this chapter in Enhanced WebAssign.

Text Features

Most instructors believe that the textbook selected for a course should be the student's primary guide for understanding and learning the subject matter. Furthermore, the textbook should be easily accessible and should be styled and written to facilitate instruction and learning. With these points in mind, we have included many pedagogical features, listed below, that are intended to enhance its usefulness to both students and instructors.

Problem Solving and Conceptual Understanding

General Problem-Solving Strategy. A general strategy outlined at the end of Chapter 2 (pages 45–47) provides students with a structured process for solving problems. In all remaining chapters, the strategy is employed explicitly in every example so that students learn how it is applied. Students are encouraged to follow this strategy when working end-of-chapter problems.

Worked Examples. All in-text worked examples are presented in a two-column format to better reinforce physical concepts. The left column shows textual information

that describes the steps for solving the problem. The right column shows the mathematical manipulations and results of taking these steps. This layout facilitates matching the concept with its mathematical execution and helps students organize their work. The examples closely follow the General Problem-Solving Strategy introduced in Chapter 2 to reinforce effective problem-solving habits. All worked examples in the text may be assigned for homework in Enhanced WebAssign. A sample of a worked example can be found on the next page.

Examples consist of two types. The first (and most common) example type presents a problem and numerical answer. The second type of example is conceptual in nature. To accommodate increased emphasis on understanding physical concepts, the many conceptual examples are labeled as such and are designed to help students focus on the physical situation in the problem. Worked examples in the text that utilize Analysis Models are now designated with an **AM** icon for ease of reference, and the solutions of these examples now more thoroughly integrate the Analysis Model approach to problem solving.

Based on reviewer feedback from the Eighth Edition, we have made careful revisions to the worked examples so that the solutions are presented symbolically as far as possible, with numerical values substituted at the end. This approach will help students think symbolically when they solve problems instead of unnecessarily inserting numbers into intermediate equations.

What If? Approximately one-third of the worked examples in the text contain a What If? feature. At the completion of the example solution, a What If? question offers a variation on the situation posed in the text of the example. This feature encourages students to think about the results of the example, and it also assists in conceptual understanding of the principles. What If? questions also prepare students to encounter novel problems that may be included on exams. Some of the end-of-chapter problems also include this feature.

Quick Quizzes. Students are provided an opportunity to test their understanding of the physical concepts presented through Quick Quizzes. The questions require students to make decisions on the basis of sound reasoning, and some of the questions have been written to help students overcome common misconceptions. Quick Quizzes have been cast in an objective format, including multiple-choice, true–false, and ranking. Answers to all Quick Quiz questions are found at the end of the text. Many instructors choose to use such questions in a “peer instruction” teaching style or with the use of personal response system “clickers,” but they can be used in standard quiz format as well. An example of a Quick Quiz follows below.

- Quick Quiz 7.5** A dart is inserted into a spring-loaded dart gun by pushing the spring in by a distance x . For the next loading, the spring is compressed a distance $2x$. How much faster does the second dart leave the gun compared with the first? (a) four times as fast (b) two times as fast (c) the same (d) half as fast (e) one-fourth as fast

Pitfall Preventions. More than two hundred Pitfall Preventions (such as the one to the left) are provided to help students avoid common mistakes and misunderstandings. These features, which are placed in the margins of the text, address both common student misconceptions and situations in which students often follow unproductive paths.

Summaries. Each chapter contains a summary that reviews the important concepts and equations discussed in that chapter. The summary is divided into three sections: Definitions, Concepts and Principles, and Analysis Models for Problem Solving. In each section, flash card–type boxes focus on each separate definition, concept, principle, or analysis model.

Pitfall Prevention 16.2

Two Kinds of Speed/Velocity

Do not confuse v , the speed of the wave as it propagates along the string, with v_y , the transverse velocity of a point on the string. The speed v is constant for a uniform medium, whereas v_y varies sinusoidally.

ENHANCED WebAssign All worked examples are also available to be assigned as interactive examples in the Enhanced WebAssign homework management system.

Example 3.2 A Vacation Trip

A car travels 20.0 km due north and then 35.0 km in a direction 60.0° west of north as shown in Figure 3.11a. Find the magnitude and direction of the car's resultant displacement.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize The vectors and drawn in Figure 3.11a help us conceptualize the problem. The resultant vector has also been drawn. We expect its magnitude to be a few tens of kilometers. The angle that the resultant vector makes with the axis is expected to be less than 60°, the angle that vector makes with the axis.

Categorize We can categorize this example as a simple analysis problem in vector addition. The displacement is the resultant when the two individual displacements and are added. We can further categorize it as a problem about the analysis of triangles, so we appeal to our expertise in geometry and trigonometry.

Analyze In this example, we show two ways to analyze the problem of finding the resultant of two vectors. The first way is to solve the problem geometrically, using graph paper and a protractor to measure the magnitude of and its direction in Figure 3.11a. (In fact, even when you know you are going to be carrying out a calculation, you should sketch the vectors to check your results.) With an ordinary ruler and protractor, a large diagram typically gives answers to two-digit but not to three-digit precision. Try using these tools on in Figure 3.11a and compare to the trigonometric analysis below!

The second way to solve the problem is to analyze it using algebra and trigonometry. The magnitude of can be obtained from the law of cosines as applied to the triangle in Figure 3.11a (see Appendix B.4).

Use \cos from the law of cosines to find

Substitute numerical values, noting that $180^\circ - 60^\circ = 120^\circ$:

$$R = \sqrt{(20.0 \text{ km})^2 + (35.0 \text{ km})^2 - 2(20.0 \text{ km})(35.0 \text{ km}) \cos 120^\circ}$$

$$= 48.2 \text{ km}$$

Use the law of sines (Appendix B.4) to find the direction measured from the northerly direction:

$$\frac{\sin \beta}{\sin 120^\circ} = \frac{35.0 \text{ km}}{48.2 \text{ km}}$$

$$\sin \beta = \frac{35.0 \text{ km}}{48.2 \text{ km}} \sin 120^\circ = 0.629$$

$$\beta = 38.9^\circ$$

The resultant displacement of the car is 48.2 km in a direction 38.9° west of north.

Finalize Does the angle that we calculated agree with an estimate made by looking at Figure 3.11a or with an actual angle measured from the diagram using the graphical method? Is it reasonable that the magnitude of is larger than that of both and ? Are the units of correct?

Although the head to tail method of adding vectors works well, it suffers from two disadvantages. First, some

people find using the laws of cosines and sines to be awkward. Second, a triangle only results if you are adding two vectors. If you are adding three or more vectors, the resulting geometric shape is usually not a triangle. In Section 3.4, we explore a new method of adding vectors that will address both of these disadvantages.

WHAT Suppose the trip were taken with the two vectors in reverse order: 35.0 km at 60.0° west of north first and then 20.0 km due north. How would the magnitude and the direction of the resultant vector change?

Answer They would not change. The commutative law for vector addition tells us that the order of vectors in an addition is irrelevant. Graphically, Figure 3.11b shows that the vectors added in the reverse order give us the same resultant vector.

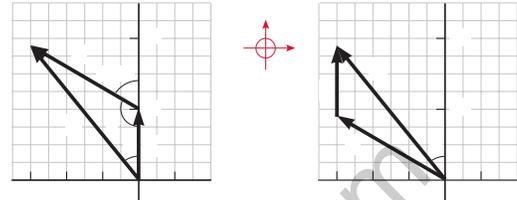


Figure 3.11 (Example 3.2) (a) Graphical method for finding the resultant displacement vector (b) Adding the vectors in reverse order gives the same result for

Each solution has been written to closely follow the General Problem-Solving Strategy as outlined on pages 45–47 in Chapter 2, so as to reinforce good problem-solving habits.

Each step of the solution is detailed in a two-column format. The left column provides an explanation for each mathematical step in the right column, to better reinforce the physical concepts.

What If? statements appear in about one-third of the worked examples and offer a variation on the situation posed in the text of the example. For instance, this feature might explore the effects of changing the conditions of the situation, determine what happens when a quantity is taken to a particular limiting value, or question whether additional information can be determined about the problem situation. This feature encourages students to think about the results of the example and assists in conceptual understanding of the principles.

Questions and Problems Sets. For the Ninth Edition, the authors reviewed each question and problem and incorporated revisions designed to improve both readability and assignability. More than 10% of the problems are new to this edition.

Questions. The Questions section is divided into two sections: *Objective Questions* and *Conceptual Questions*. The instructor may select items to assign as homework or use in the classroom, possibly with “peer instruction” methods and possibly with personal response systems. More than 900 Objective and Conceptual Questions are included in this edition. Answers for selected questions are included in the *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*, and answers for all questions are found in the *Instructor’s Solutions Manual*.

Objective Questions are multiple-choice, true–false, ranking, or other multiple-guess–type questions. Some require calculations designed to facilitate students’ familiarity with the equations, the variables used, the concepts the variables represent, and the relationships between the concepts. Others are more conceptual in nature and are designed to encourage conceptual thinking. Objective Questions are also written with the personal response system user in mind, and most of the questions could easily be used in these systems.

Conceptual Questions are more traditional short-answer and essay-type questions that require students to think conceptually about a physical situation.

Problems. An extensive set of problems is included at the end of each chapter; in all, this edition contains more than 3 700 problems. Answers for odd-numbered problems are provided at the end of the book. Full solutions for approximately 20% of the problems are included in the *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*, and solutions for all problems are found in the *Instructor’s Solutions Manual*.

The end-of-chapter problems are organized by the sections in each chapter (about two-thirds of the problems are keyed to specific sections of the chapter). Within each section, the problems now “platform” students to higher-order thinking by presenting all the straightforward problems in the section first, followed by the intermediate problems. (The problem numbers for straightforward problems are printed in **black**; intermediate-level problems are in **blue**.) The *Additional Problems* section contains problems that are not keyed to specific sections. At the end of each chapter is the *Challenge Problems* section, which gathers the most difficult problems for a given chapter in one place. (Challenge Problems have problem numbers marked in **red**.)

There are several kinds of problems featured in this text:

■ **Quantitative/Conceptual problems** (indicated in the Annotated Instructor’s Edition) contain parts that ask students to think both quantitatively and conceptually. An example of a Quantitative/Conceptual problem appears here:

59. A horizontal spring attached to a wall has a force constant of 850 N/m. A block of mass 1.00 kg is attached to the spring and rests on a frictionless, horizontal surface as in Figure P8.59. (a) The block is pulled to a position 6.00 cm from equilibrium and released. Find the elastic potential energy stored in the spring when the block is 6.00 cm from equilibrium and when the block passes through equilibrium. (b) Find the speed of the block as it passes through the equilibrium point. (c) What is the speed of the block when it is at a position $\frac{1}{2}$ 3.00 cm? (d) Why isn’t the answer to part (c) half the answer to part (b)?

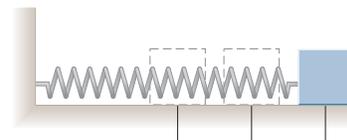


Figure P8.59

The problem is identified in the Annotated Instructor’s Edition with a ■ icon.

Parts (a)–(c) of the problem ask for quantitative calculations.

Part (d) asks a conceptual question about the situation.

■ *Symbolic problems* (indicated in the Annotated Instructor's Edition) ask students to solve a problem using only symbolic manipulation. Reviewers of the Eighth Edition (as well as the majority of respondents to a large survey) asked specifically for an increase in the number of symbolic problems found in the text because it better reflects the way instructors want their students to think when solving physics problems. An example of a Symbolic problem appears here:

The problem is identified in the Annotated Instructor's Edition with a ■ icon.

No numbers appear in the problem statement.

51. A truck is moving with constant acceleration up a hill that makes an angle with the horizontal as in Figure P6.51. A small sphere of mass is suspended from the ceiling of the truck by a light cord. If the pendulum makes a constant angle with the perpendicular to the ceiling, what is

51. $(\cos \tan \sin$

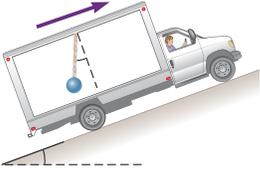


Figure P6.51

The figure shows only symbolic quantities.

The answer to the problem is purely symbolic.

■ *Guided Problems* help students break problems into steps. A physics problem typically asks for one physical quantity in a given context. Often, however, several concepts must be used and a number of calculations are required to obtain that final answer. Many students are not accustomed to this level of complexity and often don't know where to start. A Guided Problem breaks a standard problem into smaller steps, enabling students to grasp all the concepts and strategies required to arrive at a correct solution. Unlike standard physics problems, guidance is often built into the problem statement. Guided Problems are reminiscent of how a student might interact with a professor in an office visit. These problems (there is one in every chapter of the text) help train students to break down complex problems into a series of simpler problems, an essential problem-solving skill. An example of a Guided Problem appears here:

The problem is identified with a ■ icon.

38. A uniform beam resting on two pivots has a length 6.00 m and mass 90.0 kg. The pivot under the left end exerts a normal force on the beam, and the second pivot located a distance 4.00 m from the left end exerts a normal force . A woman of mass 55.0 kg steps onto the left end of the beam and begins walking to the right as in Figure P12.38. The goal is to find the woman's position when the beam begins to tip. (a) What is the appropriate analysis model for the beam before it begins to tip? (b) Sketch a force diagram for the beam, labeling the gravitational and normal forces acting on the beam and placing the woman a distance to the right of the first pivot, which is the origin. (c) Where is the woman when the normal force is the greatest? (d) What is when the beam is about to tip? (e) Use Equation 12.1 to find the value of when the beam is about to tip. (f) Using the result of part (d) and Equation 12.2, with torques computed around the second pivot, find the woman's position when the beam is about to tip. (g) Check the answer to part (e) by computing torques around the first pivot point.

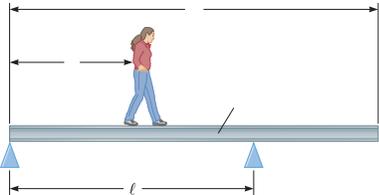


Figure P12.38

The goal of the problem is identified.

Analysis begins by identifying the appropriate analysis model.

Students are provided with suggestions for steps to solve the problem.

The calculation associated with the goal is requested.

Impossibility problems. Physics education research has focused heavily on the problem-solving skills of students. Although most problems in this text are structured in the form of providing data and asking for a result of computation, two problems in each chapter, on average, are structured as impossibility problems. They begin with the phrase *Why is the following situation impossible?* That is followed by the description of a situation. The striking aspect of these problems is that no question is asked of the students, other than that in the initial italics. The student must determine what questions need to be asked and what calculations need to be performed. Based on the results of these calculations, the student must determine why the situation described is not possible. This determination may require information from personal experience, common sense, Internet or print research, measurement, mathematical skills, knowledge of human norms, or scientific thinking.

These problems can be assigned to build critical thinking skills in students. They are also fun, having the aspect of physics “mysteries” to be solved by students individually or in groups. An example of an impossibility problem appears here:

The initial phrase in italics signals an impossibility problem.

67. *Why is the following situation impossible?* Albert Pujols hits a home run so that the baseball just clears the top row of bleachers, 24.0 m high, located 130 m from home plate. The ball is hit at 41.7 m/s at an angle of 35.0° to the horizontal, and air resistance is negligible.

A situation is described.

No question is asked. The student must determine what needs to be calculated and why the situation is impossible.

Paired problems. These problems are otherwise identical, one asking for a numerical solution and one asking for a symbolic derivation. There are now three pairs of these problems in most chapters, indicated in the Annotated Instructor’s Edition by cyan shading in the end-of-chapter problems set.

Biomedical problems. These problems (indicated in the Annotated Instructor’s Edition with a ■ icon) highlight the relevance of physics principles to those students taking this course who are majoring in one of the life sciences.

Review problems. Many chapters include review problems requiring the student to combine concepts covered in the chapter with those discussed in previous chapters. These problems (marked **Review**) reflect the cohesive nature of the principles in the text and verify that physics is not a scattered set of ideas. When facing a real-world issue such as global warming or nuclear weapons, it may be necessary to call on ideas in physics from several parts of a textbook such as this one.

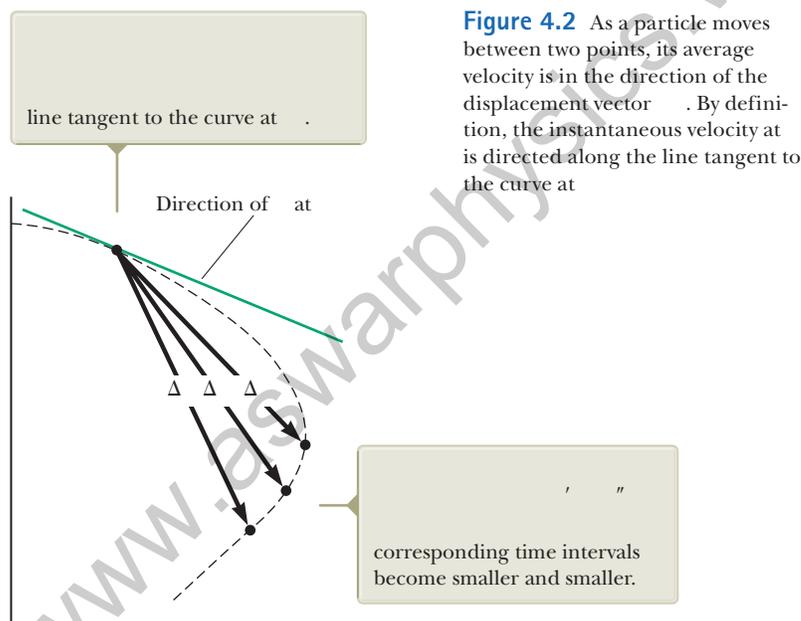
“Fermi problems.” One or more problems in most chapters ask the student to reason in order-of-magnitude terms.

Design problems. Several chapters contain problems that ask the student to determine design parameters for a practical device so that it can function as required.

Calculus-based problems. Every chapter contains at least one problem applying ideas and methods from differential calculus and one problem using integral calculus.

Integration with Enhanced WebAssign. The textbook's tight integration with Enhanced WebAssign content facilitates an online learning environment that helps students improve their problem-solving skills and gives them a variety of tools to meet their individual learning styles. Extensive user data gathered by WebAssign were used to ensure that the problems most often assigned were retained for this new edition. In each chapter's problems set, the top quartile of problems assigned in Enhanced WebAssign have cyan-shaded problem numbers in the Annotated Instructor's Edition for easy identification, allowing professors to quickly and easily find the most popular problems assigned in Enhanced WebAssign. New Analysis Model tutorials added for this edition have already been discussed (see page x). Master It tutorials help students solve problems by having them work through a stepped-out solution. Problems with Master It tutorials are indicated in each chapter's problem set with a  icon. In addition, Watch It solution videos are indicated in each chapter's problem set with a  icon and explain fundamental problem-solving strategies to help students step through the problem.

Artwork. Every piece of artwork in the Ninth Edition is in a modern style that helps express the physics principles at work in a clear and precise fashion. *Focus pointers* are included with many figures in the text; these either point out important aspects of a figure or guide students through a process illustrated by the artwork or photo. This format helps those students who are more visual learners. An example of a figure with a focus pointer appears below.



Math Appendix. The math appendix (Appendix B), a valuable tool for students, shows the math tools in a physics context. This resource is ideal for students who need a quick review on topics such as algebra, trigonometry, and calculus.

Helpful Features

Style. To facilitate rapid comprehension, we have written the book in a clear, logical, and engaging style. We have chosen a writing style that is somewhat informal and relaxed so that students will find the text appealing and enjoyable to read. New terms are carefully defined, and we have avoided the use of jargon.

Important Definitions and Equations. Most important definitions are set in **bold-face** or are highlighted with a **background screen** for added emphasis and ease of review. Similarly, important equations are also highlighted with a background screen to facilitate location.

Marginal Notes. Comments and notes appearing in the margin with a ► icon can be used to locate important statements, equations, and concepts in the text.

Pedagogical Use of Color. Readers should consult the **pedagogical color chart** (inside the front cover) for a listing of the color-coded symbols used in the text diagrams. This system is followed consistently throughout the text.

Mathematical Level. We have introduced calculus gradually, keeping in mind that students often take introductory courses in calculus and physics concurrently. Most steps are shown when basic equations are developed, and reference is often made to mathematical appendices near the end of the textbook. Although vectors are discussed in detail in Chapter 3, vector products are introduced later in the text, where they are needed in physical applications. The dot product is introduced in Chapter 7, which addresses energy of a system; the cross product is introduced in Chapter 11, which deals with angular momentum.

Significant Figures. In both worked examples and end-of-chapter problems, significant figures have been handled with care. Most numerical examples are worked to either two or three significant figures, depending on the precision of the data provided. End-of-chapter problems regularly state data and answers to three-digit precision. When carrying out estimation calculations, we shall typically work with a single significant figure. (More discussion of significant figures can be found in Chapter 1, pages 11–13.)

Units. The international system of units (SI) is used throughout the text. The U.S. customary system of units is used only to a limited extent in the chapters on mechanics and thermodynamics.

Appendices and Endpapers. Several appendices are provided near the end of the textbook. Most of the appendix material represents a review of mathematical concepts and techniques used in the text, including scientific notation, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, differential calculus, and integral calculus. Reference to these appendices is made throughout the text. Most mathematical review sections in the appendices include worked examples and exercises with answers. In addition to the mathematical reviews, the appendices contain tables of physical data, conversion factors, and the SI units of physical quantities as well as a periodic table of the elements. Other useful information—fundamental constants and physical data, planetary data, a list of standard prefixes, mathematical symbols, the Greek alphabet, and standard abbreviations of units of measure—appears on the endpapers.



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All of the quantitative end-of-chapter problems

Selected problems enhanced with targeted feedback. An example of targeted feedback appears below:

Selected problems include feedback to address common mistakes that students make. This feedback was developed by professors with years of classroom experience.

A fish swimming in a horizontal plane has velocity $\vec{v}_i = (4\hat{i} + 1\hat{j})$ m/s at a point in the ocean where the position relative to a certain rock is $\vec{r}_i = (10\hat{i} - 4\hat{j})$ m. After the fish swims with constant acceleration for 20 s, its velocity is $\vec{v}_f = (20\hat{i} - 4\hat{j})$ m/s.

(a) What are the components of the acceleration?

$a_x = 3$ m/s^2 ✗
 You appear to have interchanged the position and velocity values.

$a_y = 05$ m/s^2 ✗
 Acceleration is determined from the change in velocity in this time interval.

(b) What is the direction of the acceleration with respect to unit vector \hat{i} ?
 -358.5 $^\circ$ (counterclockwise from the $+\hat{x}$ -axis is positive)
 You appear to have correctly calculated the angle using your incorrect values from part (a).

(c) If the fish maintains constant acceleration, where is it at $t = 20$ s?

$x =$ m ✗
 $y =$ m ✗

In what direction is it moving?
 $^\circ$ (counterclockwise from the $+\hat{x}$ -axis is positive)

Need Help?

Master It tutorials (indicated in the text by a ■ icon), to help students work through the problem one step at a time. An example of a Master It tutorial appears on page xxiv:

Master It

A fish swimming in a horizontal plane has velocity $\vec{v}_i = (3.00 \hat{i} + 1.00 \hat{j})$ m/s at a point in the ocean where the position relative to a certain rock is $\vec{r}_i = (6.00 \hat{i} - 3.7 \hat{j})$ m. After the fish swims with constant acceleration for 12.0 s, its velocity is $\vec{v}_f = (22.0 \hat{i} - 15 \hat{j})$ m/s.

(a) What are the components of the acceleration?
 (b) What is the direction of the acceleration with respect to unit vector \hat{i} ?
 (c) If the fish maintains constant acceleration, where is it at $t = 21.0$ s?

Part 1 of 7 - Conceptualize

The fish is speeding up and changing direction. We choose to write separate equations about the x and y components of its motion.

Part 2 of 7 - Categorize

Model the fish as a particle under constant acceleration. We use our old standard equations for constant-acceleration straight line motion, with x and y subscripts to make them apply to parts of the whole motion.

Part 3 of 7 - Analyze (a)

At $t = 0$, the initial velocity $\vec{v} = (3.00 \hat{i} + 1.00 \hat{j})$ m/s and the initial position vector $\vec{r}_i = (6.00 \hat{i} - 3.7 \hat{j})$ m

At the first 'final' point we consider, 12.0 s later, $\vec{v} = (22.0 \hat{i} - 15 \hat{j})$ m/s

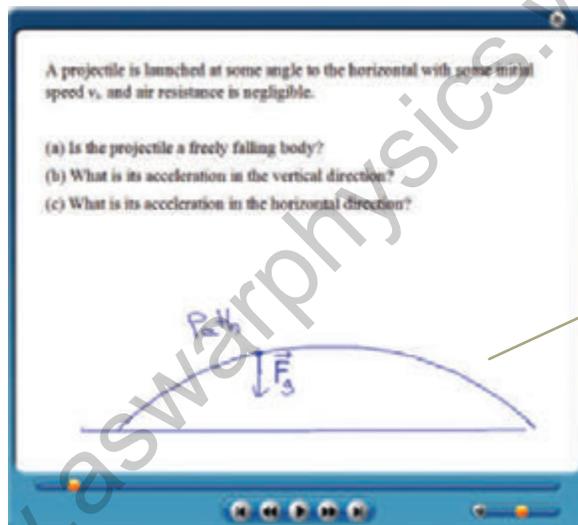
$$a_x = \frac{\Delta v_x}{\Delta t} = \frac{22.0 \text{ m/s} - 3 \text{ m/s}}{12.0 \text{ s}} = 1.1 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$a_y = \frac{\Delta v_y}{\Delta t} = \frac{-15 \text{ m/s} - 1.00 \text{ s}}{12.0 \text{ s}} = -1.4 \text{ m/s}^2$$

Master It tutorials help students organize what they need to solve a problem with *Conceptualize* and *Categorize* sections before they work through each step.

Master It tutorials help students work through each step of the problem.

Watch It solution videos (indicated in the text by a  icon) that explain fundamental problem-solving strategies, to help students step through the problem. In addition, instructors can choose to include video hints of problem-solving strategies. A screen shot from a Watch It solution video appears below:



Watch It solution videos help students visualize the steps needed to solve a problem.

Concept Checks

PhET simulations

Most worked examples, enhanced with hints and feedback, to help strengthen students' problem-solving skills

Every Quick Quiz, giving your students ample opportunity to test their conceptual understanding

PreLecture Explorations. The Active Figure questions in WebAssign have been completely revised. The simulations have been updated, with additional parameters to enhance investigation of a physical phenomenon. Students can make predictions, change the parameters, and then observe the results. Each new PreLecture Exploration comes with conceptual and analytical questions, which guide students to a deeper understanding and help promote a robust physical intuition.

Analysis Model tutorials. John Jewett developed 165 tutorials (indicated in each chapter's problem set with an **AMT** icon) that strengthen students' problem-solving skills by guiding them through the steps in the problem-solving process.

Important first steps include making predictions and focusing strategy on physics concepts before starting to solve the problem quantitatively. A critical component of these tutorials is the selection of an appropriate Analysis Model to describe what is going on in the problem. This step allows students to make the important link between the situation in the problem and the mathematical representation of the situation. Analysis Model tutorials include meaningful feedback at each step to help students practice the problem-solving process and improve their skills. In addition, the feedback addresses student misconceptions and helps them to catch algebraic and other mathematical errors. Solutions are carried out symbolically as long as possible, with numerical values substituted at the end. This feature helps students to understand the effects of changing the values of each variable in the problem, avoids unnecessary repetitive substitution of the same numbers, and eliminates round-off errors. Feedback at the end of the tutorial encourages students to think about how the final answer compares to their original predictions.

- **Personalized Study Plan.** The Personal Study Plan in Enhanced WebAssign provides chapter and section assessments that show students what material they know and what areas require more work. For items that they answer incorrectly, students can click on links to related study resources such as videos, tutorials, or reading materials. Color-coded progress indicators let them see how well they are doing on different topics. You decide what chapters and sections to include—and whether to include the plan as part of the final grade or as a study guide with no scoring involved.
- **The Cengage YouBook.** WebAssign has a customizable and interactive eBook, the **Cengage YouBook**, that lets you tailor the textbook to fit your course and connect with your students. You can remove and rearrange chapters in the table of contents and tailor assigned readings that match your syllabus exactly. Powerful editing tools let you change as much as you'd like—or leave it just like it is. You can highlight key passages or add sticky notes to pages to comment on a concept in the reading, and then share any of these individual notes and highlights with your students, or keep them personal. You can also edit narrative content in the textbook by adding a text box or striking out text. With a handy link tool, you can drop in an icon at any point in the eBook that lets you link to your own lecture notes, audio summaries, video lectures, or other files on a personal Web site or anywhere on the Web. A simple YouTube widget lets you easily find and embed videos from YouTube directly into eBook pages. The Cengage YouBook helps students go beyond just reading the textbook. Students can also highlight the text, add their own notes, and bookmark the text. Animations play right on the page at the point of learning so that they're not speed bumps to reading but true enhancements. Please visit www.webassign.net/brookscole to view an interactive demonstration of Enhanced WebAssign.
- Offered exclusively in WebAssign, **Quick Prep** for physics is algebra and trigonometry math remediation within the context of physics applications and principles. Quick Prep helps students succeed by using narratives illustrated throughout with video examples. The Master It tutorial problems allow students to assess and retune their understanding of the material. The Practice Problems that go along with each tutorial allow both the student and the instructor to test the student's understanding of the material.

Quick Prep includes the following features:

- 67 interactive tutorials
- 67 additional practice problems
- A thorough overview of each topic, including video examples
- Can be taken before the semester begins or during the first few weeks of the course
- Can also be assigned alongside each chapter for “just in time” remediation

Topics include units, scientific notation, and significant figures; the motion of objects along a line; functions; approximation and graphing; probability and error; vectors, displacement, and velocity; spheres; force and vector projections.



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MindTap for Serway and Jewett *Physics for Scientists and Engineers* is a personalized, fully online digital learning platform of authoritative textbook content, assignments, and services that engages your students with interactivity while also offering you choice in the configuration of coursework and enhancement of the curriculum via complimentary Web-apps known as MindApps. MindApps range from ReadSpeaker (which reads the text out loud to students), to Kaltura (allowing you to insert inline video and audio into your curriculum), to ConnectYard (allowing you to create digital “yards” through social media—all without “friending” your students). MindTap is well beyond an eBook, a homework solution or digital supplement, a resource center Web site, a course delivery platform, or a Learning Management System. It is the first in a new category—the Personal Learning Experience.



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Lecture Presentation Resources

PowerLecture with ExamView® and JoinIn for *Physics for Scientists and Engineers, Ninth Edition*. Bringing physics principles and concepts to life in your lectures has never been easier! The full-featured, two-volume **PowerLecture** Instructor’s Resource DVD-ROM (Volume 1: Chapters 1–22; Volume 2: Chapters 23–46) provides everything you need for *Physics for Scientists and Engineers, Ninth Edition*. Key content includes the *Instructor’s Solutions Manual*, art and images from the text, pre-made chapter-specific PowerPoint lectures, ExamView test generator software with pre-loaded test questions, JoinIn response-system “clickers,” Active Figures animations, and a physics movie library.



JoinIn. Assessing to Learn in the Classroom questions developed at the University of Massachusetts Amherst. This collection of 250 advanced conceptual questions has been tested in the classroom for more than ten years and takes peer learning to a new level. JoinIn helps you turn your lectures into an interactive learning environment that promotes conceptual understanding. Available exclusively for higher education from our partnership with Turning Technologies, JoinIn™ is the easiest way to turn your lecture hall into a personal, fully interactive experience for your students!

Assessment and Course Preparation Resources

A number of resources listed below will assist with your assessment and preparation processes.

Instructor’s Solutions Manual by Vahé Perroomian (University of California at Los Angeles). Thoroughly revised for this edition, the *Instructor’s Solutions Manual* contains complete worked solutions to all end-of-chapter problems in the textbook as well as answers to the even-numbered problems and all the questions. The solutions to problems new to the Ninth Edition are marked for easy identification. Volume 1 contains Chapters 1 through 22; Volume 2 contains Chapters 23 through 46. Electronic files of the *Instructor’s Solutions Manual* are available on the PowerLecture™ DVD-ROM.

Test Bank by Ed Oberhofer (University of North Carolina at Charlotte and Lake Sumter Community College). The test bank is available on the two-volume PowerLecture™ DVD-ROM via the ExamView® test software. This two-volume test bank contains approximately 2 000 multiple-choice questions. Instructors may print and duplicate pages for distribution to students. Volume 1 contains Chapters 1 through 22, and Volume 2 contains Chapters 23 through 46. WebCT and Blackboard versions of the test bank are available on the instructor's companion site at www.CengageBrain.com.

Instructor's Companion Web Site. Consult the instructor's site by pointing your browser to www.CengageBrain.com for a problem correlation guide, PowerPoint lectures, and JoinIn audience response content. Instructors adopting the Ninth Edition of *Physics for Scientists and Engineers* may download these materials after securing the appropriate password from their local sales representative.

Supporting Materials for the Instructor

Supporting instructor materials are available to qualified adopters. Please consult your local Cengage Learning, Brooks/Cole representative for details. Visit www.CengageBrain.com to

- request a desk copy
- locate your local representative
- download electronic files of select support materials

Student Resources

Visit the *Physics for Scientists and Engineers* Web site at www.cengagebrain.com/shop/ISBN/9781133954156 to see samples of select student supplements. Go to CengageBrain.com to purchase and access this product at Cengage Learning's preferred online store.

Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide by John R. Gordon, Vahé Perroomian, Raymond A. Serway, and John W. Jewett, Jr. This two-volume manual features detailed solutions to 20% of the end-of-chapter problems from the text. The manual also features a list of important equations, concepts, and notes from key sections of the text in addition to answers to selected end-of-chapter questions. Volume 1 contains Chapters 1 through 22; and Volume 2 contains Chapters 23 through 46.

Physics Laboratory Manual, Third Edition by David Loyd (Angelo State University) supplements the learning of basic physical principles while introducing laboratory procedures and equipment. Each chapter includes a prelaboratory assignment, objectives, an equipment list, the theory behind the experiment, experimental procedures, graphing exercises, and questions. A laboratory report form is included with each experiment so that the student can record data, calculations, and experimental results. Students are encouraged to apply statistical analysis to their data. A complete *Instructor's Manual* is also available to facilitate use of this lab manual.

Physics Laboratory Experiments, Seventh Edition by Jerry D. Wilson (Lander College) and Cecilia A. Hernández (American River College). This market-leading manual for the first-year physics laboratory course offers a wide range of class-tested experiments designed specifically for use in small to midsize lab programs. A series of integrated experiments emphasizes the use of computerized instrumentation and includes a set of "computer-assisted experiments" to allow students and instructors to gain experience with modern equipment. This option also enables instructors to determine the appropriate balance between traditional and computer-based experiments for their courses. By analyzing data through two different methods, students gain a greater understanding of the concepts behind the experiments. The Seventh Edition is updated with the latest information and techniques involving state-of-the-art equipment and a new Guided Learning feature addresses

the growing interest in guided-inquiry pedagogy. Fourteen additional experiments are also available through custom printing.

Teaching Options

The topics in this textbook are presented in the following sequence: classical mechanics, oscillations and mechanical waves, and heat and thermodynamics, followed by electricity and magnetism, electromagnetic waves, optics, relativity, and modern physics. This presentation represents a traditional sequence, with the subject of mechanical waves being presented before electricity and magnetism. Some instructors may prefer to discuss both mechanical and electromagnetic waves together after completing electricity and magnetism. In this case, Chapters 16 through 18 could be covered along with Chapter 34. The chapter on relativity is placed near the end of the text because this topic often is treated as an introduction to the era of “modern physics.” If time permits, instructors may choose to cover Chapter 39 after completing Chapter 13 as a conclusion to the material on Newtonian mechanics. For those instructors teaching a two-semester sequence, some sections and chapters could be deleted without any loss of continuity. The following sections can be considered optional for this purpose:

| | | | |
|------|---|-------|---|
| 2.8 | Kinematic Equations Derived from Calculus | 31.6 | Eddy Currents |
| 4.6 | Relative Velocity and Relative Acceleration | 33.9 | Rectifiers and Filters |
| 6.3 | Motion in Accelerated Frames | 34.6 | Production of Electromagnetic Waves by an Antenna |
| 6.4 | Motion in the Presence of Resistive Forces | 36.5 | Lens Aberrations |
| 7.9 | Energy Diagrams and Equilibrium of a System | 36.6 | The Camera |
| 9.9 | Rocket Propulsion | 36.7 | The Eye |
| 11.5 | The Motion of Gyroscopes and Tops | 36.8 | The Simple Magnifier |
| 14.7 | Other Applications of Fluid Dynamics | 36.9 | The Compound Microscope |
| 15.6 | Damped Oscillations | 36.10 | The Telescope |
| 15.7 | Forced Oscillations | 38.5 | Diffraction of X-Rays by Crystals |
| 18.6 | Standing Waves in Rods and Membranes | 39.9 | The General Theory of Relativity |
| 18.8 | Nonsinusoidal Wave Patterns | 41.6 | Applications of Tunneling |
| 25.7 | The Millikan Oil-Drop Experiment | 42.9 | Spontaneous and Stimulated Transitions |
| 25.8 | Applications of Electrostatics | 43.10 | Lasers |
| 26.7 | An Atomic Description of Dielectrics | 43.7 | Semiconductor Devices |
| 27.5 | Superconductors | 43.8 | Superconductivity |
| 28.5 | Household Wiring and Electrical Safety | 44.8 | Nuclear Magnetic Resonance and Magnetic Resonance Imaging |
| 29.3 | Applications Involving Charged Particles Moving in a Magnetic Field | 45.5 | Radiation Damage |
| 29.6 | The Hall Effect | 45.6 | Uses of Radiation |
| 30.6 | Magnetism in Matter | | |

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Raymond A. Serway
St. Petersburg, Florida

John W. Jewett, Jr.
Anaheim, California

To the Student

It is appropriate to offer some words of advice that should be of benefit to you, the student. Before doing so, we assume you have read the Preface, which describes the various features of the text and support materials that will help you through the course.

How to Study

Instructors are often asked, “How should I study physics and prepare for examinations?” There is no simple answer to this question, but we can offer some suggestions based on our own experiences in learning and teaching over the years.

First and foremost, maintain a positive attitude toward the subject matter, keeping in mind that physics is the most fundamental of all natural sciences. Other science courses that follow will use the same physical principles, so it is important that you understand and are able to apply the various concepts and theories discussed in the text.

Concepts and Principles

It is essential that you understand the basic concepts and principles before attempting to solve assigned problems. You can best accomplish this goal by carefully reading the textbook before you attend your lecture on the covered material. When reading the text, you should jot down those points that are not clear to you. Also be sure to make a diligent attempt at answering the questions in the Quick Quizzes as you come to them in your reading. We have worked hard to prepare questions that help you judge for yourself how well you understand the material. Study the **What If?** features that appear in many of the worked examples carefully. They will help you extend your understanding beyond the simple act of arriving at a numerical result. The Pitfall Preventions will also help guide you away from common misunderstandings about physics. During class, take careful notes and ask questions about those ideas that are unclear to you. Keep in mind that few people are able to absorb the full meaning of scientific material after only one reading; several readings of the text and your notes may be necessary. Your lectures and laboratory work supplement the textbook and should clarify some of the more difficult material. You should minimize your memorization of material. Successful memorization of passages from the text, equations, and derivations does not necessarily indicate that you understand the material. Your understanding of the material will be enhanced through a combination of efficient study habits, discussions with other students and with instructors, and your ability to solve the problems presented in the textbook. Ask questions whenever you believe that clarification of a concept is necessary.

Study Schedule

It is important that you set up a regular study schedule, preferably a daily one. Make sure that you read the syllabus for the course and adhere to the schedule set by your instructor. The lectures will make much more sense if you read the corresponding text material *before* attending them. As a general rule, you should devote about two hours of study time for each hour you are in class. If you are having trouble with the

course, seek the advice of the instructor or other students who have taken the course. You may find it necessary to seek further instruction from experienced students. Very often, instructors offer review sessions in addition to regular class periods. Avoid the practice of delaying study until a day or two before an exam. More often than not, this approach has disastrous results. Rather than undertake an all-night study session before a test, briefly review the basic concepts and equations, and then get a good night's rest. If you believe that you need additional help in understanding the concepts, in preparing for exams, or in problem solving, we suggest that you acquire a copy of the *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide* that accompanies this textbook.

Visit the *Physics for Scientists and Engineers* Web site at www.cengagebrain.com/shop/ISBN/9781133954156 to see samples of select student supplements. You can purchase any Cengage Learning product at your local college store or at our preferred online store **CengageBrain.com**.

Use the Features

You should make full use of the various features of the text discussed in the Preface. For example, marginal notes are useful for locating and describing important equations and concepts, and **boldface** indicates important definitions. Many useful tables are contained in the appendices, but most are incorporated in the text where they are most often referenced. Appendix B is a convenient review of mathematical tools used in the text.

Answers to Quick Quizzes and odd-numbered problems are given at the end of the textbook, and solutions to selected end-of-chapter questions and problems are provided in the *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*. The table of contents provides an overview of the entire text, and the index enables you to locate specific material quickly. Footnotes are sometimes used to supplement the text or to cite other references on the subject discussed.

After reading a chapter, you should be able to define any new quantities introduced in that chapter and discuss the principles and assumptions that were used to arrive at certain key relations. The chapter summaries and the review sections of the *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide* should help you in this regard. In some cases, you may find it necessary to refer to the textbook's index to locate certain topics. You should be able to associate with each physical quantity the correct symbol used to represent that quantity and the unit in which the quantity is specified. Furthermore, you should be able to express each important equation in concise and accurate prose.

Problem Solving

R. P. Feynman, Nobel laureate in physics, once said, "You do not know anything until you have practiced." In keeping with this statement, we strongly advise you to develop the skills necessary to solve a wide range of problems. Your ability to solve problems will be one of the main tests of your knowledge of physics; therefore, you should try to solve as many problems as possible. It is essential that you understand basic concepts and principles before attempting to solve problems. It is good practice to try to find alternate solutions to the same problem. For example, you can solve problems in mechanics using Newton's laws, but very often an alternative method that draws on energy considerations is more direct. You should not deceive yourself into thinking that you understand a problem merely because you have seen it solved in class. You must be able to solve the problem and similar problems on your own.

The approach to solving problems should be carefully planned. A systematic plan is especially important when a problem involves several concepts. First, read the problem several times until you are confident you understand what is being asked. Look for any key words that will help you interpret the problem and perhaps allow you to make certain assumptions. Your ability to interpret a question properly is

an integral part of problem solving. Second, you should acquire the habit of writing down the information given in a problem and those quantities that need to be found; for example, you might construct a table listing both the quantities given and the quantities to be found. This procedure is sometimes used in the worked examples of the textbook. Finally, after you have decided on the method you believe is appropriate for a given problem, proceed with your solution. The General Problem-Solving Strategy will guide you through complex problems. If you follow the steps of this procedure (*Conceptualize, Categorize, Analyze, Finalize*), you will find it easier to come up with a solution and gain more from your efforts. This strategy, located at the end of Chapter 2 (pages 45–47), is used in all worked examples in the remaining chapters so that you can learn how to apply it. Specific problem-solving strategies for certain types of situations are included in the text and appear with a special heading. These specific strategies follow the outline of the General Problem-Solving Strategy.

Often, students fail to recognize the limitations of certain equations or physical laws in a particular situation. It is very important that you understand and remember the assumptions that underlie a particular theory or formalism. For example, certain equations in kinematics apply only to a particle moving with constant acceleration. These equations are not valid for describing motion whose acceleration is not constant, such as the motion of an object connected to a spring or the motion of an object through a fluid. Study the Analysis Models for Problem Solving in the chapter summaries carefully so that you know how each model can be applied to a specific situation. The analysis models provide you with a logical structure for solving problems and help you develop your thinking skills to become more like those of a physicist. Use the analysis model approach to save you hours of looking for the correct equation and to make you a faster and more efficient problem solver.

Experiments

Physics is a science based on experimental observations. Therefore, we recommend that you try to supplement the text by performing various types of “hands-on” experiments either at home or in the laboratory. These experiments can be used to test ideas and models discussed in class or in the textbook. For example, the common Slinky toy is excellent for studying traveling waves, a ball swinging on the end of a long string can be used to investigate pendulum motion, various masses attached to the end of a vertical spring or rubber band can be used to determine its elastic nature, an old pair of polarized sunglasses and some discarded lenses and a magnifying glass are the components of various experiments in optics, and an approximate measure of the free-fall acceleration can be determined simply by measuring with a stopwatch the time interval required for a ball to drop from a known height. The list of such experiments is endless. When physical models are not available, be imaginative and try to develop models of your own.

New Media

If available, we strongly encourage you to use the **Enhanced WebAssign** product that is available with this textbook. It is far easier to understand physics if you see it in action, and the materials available in Enhanced WebAssign will enable you to become a part of that action.

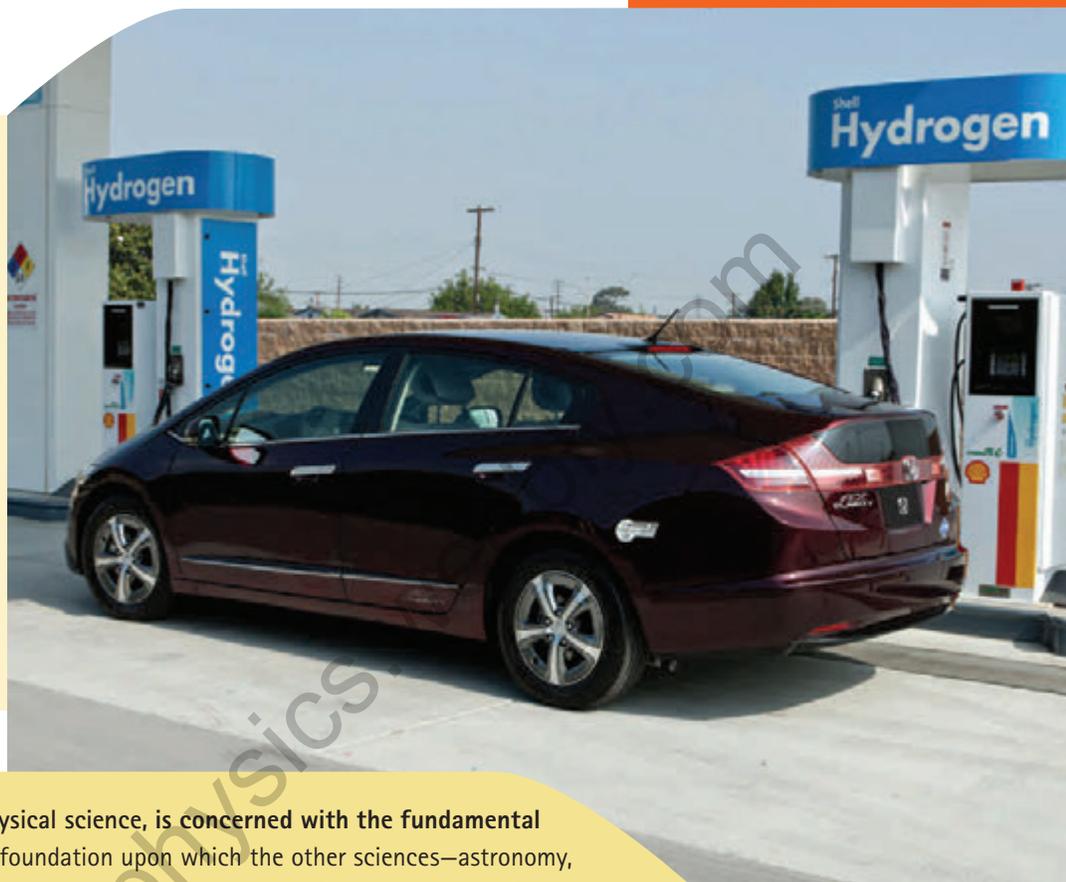
It is our sincere hope that you will find physics an exciting and enjoyable experience and that you will benefit from this experience, regardless of your chosen profession. Welcome to the exciting world of physics!

The scientist does not study nature because it is useful; he studies it because he delights in it, and he delights in it because it is beautiful. If nature were not beautiful, it would not be worth knowing, and if nature were not worth knowing, life would not be worth living.

—Henri Poincaré

The Honda FCX Clarity, a fuel-cell-powered automobile available to the public, albeit in limited quantities. A fuel cell converts hydrogen fuel into electricity to drive the motor attached to the wheels of the car. Automobiles, whether powered by fuel cells, gasoline engines, or batteries, use many of the concepts and principles of mechanics that we will study in this first part of the book. Quantities that we can use to describe the operation of vehicles include position, velocity, acceleration, force, energy, and momentum.

(PRNewsFoto/American Honda)



Physics, the most fundamental physical science, is concerned with the fundamental principles of the Universe. It is the foundation upon which the other sciences—astronomy, biology, chemistry, and geology—are based. It is also the basis of a large number of engineering applications. The beauty of physics lies in the simplicity of its fundamental principles and in the manner in which just a small number of concepts and models can alter and expand our view of the world around us.

The study of physics can be divided into six main areas:

1. *classical mechanics*, concerning the motion of objects that are large relative to atoms and move at speeds much slower than the speed of light
2. *relativity*, a theory describing objects moving at any speed, even speeds approaching the speed of light
3. *thermodynamics*, dealing with heat, work, temperature, and the statistical behavior of systems with large numbers of particles
4. *electromagnetism*, concerning electricity, magnetism, and electromagnetic fields
5. *optics*, the study of the behavior of light and its interaction with materials
6. *quantum mechanics*, a collection of theories connecting the behavior of matter at the submicroscopic level to macroscopic observations

The disciplines of mechanics and electromagnetism are basic to all other branches of classical physics (developed before 1900) and modern physics (c. 1900–present). The first part of this textbook deals with classical mechanics, sometimes referred to as *Newtonian mechanics* or simply *mechanics*. Many principles and models used to understand mechanical systems retain their importance in the theories of other areas of physics and can later be used to describe many natural phenomena. Therefore, classical mechanics is of vital importance to students from all disciplines. ■

Physics and Measurement

- 1.1 Standards of Length, Mass, and Time
- 1.2 Matter and Model Building
- 1.3 Dimensional Analysis
- 1.4 Conversion of Units
- 1.5 Estimates and Order-of-Magnitude Calculations
- 1.6 Significant Figures



Stonehenge, in southern England, was built thousands of years ago. Various theories have been proposed about its function, including a burial ground, a healing site, and a place for ancestor worship. One of the more intriguing theories suggests that Stonehenge was an observatory, allowing measurements of some of the quantities discussed in this chapter, such as position of objects in space and time intervals between repeating celestial events. (Stephen Inglis/Shutterstock.com)

Like all other sciences, physics is based on experimental observations and quantitative measurements. The main objectives of physics are to identify a limited number of fundamental laws that govern natural phenomena and use them to develop theories that can predict the results of future experiments. The fundamental laws used in developing theories are expressed in the language of mathematics, the tool that provides a bridge between theory and experiment.

When there is a discrepancy between the prediction of a theory and experimental results, new or modified theories must be formulated to remove the discrepancy. Many times a theory is satisfactory only under limited conditions; a more general theory might be satisfactory without such limitations. For example, the laws of motion discovered by Isaac Newton (1642–1727) accurately describe the motion of objects moving at normal speeds but do not apply to objects moving at speeds comparable to the speed of light. In contrast, the special theory of relativity developed later by Albert Einstein (1879–1955) gives the same results as Newton's laws at low speeds but also correctly describes the motion of objects at speeds approaching the speed of light. Hence, Einstein's special theory of relativity is a more general theory of motion than that formed from Newton's laws.

Classical physics includes the principles of classical mechanics, thermodynamics, optics, and electromagnetism developed before 1900. Important contributions to classical physics

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were provided by Newton, who was also one of the originators of calculus as a mathematical tool. Major developments in mechanics continued in the 18th century, but the fields of thermodynamics and electromagnetism were not developed until the latter part of the 19th century, principally because before that time the apparatus for controlled experiments in these disciplines was either too crude or unavailable.

A major revolution in physics, usually referred to as *modern physics*, began near the end of the 19th century. Modern physics developed mainly because many physical phenomena could not be explained by classical physics. The two most important developments in this modern era were the theories of relativity and quantum mechanics. Einstein's special theory of relativity not only correctly describes the motion of objects moving at speeds comparable to the speed of light; it also completely modifies the traditional concepts of space, time, and energy. The theory also shows that the speed of light is the upper limit of the speed of an object and that mass and energy are related. Quantum mechanics was formulated by a number of distinguished scientists to provide descriptions of physical phenomena at the atomic level. Many practical devices have been developed using the principles of quantum mechanics.

Scientists continually work at improving our understanding of fundamental laws. Numerous technological advances in recent times are the result of the efforts of many scientists, engineers, and technicians, such as unmanned planetary explorations, a variety of developments and potential applications in nanotechnology, microcircuitry and high-speed computers, sophisticated imaging techniques used in scientific research and medicine, and several remarkable results in genetic engineering. The effects of such developments and discoveries on our society have indeed been great, and it is very likely that future discoveries and developments will be exciting, challenging, and of great benefit to humanity.

1.1 Standards of Length, Mass, and Time

To describe natural phenomena, we must make measurements of various aspects of nature. Each measurement is associated with a physical quantity, such as the length of an object. The laws of physics are expressed as mathematical relationships among physical quantities that we will introduce and discuss throughout the book. In mechanics, the three fundamental quantities are length, mass, and time. All other quantities in mechanics can be expressed in terms of these three.

If we are to report the results of a measurement to someone who wishes to reproduce this measurement, a *standard* must be defined. It would be meaningless if a visitor from another planet were to talk to us about a length of 8 “glitches” if we do not know the meaning of the unit glitch. On the other hand, if someone familiar with our system of measurement reports that a wall is 2 meters high and our unit of length is defined to be 1 meter, we know that the height of the wall is twice our basic length unit. Whatever is chosen as a standard must be readily accessible and must possess some property that can be measured reliably. Measurement standards used by different people in different places—throughout the Universe—must yield the same result. In addition, standards used for measurements must not change with time.

In 1960, an international committee established a set of standards for the fundamental quantities of science. It is called the **SI** (Système International), and its fundamental units of length, mass, and time are the *meter*, *kilogram*, and *second*, respectively. Other standards for SI fundamental units established by the committee are those for temperature (the *kelvin*), electric current (the *ampere*), luminous intensity (the *candela*), and the amount of substance (the *mole*).

Length

We can identify **length** as the distance between two points in space. In 1120, the king of England decreed that the standard of length in his country would be named the *yard* and would be precisely equal to the distance from the tip of his nose to the end of his outstretched arm. Similarly, the original standard for the foot adopted by the French was the length of the royal foot of King Louis XIV. Neither of these standards is constant in time; when a new king took the throne, length measurements changed! The French standard prevailed until 1799, when the legal standard of length in France became the **meter** (m), defined as one ten-millionth of the distance from the equator to the North Pole along one particular longitudinal line that passes through Paris. Notice that this value is an Earth-based standard that does not satisfy the requirement that it can be used throughout the Universe.

As recently as 1960, the length of the meter was defined as the distance between two lines on a specific platinum–iridium bar stored under controlled conditions in France. Current requirements of science and technology, however, necessitate more accuracy than that with which the separation between the lines on the bar can be determined. In the 1960s and 1970s, the meter was defined as 1 650 763.73 wavelengths¹ of orange-red light emitted from a krypton-86 lamp. In October 1983, however, the meter was redefined as **the distance traveled by light in vacuum during a time of 1/299 792 458 second**. In effect, this latest definition establishes that the speed of light in vacuum is precisely 299 792 458 meters per second. This definition of the meter is valid throughout the Universe based on our assumption that light is the same everywhere.

Table 1.1 lists approximate values of some measured lengths. You should study this table as well as the next two tables and begin to generate an intuition for what is meant by, for example, a length of 20 centimeters, a mass of 100 kilograms, or a time interval of 3.2×10^7 seconds.

Mass

The SI fundamental unit of **mass**, the **kilogram** (kg), is defined as **the mass of a specific platinum–iridium alloy cylinder kept at the International Bureau of Weights and Measures at Sèvres, France**. This mass standard was established in 1887 and

Table 1.1 Approximate Values of Some Measured Lengths

| | Length (m) |
|--|-----------------------|
| Distance from the Earth to the most remote known quasar | 1.4×10^{26} |
| Distance from the Earth to the most remote normal galaxies | 9×10^{25} |
| Distance from the Earth to the nearest large galaxy (Andromeda) | 2×10^{22} |
| Distance from the Sun to the nearest star (Proxima Centauri) | 4×10^{16} |
| One light-year | 9.46×10^{15} |
| Mean orbit radius of the Earth about the Sun | 1.50×10^{11} |
| Mean distance from the Earth to the Moon | 3.84×10^8 |
| Distance from the equator to the North Pole | 1.00×10^7 |
| Mean radius of the Earth | 6.37×10^6 |
| Typical altitude (above the surface) of a satellite orbiting the Earth | 2×10^5 |
| Length of a football field | 9.1×10^1 |
| Length of a housefly | 5×10^{-3} |
| Size of smallest dust particles | $\sim 10^{-4}$ |
| Size of cells of most living organisms | $\sim 10^{-5}$ |
| Diameter of a hydrogen atom | $\sim 10^{-10}$ |
| Diameter of an atomic nucleus | $\sim 10^{-14}$ |
| Diameter of a proton | $\sim 10^{-15}$ |

¹We will use the standard international notation for numbers with more than three digits, in which groups of three digits are separated by spaces rather than commas. Therefore, 10 000 is the same as the common American notation of 10,000. Similarly, $\pi = 3.14159265$ is written as 3.141 592 65.

Pitfall Prevention 1.1

Reasonable Values Generating intuition about typical values of quantities when solving problems is important because you must think about your end result and determine if it seems reasonable. For example, if you are calculating the mass of a housefly and arrive at a value of 100 kg, this answer is *unreasonable* and there is an error somewhere.

Table 1.2

Approximate Masses of Various Objects

| | Mass (kg) |
|---------------------|--------------------------|
| Observable Universe | $\sim 10^{52}$ |
| Milky Way galaxy | $\sim 10^{42}$ |
| Sun | 1.99×10^{30} |
| Earth | 5.98×10^{24} |
| Moon | 7.36×10^{22} |
| Shark | $\sim 10^3$ |
| Human | $\sim 10^2$ |
| Frog | $\sim 10^{-1}$ |
| Mosquito | $\sim 10^{-5}$ |
| Bacterium | $\sim 1 \times 10^{-15}$ |
| Hydrogen atom | 1.67×10^{-27} |
| Electron | 9.11×10^{-31} |

Table 1.3 Approximate Values of Some Time Intervals

| | Time Interval (s) |
|---|----------------------|
| Age of the Universe | 4×10^{17} |
| Age of the Earth | 1.3×10^{17} |
| Average age of a college student | 6.3×10^8 |
| One year | 3.2×10^7 |
| One day | 8.6×10^4 |
| One class period | 3.0×10^3 |
| Time interval between normal heartbeats | 8×10^{-1} |
| Period of audible sound waves | $\sim 10^{-3}$ |
| Period of typical radio waves | $\sim 10^{-6}$ |
| Period of vibration of an atom in a solid | $\sim 10^{-13}$ |
| Period of visible light waves | $\sim 10^{-15}$ |
| Duration of a nuclear collision | $\sim 10^{-22}$ |
| Time interval for light to cross a proton | $\sim 10^{-24}$ |

has not been changed since that time because platinum–iridium is an unusually stable alloy. A duplicate of the Sèvres cylinder is kept at the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) in Gaithersburg, Maryland (Fig. 1.1a). Table 1.2 lists approximate values of the masses of various objects.

Time

Before 1967, the standard of **time** was defined in terms of the *mean solar day*. (A solar day is the time interval between successive appearances of the Sun at the highest point it reaches in the sky each day.) The fundamental unit of a **second** (s) was defined as $(\frac{1}{60})(\frac{1}{60})(\frac{1}{24})$ of a mean solar day. This definition is based on the rotation of one planet, the Earth. Therefore, this motion does not provide a time standard that is universal.

In 1967, the second was redefined to take advantage of the high precision attainable in a device known as an *atomic clock* (Fig. 1.1b), which measures vibrations of cesium atoms. One second is now defined as **9 192 631 770 times the period of vibration of radiation from the cesium-133 atom.**² Approximate values of time intervals are presented in Table 1.3.

In addition to SI, another system of units, the *U.S. customary system*, is still used in the United States despite acceptance of SI by the rest of the world. In this system, the units of length, mass, and time are the foot (ft), slug, and second, respectively. In this book, we shall use SI units because they are almost universally accepted in science and industry. We shall make some limited use of U.S. customary units in the study of classical mechanics.

In addition to the fundamental SI units of meter, kilogram, and second, we can also use other units, such as millimeters and nanoseconds, where the prefixes *milli-* and *nano-* denote multipliers of the basic units based on various powers of ten. Prefixes for the various powers of ten and their abbreviations are listed in Table 1.4 (page 6). For example, 10^{-3} m is equivalent to 1 millimeter (mm), and 10^3 m corresponds to 1 kilometer (km). Likewise, 1 kilogram (kg) is 10^3 grams (g), and 1 megavolt (MV) is 10^6 volts (V).

The variables length, time, and mass are examples of *fundamental quantities*. Most other variables are *derived quantities*, those that can be expressed as a mathematical combination of fundamental quantities. Common examples are *area* (a product of two lengths) and *speed* (a ratio of a length to a time interval).

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Figure 1.1 (a) The National Standard Kilogram No. 20, an accurate copy of the International Standard Kilogram kept at Sèvres, France, is housed under a double bell jar in a vault at the National Institute of Standards and Technology. (b) A cesium fountain atomic clock. The clock will neither gain nor lose a second in 20 million years.

²Period is defined as the time interval needed for one complete vibration.

Table 1.4 Prefixes for Powers of Ten

| Power | Prefix | Abbreviation | Power | Prefix | Abbreviation |
|------------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------|--------------|
| 10^{-24} | yocto | y | 10^3 | kilo | k |
| 10^{-21} | zepto | z | 10^6 | mega | M |
| 10^{-18} | atto | a | 10^9 | giga | G |
| 10^{-15} | femto | f | 10^{12} | tera | T |
| 10^{-12} | pico | p | 10^{15} | peta | P |
| 10^{-9} | nano | n | 10^{18} | exa | E |
| 10^{-6} | micro | μ | 10^{21} | zetta | Z |
| 10^{-3} | milli | m | 10^{24} | yotta | Y |
| 10^{-2} | centi | c | | | |
| 10^{-1} | deci | d | | | |

A table of the letters in the Greek alphabet is provided on the back endpaper of this book.

Another example of a derived quantity is **density**. The density ρ (Greek letter rho) of any substance is defined as its *mass per unit volume*:

$$\rho \equiv \frac{m}{V} \quad (1.1)$$

In terms of fundamental quantities, density is a ratio of a mass to a product of three lengths. Aluminum, for example, has a density of $2.70 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$, and iron has a density of $7.86 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$. An extreme difference in density can be imagined by thinking about holding a 10-centimeter (cm) cube of Styrofoam in one hand and a 10-cm cube of lead in the other. See Table 14.1 in Chapter 14 for densities of several materials.

Quick Quiz 1.1 In a machine shop, two cams are produced, one of aluminum and one of iron. Both cams have the same mass. Which cam is larger? (a) The aluminum cam is larger. (b) The iron cam is larger. (c) Both cams have the same size.

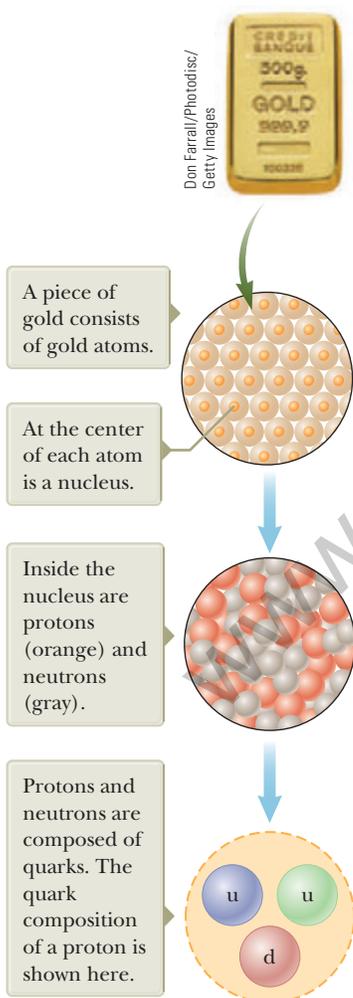


Figure 1.2 Levels of organization in matter.

1.2 Matter and Model Building

If physicists cannot interact with some phenomenon directly, they often imagine a **model** for a physical system that is related to the phenomenon. For example, we cannot interact directly with atoms because they are too small. Therefore, we build a mental model of an atom based on a system of a nucleus and one or more electrons outside the nucleus. Once we have identified the physical components of the model, we make predictions about its behavior based on the interactions among the components of the system or the interaction between the system and the environment outside the system.

As an example, consider the behavior of *matter*. A sample of solid gold is shown at the top of Figure 1.2. Is this sample nothing but wall-to-wall gold, with no empty space? If the sample is cut in half, the two pieces still retain their chemical identity as solid gold. What if the pieces are cut again and again, indefinitely? Will the smaller and smaller pieces always be gold? Such questions can be traced to early Greek philosophers. Two of them—Leucippus and his student Democritus—could not accept the idea that such cuttings could go on forever. They developed a model for matter by speculating that the process ultimately must end when it produces a particle that can no longer be cut. In Greek, *atomos* means “not sliceable.” From this Greek term comes our English word *atom*.

The Greek model of the structure of matter was that all ordinary matter consists of atoms, as suggested in the middle of Figure 1.2. Beyond that, no additional structure was specified in the model; atoms acted as small particles that interacted with one another, but internal structure of the atom was not a part of the model.

In 1897, J. J. Thomson identified the electron as a charged particle and as a constituent of the atom. This led to the first atomic model that contained internal structure. We shall discuss this model in Chapter 42.

Following the discovery of the nucleus in 1911, an atomic model was developed in which each atom is made up of electrons surrounding a central nucleus. A nucleus of gold is shown in Figure 1.2. This model leads, however, to a new question: Does the nucleus have structure? That is, is the nucleus a single particle or a collection of particles? By the early 1930s, a model evolved that described two basic entities in the nucleus: protons and neutrons. The proton carries a positive electric charge, and a specific chemical element is identified by the number of protons in its nucleus. This number is called the **atomic number** of the element. For instance, the nucleus of a hydrogen atom contains one proton (so the atomic number of hydrogen is 1), the nucleus of a helium atom contains two protons (atomic number 2), and the nucleus of a uranium atom contains 92 protons (atomic number 92). In addition to atomic number, a second number—**mass number**, defined as the number of protons plus neutrons in a nucleus—characterizes atoms. The atomic number of a specific element never varies (i.e., the number of protons does not vary), but the mass number can vary (i.e., the number of neutrons varies).

Is that, however, where the process of breaking down stops? Protons, neutrons, and a host of other exotic particles are now known to be composed of six different varieties of particles called **quarks**, which have been given the names of *up*, *down*, *strange*, *charmed*, *bottom*, and *top*. The up, charmed, and top quarks have electric charges of $+\frac{2}{3}$ that of the proton, whereas the down, strange, and bottom quarks have charges of $-\frac{1}{3}$ that of the proton. The proton consists of two up quarks and one down quark as shown at the bottom of Figure 1.2 and labeled u and d. This structure predicts the correct charge for the proton. Likewise, the neutron consists of two down quarks and one up quark, giving a net charge of zero.

You should develop a process of building models as you study physics. In this study, you will be challenged with many mathematical problems to solve. One of the most important problem-solving techniques is to build a model for the problem: identify a system of physical components for the problem and make predictions of the behavior of the system based on the interactions among its components or the interaction between the system and its surrounding environment.

1.3 Dimensional Analysis

In physics, the word *dimension* denotes the physical nature of a quantity. The distance between two points, for example, can be measured in feet, meters, or furlongs, which are all different ways of expressing the dimension of length.

The symbols we use in this book to specify the dimensions of length, mass, and time are L, M, and T, respectively.³ We shall often use brackets [] to denote the dimensions of a physical quantity. For example, the symbol we use for speed in this book is v , and in our notation, the dimensions of speed are written $[v] = L/T$. As another example, the dimensions of area A are $[A] = L^2$. The dimensions and units of area, volume, speed, and acceleration are listed in Table 1.5. The dimensions of other quantities, such as force and energy, will be described as they are introduced in the text.

Table 1.5 Dimensions and Units of Four Derived Quantities

| Quantity | Area (A) | Volume (V) | Speed (v) | Acceleration (a) |
|----------------------|--------------|----------------|---------------|----------------------|
| Dimensions | L^2 | L^3 | L/T | L/T^2 |
| SI units | m^2 | m^3 | m/s | m/s^2 |
| U.S. customary units | ft^2 | ft^3 | ft/s | ft/s^2 |

³The *dimensions* of a quantity will be symbolized by a capitalized, nonitalic letter such as L or T. The *algebraic symbol* for the quantity itself will be an italicized letter such as L for the length of an object or t for time.

In many situations, you may have to check a specific equation to see if it matches your expectations. A useful procedure for doing that, called **dimensional analysis**, can be used because dimensions can be treated as algebraic quantities. For example, quantities can be added or subtracted only if they have the same dimensions. Furthermore, the terms on both sides of an equation must have the same dimensions. By following these simple rules, you can use dimensional analysis to determine whether an expression has the correct form. Any relationship can be correct only if the dimensions on both sides of the equation are the same.

To illustrate this procedure, suppose you are interested in an equation for the position x of a car at a time t if the car starts from rest at $x = 0$ and moves with constant acceleration a . The correct expression for this situation is $x = \frac{1}{2}at^2$ as we show in Chapter 2. The quantity x on the left side has the dimension of length. For the equation to be dimensionally correct, the quantity on the right side must also have the dimension of length. We can perform a dimensional check by substituting the dimensions for acceleration, L/T^2 (Table 1.5), and time, T , into the equation. That is, the dimensional form of the equation $x = \frac{1}{2}at^2$ is

$$L = \frac{L}{T^2} \cdot T^2 = L$$

The dimensions of time cancel as shown, leaving the dimension of length on the right-hand side to match that on the left.

A more general procedure using dimensional analysis is to set up an expression of the form

$$x \propto a^n t^m$$

where n and m are exponents that must be determined and the symbol \propto indicates a proportionality. This relationship is correct only if the dimensions of both sides are the same. Because the dimension of the left side is length, the dimension of the right side must also be length. That is,

$$[a^n t^m] = L = L^1 T^0$$

Because the dimensions of acceleration are L/T^2 and the dimension of time is T , we have

$$(L/T^2)^n T^m = L^1 T^0 \quad \rightarrow \quad (L^n T^{m-2n}) = L^1 T^0$$

The exponents of L and T must be the same on both sides of the equation. From the exponents of L , we see immediately that $n = 1$. From the exponents of T , we see that $m - 2n = 0$, which, once we substitute for n , gives us $m = 2$. Returning to our original expression $x \propto a^n t^m$, we conclude that $x \propto at^2$.

- Quick Quiz 1.2** True or False: Dimensional analysis can give you the numerical value of constants of proportionality that may appear in an algebraic expression.

Pitfall Prevention 1.2

Symbols for Quantities Some quantities have a small number of symbols that represent them. For example, the symbol for time is almost always t . Other quantities might have various symbols depending on the usage. Length may be described with symbols such as x , y , and z (for position); r (for radius); a , b , and c (for the legs of a right triangle); ℓ (for the length of an object); d (for a distance); h (for a height); and so forth.

Example 1.1 Analysis of an Equation

Show that the expression $v = at$, where v represents speed, a acceleration, and t an instant of time, is dimensionally correct.

SOLUTION

Identify the dimensions of v from Table 1.5:

$$[v] = \frac{L}{T}$$

1.1 continued

Identify the dimensions of a from Table 1.5 and multiply by the dimensions of t :

$$[at] = \frac{\text{L}}{\text{T}^2} \mathcal{T} = \frac{\text{L}}{\text{T}}$$

Therefore, $v = at$ is dimensionally correct because we have the same dimensions on both sides. (If the expression were given as $v = at^2$, it would be dimensionally *incorrect*. Try it and see!)

Example 1.2 Analysis of a Power Law

Suppose we are told that the acceleration a of a particle moving with uniform speed v in a circle of radius r is proportional to some power of r , say r^n , and some power of v , say v^m . Determine the values of n and m and write the simplest form of an equation for the acceleration.

SOLUTION

Write an expression for a with a dimensionless constant of proportionality k :

$$a = kr^n v^m$$

Substitute the dimensions of a , r , and v :

$$\frac{\text{L}}{\text{T}^2} = \text{L}^n \left(\frac{\text{L}}{\text{T}} \right)^m = \frac{\text{L}^{n+m}}{\text{T}^m}$$

Equate the exponents of L and T so that the dimensional equation is balanced:

$$n + m = 1 \text{ and } m = 2$$

Solve the two equations for n :

$$n = -1$$

Write the acceleration expression:

$$a = kr^{-1} v^2 = k \frac{v^2}{r}$$

In Section 4.4 on uniform circular motion, we show that $k = 1$ if a consistent set of units is used. The constant k would not equal 1 if, for example, v were in km/h and you wanted a in m/s^2 .

1.4 Conversion of Units

Sometimes it is necessary to convert units from one measurement system to another or convert within a system (for example, from kilometers to meters). Conversion factors between SI and U.S. customary units of length are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \text{ mile} &= 1609 \text{ m} = 1.609 \text{ km} & 1 \text{ ft} &= 0.3048 \text{ m} = 30.48 \text{ cm} \\ 1 \text{ m} &= 39.37 \text{ in.} = 3.281 \text{ ft} & 1 \text{ in.} &= 0.0254 \text{ m} = 2.54 \text{ cm (exactly)} \end{aligned}$$

A more complete list of conversion factors can be found in Appendix A.

Like dimensions, units can be treated as algebraic quantities that can cancel each other. For example, suppose we wish to convert 15.0 in. to centimeters. Because 1 in. is defined as exactly 2.54 cm, we find that

$$15.0 \text{ in.} = (15.0 \text{ in.}) \left(\frac{2.54 \text{ cm}}{1 \text{ in.}} \right) = 38.1 \text{ cm}$$

where the ratio in parentheses is equal to 1. We express 1 as 2.54 cm/1 in. (rather than 1 in./2.54 cm) so that the unit “inch” in the denominator cancels with the unit in the original quantity. The remaining unit is the centimeter, our desired result.

Pitfall Prevention 1.3

Always Include Units When performing calculations with numerical values, include the units for every quantity and carry the units through the entire calculation. Avoid the temptation to drop the units early and then attach the expected units once you have an answer. By including the units in every step, you can detect errors if the units for the answer turn out to be incorrect.

- Quick Quiz 1.3** The distance between two cities is 100 mi. What is the number of kilometers between the two cities? (a) smaller than 100 (b) larger than 100 (c) equal to 100

Example 1.3 Is He Speeding?

On an interstate highway in a rural region of Wyoming, a car is traveling at a speed of 38.0 m/s. Is the driver exceeding the speed limit of 75.0 mi/h?

SOLUTION

Convert meters in the speed to miles:

$$(38.0 \text{ m/s}) \left(\frac{1 \text{ mi}}{1609 \text{ m}} \right) = 2.36 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mi/s}$$

Convert seconds to hours:

$$(2.36 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mi/s}) \left(\frac{60 \text{ s}}{1 \text{ min}} \right) \left(\frac{60 \text{ min}}{1 \text{ h}} \right) = 85.0 \text{ mi/h}$$

The driver is indeed exceeding the speed limit and should slow down.

WHAT IF? What if the driver were from outside the United States and is familiar with speeds measured in kilometers per hour? What is the speed of the car in km/h?

Answer We can convert our final answer to the appropriate units:

$$(85.0 \text{ mi/h}) \left(\frac{1.609 \text{ km}}{1 \text{ mi}} \right) = 137 \text{ km/h}$$

Figure 1.3 shows an automobile speedometer displaying speeds in both mi/h and km/h. Can you check the conversion we just performed using this photograph?



Figure 1.3 The speedometer of a vehicle that shows speeds in both miles per hour and kilometers per hour.

1.5 Estimates and Order-of-Magnitude Calculations

Suppose someone asks you the number of bits of data on a typical musical compact disc. In response, it is not generally expected that you would provide the exact number but rather an estimate, which may be expressed in scientific notation. The estimate may be made even more approximate by expressing it as an *order of magnitude*, which is a power of ten determined as follows:

1. Express the number in scientific notation, with the multiplier of the power of ten between 1 and 10 and a unit.
2. If the multiplier is less than 3.162 (the square root of 10), the order of magnitude of the number is the power of 10 in the scientific notation. If the multiplier is greater than 3.162, the order of magnitude is one larger than the power of 10 in the scientific notation.

We use the symbol \sim for “is on the order of.” Use the procedure above to verify the orders of magnitude for the following lengths:

$$0.0086 \text{ m} \sim 10^{-2} \text{ m} \quad 0.0021 \text{ m} \sim 10^{-3} \text{ m} \quad 720 \text{ m} \sim 10^3 \text{ m}$$

Usually, when an order-of-magnitude estimate is made, the results are reliable to within about a factor of 10. If a quantity increases in value by three orders of magnitude, its value increases by a factor of about $10^3 = 1\,000$.

Inaccuracies caused by guessing too low for one number are often canceled by other guesses that are too high. You will find that with practice your guesstimates become better and better. Estimation problems can be fun to work because you freely drop digits, venture reasonable approximations for unknown numbers, make simplifying assumptions, and turn the question around into something you can answer in your head or with minimal mathematical manipulation on paper. Because of the simplicity of these types of calculations, they can be performed on a *small* scrap of paper and are often called “back-of-the-envelope calculations.”

Example 1.4 Breaths in a Lifetime

Estimate the number of breaths taken during an average human lifetime.

SOLUTION

We start by guessing that the typical human lifetime is about 70 years. Think about the average number of breaths that a person takes in 1 min. This number varies depending on whether the person is exercising, sleeping, angry, serene, and so forth. To the nearest order of magnitude, we shall choose 10 breaths per minute as our estimate. (This estimate is certainly closer to the true average value than an estimate of 1 breath per minute or 100 breaths per minute.)

Find the approximate number of minutes in a year:

$$1 \text{ yr} \left(\frac{400 \text{ days}}{1 \text{ yr}} \right) \left(\frac{25 \text{ h}}{1 \text{ day}} \right) \left(\frac{60 \text{ min}}{1 \text{ h}} \right) = 6 \times 10^5 \text{ min}$$

Find the approximate number of minutes in a 70-year lifetime:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{number of minutes} &= (70 \text{ yr})(6 \times 10^5 \text{ min/yr}) \\ &= 4 \times 10^7 \text{ min} \end{aligned}$$

Find the approximate number of breaths in a lifetime:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{number of breaths} &= (10 \text{ breaths/min})(4 \times 10^7 \text{ min}) \\ &= 4 \times 10^8 \text{ breaths} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, a person takes on the order of 10^9 breaths in a lifetime. Notice how much simpler it is in the first calculation above to multiply 400×25 than it is to work with the more accurate 365×24 .

WHAT IF? What if the average lifetime were estimated as 80 years instead of 70? Would that change our final estimate?

Answer We could claim that $(80 \text{ yr})(6 \times 10^5 \text{ min/yr}) = 5 \times 10^7 \text{ min}$, so our final estimate should be 5×10^8 breaths. This answer is still on the order of 10^9 breaths, so an order-of-magnitude estimate would be unchanged.

1.6 Significant Figures

When certain quantities are measured, the measured values are known only to within the limits of the experimental uncertainty. The value of this uncertainty can depend on various factors, such as the quality of the apparatus, the skill of the experimenter, and the number of measurements performed. The number of **significant figures** in a measurement can be used to express something about the uncertainty. The number of significant figures is related to the number of numerical digits used to express the measurement, as we discuss below.

As an example of significant figures, suppose we are asked to measure the radius of a compact disc using a meterstick as a measuring instrument. Let us assume the accuracy to which we can measure the radius of the disc is ± 0.1 cm. Because of the uncertainty of ± 0.1 cm, if the radius is measured to be 6.0 cm, we can claim only that its radius lies somewhere between 5.9 cm and 6.1 cm. In this case, we say that the measured value of 6.0 cm has two significant figures. Note that *the*

significant figures include the first estimated digit. Therefore, we could write the radius as (6.0 ± 0.1) cm.

Zeros may or may not be significant figures. Those used to position the decimal point in such numbers as 0.03 and 0.007 5 are not significant. Therefore, there are one and two significant figures, respectively, in these two values. When the zeros come after other digits, however, there is the possibility of misinterpretation. For example, suppose the mass of an object is given as 1 500 g. This value is ambiguous because we do not know whether the last two zeros are being used to locate the decimal point or whether they represent significant figures in the measurement. To remove this ambiguity, it is common to use scientific notation to indicate the number of significant figures. In this case, we would express the mass as 1.5×10^3 g if there are two significant figures in the measured value, 1.50×10^3 g if there are three significant figures, and 1.500×10^3 g if there are four. The same rule holds for numbers less than 1, so 2.3×10^{-4} has two significant figures (and therefore could be written 0.000 23) and 2.30×10^{-4} has three significant figures (also written as 0.000 230).

In problem solving, we often combine quantities mathematically through multiplication, division, addition, subtraction, and so forth. When doing so, you must make sure that the result has the appropriate number of significant figures. A good rule of thumb to use in determining the number of significant figures that can be claimed in a multiplication or a division is as follows:

When multiplying several quantities, the number of significant figures in the final answer is the same as the number of significant figures in the quantity having the smallest number of significant figures. The same rule applies to division.

Let's apply this rule to find the area of the compact disc whose radius we measured above. Using the equation for the area of a circle,

$$A = \pi r^2 = \pi(6.0 \text{ cm})^2 = 1.1 \times 10^2 \text{ cm}^2$$

If you perform this calculation on your calculator, you will likely see 113.097 335 5. It should be clear that you don't want to keep all of these digits, but you might be tempted to report the result as 113 cm². This result is not justified because it has three significant figures, whereas the radius only has two. Therefore, we must report the result with only two significant figures as shown above.

For addition and subtraction, you must consider the number of decimal places when you are determining how many significant figures to report:

When numbers are added or subtracted, the number of decimal places in the result should equal the smallest number of decimal places of any term in the sum or difference.

Pitfall Prevention 1.4

Read Carefully Notice that the rule for addition and subtraction is different from that for multiplication and division. For addition and subtraction, the important consideration is the number of *decimal places*, not the number of *significant figures*.

As an example of this rule, consider the sum

$$23.2 + 5.174 = 28.4$$

Notice that we do not report the answer as 28.374 because the lowest number of decimal places is one, for 23.2. Therefore, our answer must have only one decimal place.

The rule for addition and subtraction can often result in answers that have a different number of significant figures than the quantities with which you start. For example, consider these operations that satisfy the rule:

$$1.000 1 + 0.000 3 = 1.000 4$$

$$1.002 - 0.998 = 0.004$$

In the first example, the result has five significant figures even though one of the terms, 0.000 3, has only one significant figure. Similarly, in the second calculation, the result has only one significant figure even though the numbers being subtracted have four and three, respectively.

In this book, most of the numerical examples and end-of-chapter problems will yield answers having three significant figures. When carrying out estimation calculations, we shall typically work with a single significant figure.

If the number of significant figures in the result of a calculation must be reduced, there is a general rule for rounding numbers: the last digit retained is increased by 1 if the last digit dropped is greater than 5. (For example, 1.346 becomes 1.35.) If the last digit dropped is less than 5, the last digit retained remains as it is. (For example, 1.343 becomes 1.34.) If the last digit dropped is equal to 5, the remaining digit should be rounded to the nearest even number. (This rule helps avoid accumulation of errors in long arithmetic processes.)

A technique for avoiding error accumulation is to delay the rounding of numbers in a long calculation until you have the final result. Wait until you are ready to copy the final answer from your calculator before rounding to the correct number of significant figures. In this book, we display numerical values rounded off to two or three significant figures. This occasionally makes some mathematical manipulations look odd or incorrect. For instance, looking ahead to Example 3.5 on page 69, you will see the operation $-17.7 \text{ km} + 34.6 \text{ km} = 17.0 \text{ km}$. This looks like an incorrect subtraction, but that is only because we have rounded the numbers 17.7 km and 34.6 km for display. If all digits in these two intermediate numbers are retained and the rounding is only performed on the final number, the correct three-digit result of 17.0 km is obtained.

Example 1.5 Installing a Carpet

A carpet is to be installed in a rectangular room whose length is measured to be 12.71 m and whose width is measured to be 3.46 m. Find the area of the room.

SOLUTION

If you multiply 12.71 m by 3.46 m on your calculator, you will see an answer of 43.976 6 m². How many of these numbers should you claim? Our rule of thumb for multiplication tells us that you can claim only the number of significant figures in your answer as are present in the measured quantity having the lowest number of significant figures. In this example, the lowest number of significant figures is three in 3.46 m, so we should express our final answer as 44.0 m².

Significant figure guidelines used in this book

Pitfall Prevention 1.5

Symbolic Solutions When solving problems, it is very useful to perform the solution completely in algebraic form and wait until the very end to enter numerical values into the final symbolic expression. This method will save many calculator keystrokes, especially if some quantities cancel so that you never have to enter their values into your calculator! In addition, you will only need to round once, on the final result.

Summary

Definitions

The three fundamental physical quantities of mechanics are **length**, **mass**, and **time**, which in the SI system have the units **meter** (m), **kilogram** (kg), and **second** (s), respectively. These fundamental quantities cannot be defined in terms of more basic quantities.

The **density** of a substance is defined as its *mass per unit volume*:

$$\rho \equiv \frac{m}{V} \quad (1.1)$$

continued

Concepts and Principles

The method of **dimensional analysis** is very powerful in solving physics problems. Dimensions can be treated as algebraic quantities. By making estimates and performing order-of-magnitude calculations, you should be able to approximate the answer to a problem when there is not enough information available to specify an exact solution completely.

When you compute a result from several measured numbers, each of which has a certain accuracy, you should give the result with the correct number of **significant figures**.

When **multiplying** several quantities, the number of significant figures in the final answer is the same as the number of significant figures in the quantity having the smallest number of significant figures. The same rule applies to **division**.

When numbers are **added** or **subtracted**, the number of decimal places in the result should equal the smallest number of decimal places of any term in the sum or difference.

Objective Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

- One student uses a meterstick to measure the thickness of a textbook and obtains $4.3 \text{ cm} \pm 0.1 \text{ cm}$. Other students measure the thickness with vernier calipers and obtain four different measurements: (a) $4.32 \text{ cm} \pm 0.01 \text{ cm}$, (b) $4.31 \text{ cm} \pm 0.01 \text{ cm}$, (c) $4.24 \text{ cm} \pm 0.01 \text{ cm}$, and (d) $4.43 \text{ cm} \pm 0.01 \text{ cm}$. Which of these four measurements, if any, agree with that obtained by the first student?
- A house is advertised as having 1 420 square feet under its roof. What is its area in square meters? (a) $4\,660 \text{ m}^2$ (b) 432 m^2 (c) 158 m^2 (d) 132 m^2 (e) 40.2 m^2
- Answer each question yes or no. Must two quantities have the same dimensions (a) if you are adding them? (b) If you are multiplying them? (c) If you are subtracting them? (d) If you are dividing them? (e) If you are equating them?
- The price of gasoline at a particular station is 1.5 euros per liter. An American student can use 33 euros to buy gasoline. Knowing that 4 quarts make a gallon and that 1 liter is close to 1 quart, she quickly reasons that she can buy how many gallons of gasoline? (a) less than 1 gallon (b) about 5 gallons (c) about 8 gallons (d) more than 10 gallons
- Rank the following five quantities in order from the largest to the smallest. If two of the quantities are equal, give them equal rank in your list. (a) 0.032 kg (b) 15 g (c) $2.7 \times 10^5 \text{ mg}$ (d) $4.1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ Gg}$ (e) $2.7 \times 10^8 \mu\text{g}$
- What is the sum of the measured values $21.4 \text{ s} + 15 \text{ s} + 17.17 \text{ s} + 4.00 \text{ s}$? (a) 57.573 s (b) 57.57 s (c) 57.6 s (d) 58 s (e) 60 s
- Which of the following is the best estimate for the mass of all the people living on the Earth? (a) $2 \times 10^8 \text{ kg}$ (b) $1 \times 10^9 \text{ kg}$ (c) $2 \times 10^{10} \text{ kg}$ (d) $3 \times 10^{11} \text{ kg}$ (e) $4 \times 10^{12} \text{ kg}$
- (a) If an equation is dimensionally correct, does that mean that the equation must be true? (b) If an equation is not dimensionally correct, does that mean that the equation cannot be true?
- Newton's second law of motion (Chapter 5) says that the mass of an object times its acceleration is equal to the net force on the object. Which of the following gives the correct units for force? (a) $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}/\text{s}^2$ (b) $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}^2$ (c) $\text{kg}/\text{m} \cdot \text{s}^2$ (d) $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}$ (e) none of those answers
- A calculator displays a result as $1.365\,248\,0 \times 10^7 \text{ kg}$. The estimated uncertainty in the result is $\pm 2\%$. How many digits should be included as significant when the result is written down? (a) zero (b) one (c) two (d) three (e) four

Conceptual Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

- Suppose the three fundamental standards of the metric system were length, *density*, and time rather than length, *mass*, and time. The standard of density in this system is to be defined as that of water. What considerations about water would you need to address to make sure that the standard of density is as accurate as possible?
- Why is the metric system of units considered superior to most other systems of units?
- What natural phenomena could serve as alternative time standards?
- Express the following quantities using the prefixes given in Table 1.4. (a) $3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}$ (b) $5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}$ (c) $72 \times 10^2 \text{ g}$

Problems

WebAssign The problems found in this chapter may be assigned online in Enhanced WebAssign

1. straightforward; 2. intermediate; 3. challenging

1. full solution available in the *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

AMT Analysis Model tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

GP Guided Problem

M Master It tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

W Watch It video solution available in Enhanced WebAssign

Section 1.1 Standards of Length, Mass, and Time

Note: Consult the endpapers, appendices, and tables in the text whenever necessary in solving problems. For this chapter, Table 14.1 and Appendix B.3 may be particularly useful. Answers to odd-numbered problems appear in the back of the book.

- (a) Use information on the endpapers of this book to calculate the average density of the Earth. (b) Where does the value fit among those listed in Table 14.1 in Chapter 14? Look up the density of a typical surface rock like granite in another source and compare it with the density of the Earth.
- The standard kilogram (Fig. 1.1a) is a platinum–iridium cylinder 39.0 mm in height and 39.0 mm in diameter. What is the density of the material?
- An automobile company displays a die-cast model of its first car, made from 9.35 kg of iron. To celebrate its hundredth year in business, a worker will recast the model in solid gold from the original dies. What mass of gold is needed to make the new model?
- A proton, which is the nucleus of a hydrogen atom, can be modeled as a sphere with a diameter of 2.4 fm and a mass of 1.67×10^{-27} kg. (a) Determine the density of the proton. (b) State how your answer to part (a) compares with the density of osmium, given in Table 14.1 in Chapter 14.
- Two spheres are cut from a certain uniform rock. One has radius 4.50 cm. The mass of the other is five times greater. Find its radius.
- What mass of a material with density ρ is required to make a hollow spherical shell having inner radius r_1 and outer radius r_2 ?

Section 1.2 Matter and Model Building

- A crystalline solid consists of atoms stacked up in a repeating lattice structure. Consider a crystal as shown in Figure P1.7a. The atoms reside at the corners of cubes of side $L = 0.200$ nm. One piece of evidence for the regular arrangement of atoms comes from the flat surfaces along which a crystal separates, or cleaves, when it is broken. Suppose this crystal cleaves along a face diagonal as shown in Figure P1.7b. Calculate the spacing d between two adjacent atomic planes that separate when the crystal cleaves.

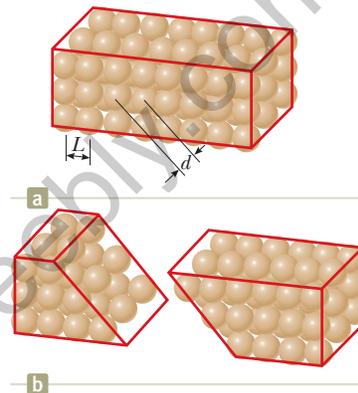


Figure P1.7

- The mass of a copper atom is 1.06×10^{-25} kg, and the density of copper is $8\,920$ kg/m³. (a) Determine the number of atoms in 1 cm³ of copper. (b) Visualize the one cubic centimeter as formed by stacking up identical cubes, with one copper atom at the center of each. Determine the volume of each cube. (c) Find the edge dimension of each cube, which represents an estimate for the spacing between atoms.

Section 1.3 Dimensional Analysis

- Which of the following equations are dimensionally correct? (a) $v_f = v_i + ax$ (b) $y = (2 \text{ m}) \cos(kx)$, where $k = 2 \text{ m}^{-1}$

- Figure P1.10 shows a frustum of a cone. Match each of the expressions

- $\pi(r_1 + r_2)[h^2 + (r_2 - r_1)^2]^{1/2}$,
- $2\pi(r_1 + r_2)$, and
- $\pi h(r_1^2 + r_1 r_2 + r_2^2)/3$

with the quantity it describes: (d) the total circumference of the flat circular faces, (e) the volume, or (f) the area of the curved surface.

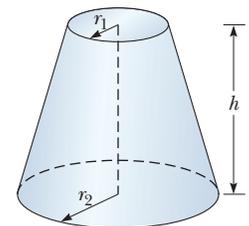


Figure P1.10

- Kinetic energy K (Chapter 7) has dimensions $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}^2$. It can be written in terms of the momentum p (Chapter 9) and mass m as

$$K = \frac{p^2}{2m}$$

(a) Determine the proper units for momentum using dimensional analysis. (b) The unit of force is the newton N, where $1 \text{ N} = 1 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}/\text{s}^2$. What are the units of momentum p in terms of a newton and another fundamental SI unit?

12. Newton's law of universal gravitation is represented by

$$F = \frac{GMm}{r^2}$$

where F is the magnitude of the gravitational force exerted by one small object on another, M and m are the masses of the objects, and r is a distance. Force has the SI units $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}/\text{s}^2$. What are the SI units of the proportionality constant G ?

13. The position of a particle moving under uniform acceleration is some function of time and the acceleration. Suppose we write this position as $x = ka^m t^n$, where k is a dimensionless constant. Show by dimensional analysis that this expression is satisfied if $m = 1$ and $n = 2$. Can this analysis give the value of k ?
14. (a) Assume the equation $x = At^3 + Bt$ describes the motion of a particular object, with x having the dimension of length and t having the dimension of time. Determine the dimensions of the constants A and B . (b) Determine the dimensions of the derivative $dx/dt = 3At^2 + B$.

Section 1.4 Conversion of Units

15. A solid piece of lead has a mass of 23.94 g and a volume of 2.10 cm³. From these data, calculate the density of lead in SI units (kilograms per cubic meter).
16. An ore loader moves 1 200 tons/h from a mine to the surface. Convert this rate to pounds per second, using 1 ton = 2 000 lb.
17. A rectangular building lot has a width of 75.0 ft and a length of 125 ft. Determine the area of this lot in square meters.
18. Suppose your hair grows at the rate 1/32 in. per day. Find the rate at which it grows in nanometers per second. Because the distance between atoms in a molecule is on the order of 0.1 nm, your answer suggests how rapidly layers of atoms are assembled in this protein synthesis.
19. Why is the following situation impossible? A student's dormitory room measures 3.8 m by 3.6 m, and its ceiling is 2.5 m high. After the student completes his physics course, he displays his dedication by completely wall-papering the walls of the room with the pages from his copy of volume 1 (Chapters 1–22) of this textbook. He even covers the door and window.
20. A pyramid has a height of 481 ft, and its base covers an area of 13.0 acres (Fig. P1.20). The volume of a pyramid is given by the expression $V = \frac{1}{3}Bh$, where B is the area of the base and h is the height. Find the volume of this pyramid in cubic meters. (1 acre = 43 560 ft²)
21. The pyramid described in Problem 20 contains approximately 2 million stone blocks that average 2.50 tons each. Find the weight of this pyramid in pounds.



Figure P1.20 Problems 20 and 21.

22. Assume it takes 7.00 min to fill a 30.0-gal gasoline tank. (a) Calculate the rate at which the tank is filled in gallons per second. (b) Calculate the rate at which the tank is filled in cubic meters per second. (c) Determine the time interval, in hours, required to fill a 1.00-m³ volume at the same rate. (1 U.S. gal = 231 in.³)
23. A section of land has an area of 1 square mile and contains 640 acres. Determine the number of square meters in 1 acre.
24. A house is 50.0 ft long and 26 ft wide and has 8.0-ft-high ceilings. What is the volume of the interior of the house in cubic meters and in cubic centimeters?
25. One cubic meter (1.00 m³) of aluminum has a mass of 2.70×10^3 kg, and the same volume of iron has a mass of 7.86×10^3 kg. Find the radius of a solid aluminum sphere that will balance a solid iron sphere of radius 2.00 cm on an equal-arm balance.
26. Let ρ_{Al} represent the density of aluminum and ρ_{Fe} that of iron. Find the radius of a solid aluminum sphere that balances a solid iron sphere of radius r_{Fe} on an equal-arm balance.
27. One gallon of paint (volume = 3.78×10^{-3} m³) covers an area of 25.0 m². What is the thickness of the fresh paint on the wall?
28. An auditorium measures 40.0 m \times 20.0 m \times 12.0 m. The density of air is 1.20 kg/m³. What are (a) the volume of the room in cubic feet and (b) the weight of air in the room in pounds?
29. (a) At the time of this book's printing, the U.S. national debt is about \$16 trillion. If payments were made at the rate of \$1 000 per second, how many years would it take to pay off the debt, assuming no interest were charged? (b) A dollar bill is about 15.5 cm long. How many dollar bills attached end to end would it take to reach the Moon? The front endpapers give the Earth–Moon distance. Note: Before doing these calculations, try to guess at the answers. You may be very surprised.
30. A hydrogen atom has a diameter of 1.06×10^{-10} m. The nucleus of the hydrogen atom has a diameter of approximately 2.40×10^{-15} m. (a) For a scale model, represent the diameter of the hydrogen atom by the playing length of an American football field (100 yards = 300 ft) and determine the diameter of the nucleus in millimeters. (b) Find the ratio of the volume of the hydrogen atom to the volume of its nucleus.

Section 1.5 Estimates and Order-of-Magnitude Calculations

Note: In your solutions to Problems 31 through 34, state the quantities you measure or estimate and the values you take for them.

31. Find the order of magnitude of the number of table-tennis balls that would fit into a typical-size room (without being crushed).
32. (a) Compute the order of magnitude of the mass of a bathtub half full of water. (b) Compute the order of magnitude of the mass of a bathtub half full of copper coins.
33. To an order of magnitude, how many piano tuners reside in New York City? The physicist Enrico Fermi was famous for asking questions like this one on oral Ph.D. qualifying examinations.
34. An automobile tire is rated to last for 50 000 miles. To an order of magnitude, through how many revolutions will it turn over its lifetime?

Section 1.6 Significant Figures

Note: Appendix B.8 on propagation of uncertainty may be useful in solving some problems in this section.

35. A rectangular plate has a length of (21.3 ± 0.2) cm and a width of (9.8 ± 0.1) cm. Calculate the area of the plate, including its uncertainty.
36. How many significant figures are in the following numbers? (a) 78.9 ± 0.2 (b) 3.788×10^9 (c) 2.46×10^{-6} (d) 0.005 3
37. The *tropical year*, the time interval from one vernal equinox to the next vernal equinox, is the basis for our calendar. It contains 365.242 199 days. Find the number of seconds in a tropical year.
38. Carry out the arithmetic operations (a) the sum of the measured values 756, 37.2, 0.83, and 2; (b) the product $0.003 2 \times 356.3$; and (c) the product $5.620 \times \pi$.

Note: The next 13 problems call on mathematical skills from your prior education that will be useful throughout this course.

39. **Review.** In a community college parking lot, the number of ordinary cars is larger than the number of sport utility vehicles by 94.7%. The difference between the number of cars and the number of SUVs is 18. Find the number of SUVs in the lot.
40. **Review.** While you are on a trip to Europe, you must purchase hazelnut chocolate bars for your grandmother. Eating just one square each day, she makes each large bar last for one and one-third months. How many bars will constitute a year's supply for her?
41. **Review.** A child is surprised that because of sales tax she must pay \$1.36 for a toy marked \$1.25. What is the effective tax rate on this purchase, expressed as a percentage?
42. **Review.** The average density of the planet Uranus is 1.27×10^3 kg/m³. The ratio of the mass of Neptune to

that of Uranus is 1.19. The ratio of the radius of Neptune to that of Uranus is 0.969. Find the average density of Neptune.

43. **Review.** The ratio of the number of sparrows visiting a bird feeder to the number of more interesting birds is 2.25. On a morning when altogether 91 birds visit the feeder, what is the number of sparrows?
44. **Review.** Find every angle θ between 0 and 360° for which the ratio of $\sin \theta$ to $\cos \theta$ is -3.00 .
45. **Review.** For the right triangle shown in Figure P1.45, what are (a) the length of the unknown side, (b) the tangent of θ , and (c) the sine of ϕ ?
46. **Review.** Prove that one solution of the equation

$$2.00x^4 - 3.00x^3 + 5.00x = 70.0$$

is $x = -2.22$.

47. **Review.** A pet lamb grows rapidly, with its mass proportional to the cube of its length. When the lamb's length changes by 15.8%, its mass increases by 17.3 kg. Find the lamb's mass at the end of this process.
48. **Review.** A highway curve forms a section of a circle. A car goes around the curve as shown in the helicopter view of Figure P1.48. Its dashboard compass shows that the car is initially heading due east. After it travels $d = 840$ m, it is heading $\theta = 35.0^\circ$ south of east. Find the radius of curvature of its path. *Suggestion:* You may find it useful to learn a geometric theorem stated in Appendix B.3.

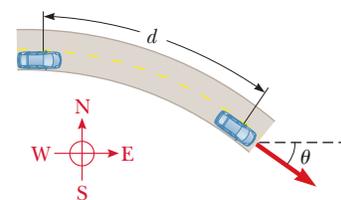


Figure P1.48

49. **Review.** From the set of equations

$$p = 3q$$

$$pr = qs$$

$$\frac{1}{2}pr^2 + \frac{1}{2}qs^2 = \frac{1}{2}qt^2$$

involving the unknowns p , q , r , s , and t , find the value of the ratio of t to r .

50. **Review.** Figure P1.50 on page 18 shows students studying the thermal conduction of energy into cylindrical blocks of ice. As we will see in Chapter 20, this process is described by the equation

$$\frac{Q}{\Delta t} = \frac{k\pi d^2(T_h - T_c)}{4L}$$

For experimental control, in one set of trials all quantities except d and Δt are constant. (a) If d is made three

times larger, does the equation predict that Δt will get larger or get smaller? By what factor? (b) What pattern of proportionality of Δt to d does the equation predict? (c) To display this proportionality as a straight line on a graph, what quantities should you plot on the horizontal and vertical axes? (d) What expression represents the theoretical slope of this graph?



Figure P1.50

51. **Review.** A student is supplied with a stack of copy paper, ruler, compass, scissors, and a sensitive balance. He cuts out various shapes in various sizes, calculates their areas, measures their masses, and prepares the graph of Figure P1.51. (a) Consider the fourth experimental point from the top. How far is it from the best-fit straight line? Express your answer as a difference in vertical-axis coordinate. (b) Express your answer as a percentage. (c) Calculate the slope of the line. (d) State what the graph demonstrates, referring to the shape of the graph and the results of parts (b) and (c). (e) Describe whether this result should be expected theoretically. (f) Describe the physical meaning of the slope.

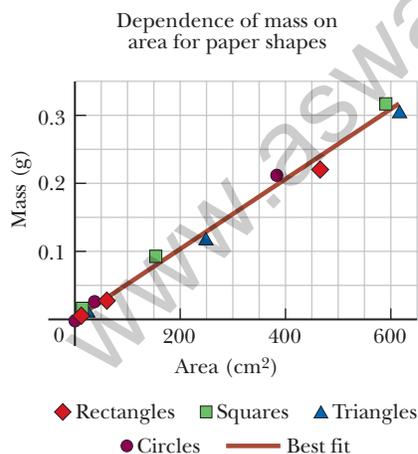


Figure P1.51

52. The radius of a uniform solid sphere is measured to be (6.50 ± 0.20) cm, and its mass is measured to be (1.85 ± 0.02) kg. Determine the density of the sphere in kilograms per cubic meter and the uncertainty in the density.
53. A sidewalk is to be constructed around a swimming pool that measures (10.0 ± 0.1) m by (17.0 ± 0.1) m.

If the sidewalk is to measure (1.00 ± 0.01) m wide by (9.0 ± 0.1) cm thick, what volume of concrete is needed and what is the approximate uncertainty of this volume?

Additional Problems

54. Collectible coins are sometimes plated with gold to enhance their beauty and value. Consider a commemorative quarter-dollar advertised for sale at \$4.98. It has a diameter of 24.1 mm and a thickness of 1.78 mm, and it is completely covered with a layer of pure gold $0.180 \mu\text{m}$ thick. The volume of the plating is equal to the thickness of the layer multiplied by the area to which it is applied. The patterns on the faces of the coin and the grooves on its edge have a negligible effect on its area. Assume the price of gold is \$25.0 per gram. (a) Find the cost of the gold added to the coin. (b) Does the cost of the gold significantly enhance the value of the coin? Explain your answer.
55. In a situation in which data are known to three significant digits, we write $6.379 \text{ m} = 6.38 \text{ m}$ and $6.374 \text{ m} = 6.37 \text{ m}$. When a number ends in 5, we arbitrarily choose to write $6.375 \text{ m} = 6.38 \text{ m}$. We could equally well write $6.375 \text{ m} = 6.37 \text{ m}$, “rounding down” instead of “rounding up,” because we would change the number 6.375 by equal increments in both cases. Now consider an order-of-magnitude estimate, in which factors of change rather than increments are important. We write $500 \text{ m} \sim 10^3 \text{ m}$ because 500 differs from 100 by a factor of 5 while it differs from 1 000 by only a factor of 2. We write $437 \text{ m} \sim 10^3 \text{ m}$ and $305 \text{ m} \sim 10^2 \text{ m}$. What distance differs from 100 m and from 1 000 m by equal factors so that we could equally well choose to represent its order of magnitude as $\sim 10^2 \text{ m}$ or as $\sim 10^3 \text{ m}$?
56. (a) What is the order of magnitude of the number of microorganisms in the human intestinal tract? A typical bacterial length scale is 10^{-6} m . Estimate the intestinal volume and assume 1% of it is occupied by bacteria. (b) Does the number of bacteria suggest whether the bacteria are beneficial, dangerous, or neutral for the human body? What functions could they serve?
57. The diameter of our disk-shaped galaxy, the Milky Way, is about 1.0×10^5 light-years (ly). The distance to the Andromeda galaxy (Fig. P1.57), which is the spiral galaxy nearest to the Milky Way, is about 2.0 million ly. If a scale model represents the Milky Way and Andromeda



Robert Gendler/NASA

Figure P1.57 The Andromeda galaxy.

galaxies as dinner plates 25 cm in diameter, determine the distance between the centers of the two plates.

58. Why is the following situation impossible? In an effort to boost interest in a television game show, each weekly winner is offered an additional \$1 million bonus prize if he or she can personally count out that exact amount from a supply of one-dollar bills. The winner must do this task under supervision by television show executives and within one 40-hour work week. To the dismay of the show's producers, most contestants succeed at the challenge.

59. A high fountain of water is located at the center of a circular pool as shown in Figure P1.59. A student walks around the pool and measures its circumference to be 15.0 m. Next, the student stands at the edge of the pool and uses a protractor to gauge the angle of elevation of the top of the fountain to be $\phi = 55.0^\circ$. How high is the fountain?



Figure P1.59
Problems 59 and 60.

60. A water fountain is at the center of a circular pool as shown in Figure P1.59. A student walks around the pool and measures its circumference C . Next, he stands at the edge of the pool and uses a protractor to measure the angle of elevation ϕ of his sightline to the top of the water jet. How high is the fountain?
61. The data in the following table represent measurements of the masses and dimensions of solid cylinders of aluminum, copper, brass, tin, and iron. (a) Use these data to calculate the densities of these substances. (b) State how your results compare with those given in Table 14.1.

| Substance | Mass (g) | Diameter (cm) | Length (cm) |
|-----------|----------|---------------|-------------|
| Aluminum | 51.5 | 2.52 | 3.75 |
| Copper | 56.3 | 1.23 | 5.06 |
| Brass | 94.4 | 1.54 | 5.69 |
| Tin | 69.1 | 1.75 | 3.74 |
| Iron | 216.1 | 1.89 | 9.77 |

62. The distance from the Sun to the nearest star is about 4×10^{16} m. The Milky Way galaxy (Fig. P1.62) is roughly



Richard Payne/NASA

Figure P1.62 The Milky Way galaxy.

a disk of diameter $\sim 10^{21}$ m and thickness $\sim 10^{19}$ m. Find the order of magnitude of the number of stars in the Milky Way. Assume the distance between the Sun and our nearest neighbor is typical.

63. Assume there are 100 million passenger cars in the United States and the average fuel efficiency is 20 mi/gal of gasoline. If the average distance traveled by each car is 10 000 mi/yr, how much gasoline would be saved per year if the average fuel efficiency could be increased to 25 mi/gal?

64. A spherical shell has an outside radius of 2.60 cm and an inside radius of a . The shell wall has uniform thickness and is made of a material with density 4.70 g/cm^3 . The space inside the shell is filled with a liquid having a density of 1.23 g/cm^3 . (a) Find the mass m of the sphere, including its contents, as a function of a . (b) For what value of the variable a does m have its maximum possible value? (c) What is this maximum mass? (d) Explain whether the value from part (c) agrees with the result of a direct calculation of the mass of a solid sphere of uniform density made of the same material as the shell. (e) **What If?** Would the answer to part (a) change if the inner wall were not concentric with the outer wall?

65. Bacteria and other prokaryotes are found deep underground, in water, and in the air. One micron (10^{-6} m) is a typical length scale associated with these microbes. (a) Estimate the total number of bacteria and other prokaryotes on the Earth. (b) Estimate the total mass of all such microbes.

66. Air is blown into a spherical balloon so that, when its radius is 6.50 cm, its radius is increasing at the rate 0.900 cm/s. (a) Find the rate at which the volume of the balloon is increasing. (b) If this volume flow rate of air entering the balloon is constant, at what rate will the radius be increasing when the radius is 13.0 cm? (c) Explain physically why the answer to part (b) is larger or smaller than 0.9 cm/s, if it is different.

67. A rod extending between $x = 0$ and $x = 14.0$ cm has uniform cross-sectional area $A = 9.00 \text{ cm}^2$. Its density increases steadily between its ends from 2.70 g/cm^3 to 19.3 g/cm^3 . (a) Identify the constants B and C required in the expression $\rho = B + Cx$ to describe the variable density. (b) The mass of the rod is given by

$$m = \int_{\text{all material}} \rho dV = \int_{\text{all } x} \rho A dx = \int_0^{14.0 \text{ cm}} (B + Cx)(9.00 \text{ cm}^2) dx$$

Carry out the integration to find the mass of the rod.

68. In physics, it is important to use mathematical approximations. (a) Demonstrate that for small angles ($< 20^\circ$)

$$\tan \alpha \approx \sin \alpha \approx \alpha = \frac{\pi \alpha'}{180^\circ}$$

where α is in radians and α' is in degrees. (b) Use a calculator to find the largest angle for which $\tan \alpha$ may be approximated by α with an error less than 10.0%.

69. The consumption of natural gas by a company satisfies the empirical equation $V = 1.50t + 0.008 00t^2$, where V

is the volume of gas in millions of cubic feet and t is the time in months. Express this equation in units of cubic feet and seconds. Assume a month is 30.0 days.

- 70.** A woman wishing to know the height of a mountain measures the angle of elevation of the mountaintop as 12.0° . After walking 1.00 km closer to the mountain on level ground, she finds the angle to be 14.0° . (a) Draw a picture of the problem, neglecting the height of the woman's eyes above the ground. *Hint:* Use two triangles. (b) Using the symbol y to represent the mountain height and the symbol x to represent the woman's original distance from the mountain, label the picture. (c) Using the labeled picture, write two trigonometric equations relating the two selected variables. (d) Find the height y .

- 71.** A child loves to watch as you fill a transparent plastic bottle with shampoo (Fig P1.71). Every horizontal cross section of the bottle is circular, but the diameters of the circles have different values. You pour the brightly colored shampoo into the bottle at a constant rate of $16.5 \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$. At what rate is its level in the bottle rising (a) at a point where the diameter of the bottle is 6.30 cm and (b) at a point where the diameter is 1.35 cm?

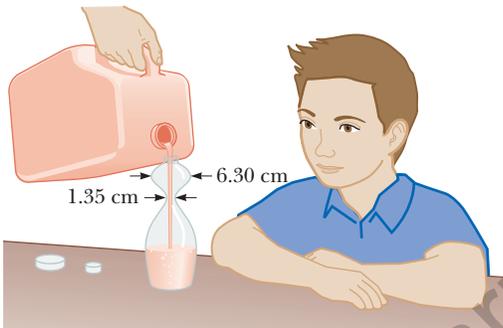


Figure P1.71

Challenge Problems

- 72.** A woman stands at a horizontal distance x from a mountain and measures the angle of elevation of the mountaintop above the horizontal as θ . After walking a distance d closer to the mountain on level ground, she finds the angle to be ϕ . Find a general equation for the height y of the mountain in terms of d , ϕ , and θ , neglecting the height of her eyes above the ground.
- 73.** You stand in a flat meadow and observe two cows (Fig. P1.73). Cow A is due north of you and 15.0 m from your position. Cow B is 25.0 m from your position. From your point of view, the angle between cow A and cow B is 20.0° , with cow B appearing to the right of cow A. (a) How far apart are cow A and cow B? (b) Consider the view seen by cow A. According to this cow, what is the angle between you and cow B? (c) Consider the view seen by cow B. According to this cow, what is the angle between you and cow A? *Hint:* What does the situation look like to a hummingbird hovering above the meadow? (d) Two stars in the sky appear to be 20.0° apart. Star A is 15.0 ly from the Earth, and star B, appearing to the right of star A, is 25.0 ly from the Earth. To an inhabitant of a planet orbiting star A, what is the angle in the sky between star B and our Sun?

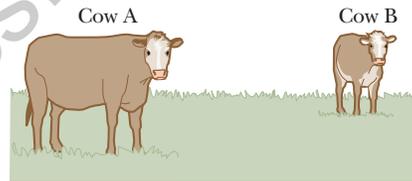


Figure P1.73 Your view of two cows in a meadow. Cow A is due north of you. You must rotate your eyes through an angle of 20.0° to look from cow A to cow B.

Motion in One Dimension

CHAPTER

2



- 2.1 Position, Velocity, and Speed
 - 2.2 Instantaneous Velocity and Speed
 - 2.3 Analysis Model: Particle Under Constant Velocity
 - 2.4 Acceleration
 - 2.5 Motion Diagrams
 - 2.6 Analysis Model: Particle Under Constant Acceleration
 - 2.7 Freely Falling Objects
 - 2.8 Kinematic Equations Derived from Calculus
- General Problem-Solving Strategy

As a first step in studying classical mechanics, we describe the motion of an object while ignoring the interactions with external agents that might be affecting or modifying that motion. This portion of classical mechanics is called *kinematics*. (The word *kinematics* has the same root as *cinema*.) In this chapter, we consider only motion in one dimension, that is, motion of an object along a straight line.

From everyday experience, we recognize that motion of an object represents a continuous change in the object's position. In physics, we can categorize motion into three types: translational, rotational, and vibrational. A car traveling on a highway is an example of translational motion, the Earth's spin on its axis is an example of rotational motion, and the back-and-forth movement of a pendulum is an example of vibrational motion. In this and the next few chapters, we are concerned only with translational motion. (Later in the book we shall discuss rotational and vibrational motions.)

In our study of translational motion, we use what is called the **particle model** and describe the moving object as a *particle* regardless of its size. Remember our discussion of making models for physical situations in Section 1.2. In general, **a particle is a point-like object, that is, an object that has mass but is of infinitesimal size**. For example, if we wish to describe the motion of the Earth around the Sun, we can treat the Earth as a particle and

In drag racing, a driver wants as large an acceleration as possible. In a distance of one-quarter mile, a vehicle reaches speeds of more than 320 mi/h, covering the entire distance in under 5 s. (George Lepp/Stone/Getty Images)

obtain reasonably accurate data about its orbit. This approximation is justified because the radius of the Earth's orbit is large compared with the dimensions of the Earth and the Sun. As an example on a much smaller scale, it is possible to explain the pressure exerted by a gas on the walls of a container by treating the gas molecules as particles, without regard for the internal structure of the molecules.

2.1 Position, Velocity, and Speed

Position ▶ A particle's **position** x is the location of the particle with respect to a chosen reference point that we can consider to be the origin of a coordinate system. The motion of a particle is completely known if the particle's position in space is known at all times.

Consider a car moving back and forth along the x axis as in Figure 2.1a. When we begin collecting position data, the car is 30 m to the right of the reference position $x = 0$. We will use the particle model by identifying some point on the car, perhaps the front door handle, as a particle representing the entire car.

We start our clock, and once every 10 s we note the car's position. As you can see from Table 2.1, the car moves to the right (which we have defined as the positive direction) during the first 10 s of motion, from position **A** to position **B**. After **B**, the position values begin to decrease, suggesting the car is backing up from position **B** through position **F**. In fact, at **D**, 30 s after we start measuring, the car is at the origin of coordinates (see Fig. 2.1a). It continues moving to the left and is more than 50 m to the left of $x = 0$ when we stop recording information after our sixth data point. A graphical representation of this information is presented in Figure 2.1b. Such a plot is called a *position–time graph*.

Notice the *alternative representations* of information that we have used for the motion of the car. Figure 2.1a is a *pictorial representation*, whereas Figure 2.1b is a *graphical representation*. Table 2.1 is a *tabular representation* of the same information. Using an alternative representation is often an excellent strategy for understanding the situation in a given problem. The ultimate goal in many problems is a *math-*

Table 2.1 Position of the Car at Various Times

| Position | t (s) | x (m) |
|----------|---------|---------|
| A | 0 | 30 |
| B | 10 | 52 |
| C | 20 | 38 |
| D | 30 | 0 |
| E | 40 | –37 |
| F | 50 | –53 |

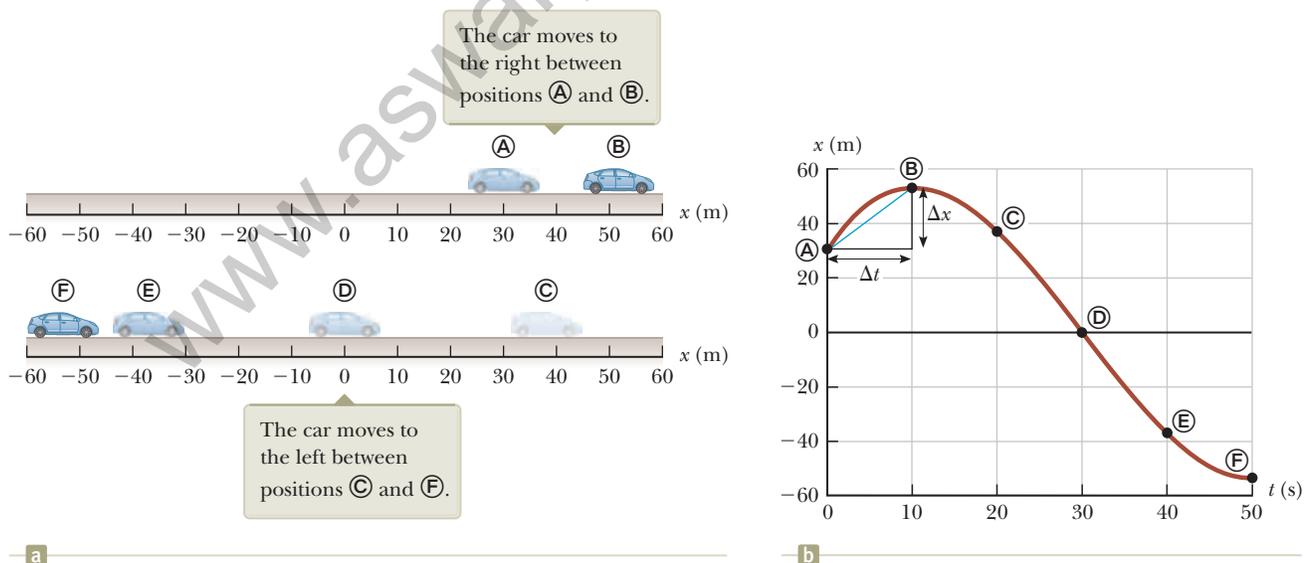


Figure 2.1 A car moves back and forth along a straight line. Because we are interested only in the car's translational motion, we can model it as a particle. Several representations of the information about the motion of the car can be used. Table 2.1 is a tabular representation of the information. (a) A pictorial representation of the motion of the car. (b) A graphical representation (position–time graph) of the motion of the car.

ematical representation, which can be analyzed to solve for some requested piece of information.

Given the data in Table 2.1, we can easily determine the change in position of the car for various time intervals. The **displacement** Δx of a particle is defined as its change in position in some time interval. As the particle moves from an initial position x_i to a final position x_f , its displacement is given by

$$\Delta x \equiv x_f - x_i \quad (2.1)$$

We use the capital Greek letter delta (Δ) to denote the *change* in a quantity. From this definition, we see that Δx is positive if x_f is greater than x_i and negative if x_f is less than x_i .

It is very important to recognize the difference between displacement and distance traveled. **Distance** is the length of a path followed by a particle. Consider, for example, the basketball players in Figure 2.2. If a player runs from his own team's basket down the court to the other team's basket and then returns to his own basket, the *displacement* of the player during this time interval is zero because he ended up at the same point as he started: $x_f = x_i$, so $\Delta x = 0$. During this time interval, however, he moved through a *distance* of twice the length of the basketball court. Distance is always represented as a positive number, whereas displacement can be either positive or negative.

Displacement is an example of a vector quantity. Many other physical quantities, including position, velocity, and acceleration, also are vectors. In general, a **vector quantity** requires the specification of both direction and magnitude. By contrast, a **scalar quantity** has a numerical value and no direction. In this chapter, we use positive (+) and negative (−) signs to indicate vector direction. For example, for horizontal motion let us arbitrarily specify to the right as being the positive direction. It follows that any object always moving to the right undergoes a positive displacement $\Delta x > 0$, and any object moving to the left undergoes a negative displacement so that $\Delta x < 0$. We shall treat vector quantities in greater detail in Chapter 3.

One very important point has not yet been mentioned. Notice that the data in Table 2.1 result only in the six data points in the graph in Figure 2.1b. Therefore, the motion of the particle is not completely known because we don't know its position at *all* times. The smooth curve drawn through the six points in the graph is only a *possibility* of the actual motion of the car. We only have information about six instants of time; we have no idea what happened between the data points. The smooth curve is a *guess* as to what happened, but keep in mind that it is *only* a guess. If the smooth curve does represent the actual motion of the car, the graph contains complete information about the entire 50-s interval during which we watch the car move.

It is much easier to see changes in position from the graph than from a verbal description or even a table of numbers. For example, it is clear that the car covers more ground during the middle of the 50-s interval than at the end. Between positions © and Ⓓ, the car travels almost 40 m, but during the last 10 s, between positions Ⓔ and Ⓕ, it moves less than half that far. A common way of comparing these different motions is to divide the displacement Δx that occurs between two clock readings by the value of that particular time interval Δt . The result turns out to be a very useful ratio, one that we shall use many times. This ratio has been given a special name: the *average velocity*. The **average velocity** $v_{x,\text{avg}}$ of a particle is defined as the particle's displacement Δx divided by the time interval Δt during which that displacement occurs:

$$v_{x,\text{avg}} \equiv \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \quad (2.2)$$

where the subscript x indicates motion along the x axis. From this definition we see that average velocity has dimensions of length divided by time (L/T), or meters per second in SI units.

◀ Displacement



Figure 2.2 On this basketball court, players run back and forth for the entire game. The distance that the players run over the duration of the game is nonzero. The displacement of the players over the duration of the game is approximately zero because they keep returning to the same point over and over again.

◀ Average velocity

The average velocity of a particle moving in one dimension can be positive or negative, depending on the sign of the displacement. (The time interval Δt is always positive.) If the coordinate of the particle increases in time (that is, if $x_f > x_i$), Δx is positive and $v_{x,\text{avg}} = \Delta x/\Delta t$ is positive. This case corresponds to a particle moving in the positive x direction, that is, toward larger values of x . If the coordinate decreases in time (that is, if $x_f < x_i$), Δx is negative and hence $v_{x,\text{avg}}$ is negative. This case corresponds to a particle moving in the negative x direction.

We can interpret average velocity geometrically by drawing a straight line between any two points on the position–time graph in Figure 2.1b. This line forms the hypotenuse of a right triangle of height Δx and base Δt . The slope of this line is the ratio $\Delta x/\Delta t$, which is what we have defined as average velocity in Equation 2.2. For example, the line between positions ④ and ⑤ in Figure 2.1b has a slope equal to the average velocity of the car between those two times, $(52 \text{ m} - 30 \text{ m})/(10 \text{ s} - 0) = 2.2 \text{ m/s}$.

In everyday usage, the terms *speed* and *velocity* are interchangeable. In physics, however, there is a clear distinction between these two quantities. Consider a marathon runner who runs a distance d of more than 40 km and yet ends up at her starting point. Her total displacement is zero, so her average velocity is zero! Nonetheless, we need to be able to quantify how fast she was running. A slightly different ratio accomplishes that for us. The **average speed** v_{avg} of a particle, a scalar quantity, is defined as the total distance d traveled divided by the total time interval required to travel that distance:

Average speed ►

$$v_{\text{avg}} \equiv \frac{d}{\Delta t}$$

(2.3)

Pitfall Prevention 2.1

Average Speed and Average Velocity

The magnitude of the average velocity is *not* the average speed. For example, consider the marathon runner discussed before Equation 2.3. The magnitude of her average velocity is zero, but her average speed is clearly not zero.

The SI unit of average speed is the same as the unit of average velocity: meters per second. Unlike average velocity, however, average speed has no direction and is always expressed as a positive number. Notice the clear distinction between the definitions of average velocity and average speed: average velocity (Eq. 2.2) is the *displacement* divided by the time interval, whereas average speed (Eq. 2.3) is the *distance* divided by the time interval.

Knowledge of the average velocity or average speed of a particle does not provide information about the details of the trip. For example, suppose it takes you 45.0 s to travel 100 m down a long, straight hallway toward your departure gate at an airport. At the 100-m mark, you realize you missed the restroom, and you return back 25.0 m along the same hallway, taking 10.0 s to make the return trip. The magnitude of your average *velocity* is $+75.0 \text{ m}/55.0 \text{ s} = +1.36 \text{ m/s}$. The average *speed* for your trip is $125 \text{ m}/55.0 \text{ s} = 2.27 \text{ m/s}$. You may have traveled at various speeds during the walk and, of course, you changed direction. Neither average velocity nor average speed provides information about these details.

- Quick Quiz 2.1** Under which of the following conditions is the magnitude of the average velocity of a particle moving in one dimension smaller than the average speed over some time interval? (a) A particle moves in the $+x$ direction without reversing. (b) A particle moves in the $-x$ direction without reversing. (c) A particle moves in the $+x$ direction and then reverses the direction of its motion.
- (d) There are no conditions for which this is true.

Example 2.1

Calculating the Average Velocity and Speed

Find the displacement, average velocity, and average speed of the car in Figure 2.1a between positions ④ and ⑤.

► 2.1 continued

SOLUTION

Consult Figure 2.1 to form a mental image of the car and its motion. We model the car as a particle. From the position–time graph given in Figure 2.1b, notice that $x_{\text{A}} = 30 \text{ m}$ at $t_{\text{A}} = 0 \text{ s}$ and that $x_{\text{E}} = -53 \text{ m}$ at $t_{\text{E}} = 50 \text{ s}$.

Use Equation 2.1 to find the displacement of the car: $\Delta x = x_{\text{E}} - x_{\text{A}} = -53 \text{ m} - 30 \text{ m} = -83 \text{ m}$

This result means that the car ends up 83 m in the negative direction (to the left, in this case) from where it started. This number has the correct units and is of the same order of magnitude as the supplied data. A quick look at Figure 2.1a indicates that it is the correct answer.

Use Equation 2.2 to find the car’s average velocity:

$$\begin{aligned} v_{x,\text{avg}} &= \frac{x_{\text{E}} - x_{\text{A}}}{t_{\text{E}} - t_{\text{A}}} \\ &= \frac{-53 \text{ m} - 30 \text{ m}}{50 \text{ s} - 0 \text{ s}} = \frac{-83 \text{ m}}{50 \text{ s}} = -1.7 \text{ m/s} \end{aligned}$$

We cannot unambiguously find the average speed of the car from the data in Table 2.1 because we do not have information about the positions of the car between the data points. If we adopt the assumption that the details of the car’s position are described by the curve in Figure 2.1b, the distance traveled is 22 m (from A to B) plus 105 m (from B to E), for a total of 127 m.

Use Equation 2.3 to find the car’s average speed:

$$v_{\text{avg}} = \frac{127 \text{ m}}{50 \text{ s}} = 2.5 \text{ m/s}$$

Notice that the average speed is positive, as it must be. Suppose the red-brown curve in Figure 2.1b were different so that between 0 s and 10 s it went from A up to 100 m and then came back down to B. The average speed of the car would change because the distance is different, but the average velocity would not change.

2.2 Instantaneous Velocity and Speed

Often we need to know the velocity of a particle at a particular instant in time t rather than the average velocity over a finite time interval Δt . In other words, you would like to be able to specify your velocity just as precisely as you can specify your position by noting what is happening at a specific clock reading, that is, at some specific instant. What does it mean to talk about how quickly something is moving if we “freeze time” and talk only about an individual instant? In the late 1600s, with the invention of calculus, scientists began to understand how to describe an object’s motion at any moment in time.

To see how that is done, consider Figure 2.3a (page 26), which is a reproduction of the graph in Figure 2.1b. What is the particle’s velocity at $t = 0$? We have already discussed the average velocity for the interval during which the car moved from position A to position B (given by the slope of the blue line) and for the interval during which it moved from A to E (represented by the slope of the longer blue line and calculated in Example 2.1). The car starts out by moving to the right, which we defined to be the positive direction. Therefore, being positive, the value of the average velocity during the interval from A to B is more representative of the initial velocity than is the value of the average velocity during the interval from A to E, which we determined to be negative in Example 2.1. Now let us focus on the short blue line and slide point B to the left along the curve, toward point A, as in Figure 2.3b. The line between the points becomes steeper and steeper, and as the two points become extremely close together, the line becomes a tangent line to the curve, indicated by the green line in Figure 2.3b. The slope of this tangent line

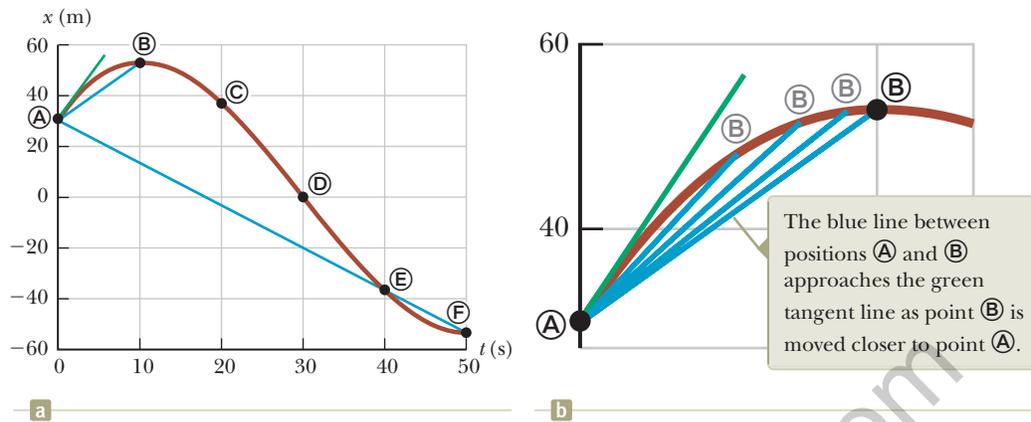


Figure 2.3 (a) Graph representing the motion of the car in Figure 2.1. (b) An enlargement of the upper-left-hand corner of the graph.

Pitfall Prevention 2.2

Slopes of Graphs In any graph of physical data, the *slope* represents the ratio of the change in the quantity represented on the vertical axis to the change in the quantity represented on the horizontal axis. Remember that a *slope has units* (unless both axes have the same units). The units of slope in Figures 2.1b and 2.3 are meters per second, the units of velocity.

Instantaneous velocity ►

Pitfall Prevention 2.3

Instantaneous Speed and Instantaneous Velocity In Pitfall Prevention 2.1, we argued that the magnitude of the average velocity is not the average speed. The magnitude of the instantaneous velocity, however, *is* the instantaneous speed. In an infinitesimal time interval, the magnitude of the displacement is equal to the distance traveled by the particle.

represents the velocity of the car at point **A**. What we have done is determine the *instantaneous velocity* at that moment. In other words, the **instantaneous velocity** v_x equals the limiting value of the ratio $\Delta x/\Delta t$ as Δt approaches zero:¹

$$v_x \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \quad (2.4)$$

In calculus notation, this limit is called the *derivative* of x with respect to t , written dx/dt :

$$v_x \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{dx}{dt} \quad (2.5)$$

The instantaneous velocity can be positive, negative, or zero. When the slope of the position–time graph is positive, such as at any time during the first 10 s in Figure 2.3, v_x is positive and the car is moving toward larger values of x . After point **B**, v_x is negative because the slope is negative and the car is moving toward smaller values of x . At point **B**, the slope and the instantaneous velocity are zero and the car is momentarily at rest.

From here on, we use the word *velocity* to designate instantaneous velocity. When we are interested in *average velocity*, we shall always use the adjective *average*.

The **instantaneous speed** of a particle is defined as the magnitude of its instantaneous velocity. As with average speed, instantaneous speed has no direction associated with it. For example, if one particle has an instantaneous velocity of +25 m/s along a given line and another particle has an instantaneous velocity of –25 m/s along the same line, both have a speed² of 25 m/s.

Quick Quiz 2.2 Are members of the highway patrol more interested in (a) your average speed or (b) your instantaneous speed as you drive?

Conceptual Example 2.2 The Velocity of Different Objects

Consider the following one-dimensional motions: **(A)** a ball thrown directly upward rises to a highest point and falls back into the thrower’s hand; **(B)** a race car starts from rest and speeds up to 100 m/s; and **(C)** a spacecraft drifts through space at constant velocity. Are there any points in the motion of these objects at which the instantaneous velocity has the same value as the average velocity over the entire motion? If so, identify the point(s).

¹Notice that the displacement Δx also approaches zero as Δt approaches zero, so the ratio looks like $0/0$. While this ratio may appear to be difficult to evaluate, the ratio does have a specific value. As Δx and Δt become smaller and smaller, the ratio $\Delta x/\Delta t$ approaches a value equal to the slope of the line tangent to the x -versus- t curve.

²As with velocity, we drop the adjective for instantaneous speed. *Speed* means “instantaneous speed.”

2.2 continued

SOLUTION

- (A) The average velocity for the thrown ball is zero because the ball returns to the starting point; therefore, its displacement is zero. There is one point at which the instantaneous velocity is zero: at the top of the motion.
- (B) The car's average velocity cannot be evaluated unambiguously with the information given, but it must have some value between 0 and 100 m/s. Because the car will have every instantaneous velocity between 0 and 100 m/s at some time during the interval, there must be some instant at which the instantaneous velocity is equal to the average velocity over the entire motion.
- (C) Because the spacecraft's instantaneous velocity is constant, its instantaneous velocity at *any* time and its average velocity over *any* time interval are the same.

Example 2.3 Average and Instantaneous Velocity

A particle moves along the x axis. Its position varies with time according to the expression $x = -4t + 2t^2$, where x is in meters and t is in seconds.³ The position–time graph for this motion is shown in Figure 2.4a. Because the position of the particle is given by a mathematical function, the motion of the particle is completely known, unlike that of the car in Figure 2.1. Notice that the particle moves in the negative x direction for the first second of motion, is momentarily at rest at the moment $t = 1$ s, and moves in the positive x direction at times $t > 1$ s.

- (A) Determine the displacement of the particle in the time intervals $t = 0$ to $t = 1$ s and $t = 1$ s to $t = 3$ s.

SOLUTION

From the graph in Figure 2.4a, form a mental representation of the particle's motion. Keep in mind that the particle does not move in a curved path in space such as that shown by the red-brown curve in the graphical representation. The particle moves only along the x axis in one dimension as shown in Figure 2.4b. At $t = 0$, is it moving to the right or to the left?

During the first time interval, the slope is negative and hence the average velocity is negative. Therefore, we know that the displacement between (A) and (B) must be a negative number having units of meters. Similarly, we expect the displacement between (B) and (D) to be positive.

In the first time interval, set $t_i = t_{\text{A}} = 0$ and $t_f = t_{\text{B}} = 1$ s and use Equation 2.1 to find the displacement:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta x_{\text{A} \rightarrow \text{B}} &= x_f - x_i = x_{\text{B}} - x_{\text{A}} \\ &= [-4(1) + 2(1)^2] - [-4(0) + 2(0)^2] = -2 \text{ m}\end{aligned}$$

For the second time interval ($t = 1$ s to $t = 3$ s), set $t_i = t_{\text{B}} = 1$ s and $t_f = t_{\text{D}} = 3$ s:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta x_{\text{B} \rightarrow \text{D}} &= x_f - x_i = x_{\text{D}} - x_{\text{B}} \\ &= [-4(3) + 2(3)^2] - [-4(1) + 2(1)^2] = +8 \text{ m}\end{aligned}$$

These displacements can also be read directly from the position–time graph.

- (B) Calculate the average velocity during these two time intervals.

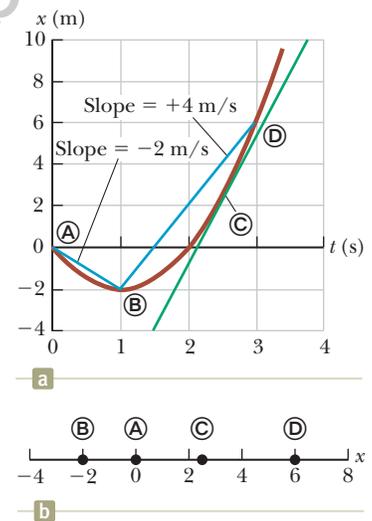


Figure 2.4 (Example 2.3) (a) Position–time graph for a particle having an x coordinate that varies in time according to the expression $x = -4t + 2t^2$. (b) The particle moves in one dimension along the x axis.

continued

³Simply to make it easier to read, we write the expression as $x = -4t + 2t^2$ rather than as $x = (-4.00 \text{ m/s})t + (2.00 \text{ m/s}^2)t^{2.00}$. When an equation summarizes measurements, consider its coefficients and exponents to have as many significant figures as other data quoted in a problem. Consider its coefficients to have the units required for dimensional consistency. When we start our clocks at $t = 0$, we usually do not mean to limit the precision to a single digit. Consider any zero value in this book to have as many significant figures as you need.

2.3 continued

SOLUTION

In the first time interval, use Equation 2.2 with $\Delta t = t_f - t_i = t_{\text{B}} - t_{\text{A}} = 1 \text{ s}$:

$$v_{x,\text{avg}}(\text{A} \rightarrow \text{B}) = \frac{\Delta x_{\text{A} \rightarrow \text{B}}}{\Delta t} = \frac{-2 \text{ m}}{1 \text{ s}} = -2 \text{ m/s}$$

In the second time interval, $\Delta t = 2 \text{ s}$:

$$v_{x,\text{avg}}(\text{B} \rightarrow \text{C}) = \frac{\Delta x_{\text{B} \rightarrow \text{C}}}{\Delta t} = \frac{8 \text{ m}}{2 \text{ s}} = +4 \text{ m/s}$$

These values are the same as the slopes of the blue lines joining these points in Figure 2.4a.

(C) Find the instantaneous velocity of the particle at $t = 2.5 \text{ s}$.

SOLUTION

Measure the slope of the green line at $t = 2.5 \text{ s}$ (point ©) in Figure 2.4a:

$$v_x = \frac{10 \text{ m} - (-4 \text{ m})}{3.8 \text{ s} - 1.5 \text{ s}} = +6 \text{ m/s}$$

Notice that this instantaneous velocity is on the same order of magnitude as our previous results, that is, a few meters per second. Is that what you would have expected?

2.3 Analysis Model: Particle Under Constant Velocity

Analysis model ►

In Section 1.2 we discussed the importance of making models. A particularly important model used in the solution to physics problems is an *analysis model*. An **analysis model** is a common situation that occurs time and again when solving physics problems. Because it represents a common situation, it also represents a common type of problem that we have solved before. When you identify an analysis model in a new problem, the solution to the new problem can be modeled after that of the previously-solved problem. Analysis models help us to recognize those common situations and guide us toward a solution to the problem. The form that an analysis model takes is a description of either (1) the behavior of some physical entity or (2) the interaction between that entity and the environment. When you encounter a new problem, you should identify the fundamental details of the problem and attempt to recognize which of the situations you have already seen that might be used as a model for the new problem. For example, suppose an automobile is moving along a straight freeway at a constant speed. Is it important that it is an automobile? Is it important that it is a freeway? If the answers to both questions are no, but the car moves in a straight line at constant speed, we model the automobile as a *particle under constant velocity*, which we will discuss in this section. Once the problem has been modeled, it is no longer about an automobile. It is about a particle undergoing a certain type of motion, a motion that we have studied before.

This method is somewhat similar to the common practice in the legal profession of finding “legal precedents.” If a previously resolved case can be found that is very similar legally to the current one, it is used as a model and an argument is made in court to link them logically. The finding in the previous case can then be used to sway the finding in the current case. We will do something similar in physics. For a given problem, we search for a “physics precedent,” a model with which we are already familiar and that can be applied to the current problem.

All of the analysis models that we will develop are based on four fundamental simplification models. The first of the four is the particle model discussed in the introduction to this chapter. We will look at a particle under various behaviors and environmental interactions. Further analysis models are introduced in later chapters based on simplification models of a *system*, a *rigid object*, and a *wave*. Once

we have introduced these analysis models, we shall see that they appear again and again in different problem situations.

When solving a problem, you should avoid browsing through the chapter looking for an equation that contains the unknown variable that is requested in the problem. In many cases, the equation you find may have nothing to do with the problem you are attempting to solve. It is *much* better to take this first step: **Identify the analysis model that is appropriate for the problem.** To do so, think carefully about what is going on in the problem and match it to a situation you have seen before. Once the analysis model is identified, there are a small number of equations from which to choose that are appropriate for that model, sometimes only one equation. Therefore, **the model tells you which equation(s) to use for the mathematical representation.**

Let us use Equation 2.2 to build our first analysis model for solving problems. We imagine a particle moving with a constant velocity. The model of a **particle under constant velocity** can be applied in *any* situation in which an entity that can be modeled as a particle is moving with constant velocity. This situation occurs frequently, so this model is important.

If the velocity of a particle is constant, its instantaneous velocity at any instant during a time interval is the same as the average velocity over the interval. That is, $v_x = v_{x,\text{avg}}$. Therefore, Equation 2.2 gives us an equation to be used in the mathematical representation of this situation:

$$v_x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \quad (2.6)$$

Remembering that $\Delta x = x_f - x_i$, we see that $v_x = (x_f - x_i)/\Delta t$, or

$$x_f = x_i + v_x \Delta t$$

This equation tells us that the position of the particle is given by the sum of its original position x_i at time $t = 0$ plus the displacement $v_x \Delta t$ that occurs during the time interval Δt . In practice, we usually choose the time at the beginning of the interval to be $t_i = 0$ and the time at the end of the interval to be $t_f = t$, so our equation becomes

$$x_f = x_i + v_x t \quad (\text{for constant } v_x) \quad (2.7)$$

Equations 2.6 and 2.7 are the primary equations used in the model of a particle under constant velocity. Whenever you have identified the analysis model in a problem to be the particle under constant velocity, you can immediately turn to these equations.

Figure 2.5 is a graphical representation of the particle under constant velocity. On this position–time graph, the slope of the line representing the motion is constant and equal to the magnitude of the velocity. Equation 2.7, which is the equation of a straight line, is the mathematical representation of the particle under constant velocity model. The slope of the straight line is v_x and the y intercept is x_i in both representations.

Example 2.4 below shows an application of the particle under constant velocity model. Notice the analysis model icon **AM**, which will be used to identify examples in which analysis models are employed in the solution. Because of the widespread benefits of using the analysis model approach, you will notice that a large number of the examples in the book will carry such an icon.

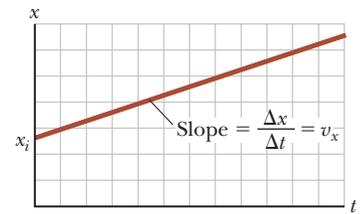


Figure 2.5 Position–time graph for a particle under constant velocity. The value of the constant velocity is the slope of the line.

◀ Position as a function of time for the particle under constant velocity model

Example 2.4

Modeling a Runner as a Particle

AM

A kinesiologist is studying the biomechanics of the human body. (*Kinesiology* is the study of the movement of the human body. Notice the connection to the word *kinematics*.) She determines the velocity of an experimental subject while he runs along a straight line at a constant rate. The kinesiologist starts the stopwatch at the moment the runner passes a given point and stops it after the runner has passed another point 20 m away. The time interval indicated on the stopwatch is 4.0 s.

(A) What is the runner's velocity?

continued

2.4 continued

SOLUTION

We model the moving runner as a particle because the size of the runner and the movement of arms and legs are unnecessary details. Because the problem states that the subject runs at a constant rate, we can model him as a *particle under constant velocity*.

Having identified the model, we can use Equation 2.6 to find the constant velocity of the runner:

$$v_x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{x_f - x_i}{\Delta t} = \frac{20 \text{ m} - 0}{4.0 \text{ s}} = 5.0 \text{ m/s}$$

(B) If the runner continues his motion after the stopwatch is stopped, what is his position after 10 s have passed?

SOLUTION

Use Equation 2.7 and the velocity found in part (A) to find the position of the particle at time $t = 10 \text{ s}$:

$$x_f = x_i + v_x t = 0 + (5.0 \text{ m/s})(10 \text{ s}) = 50 \text{ m}$$

Is the result for part (A) a reasonable speed for a human? How does it compare to world-record speeds in 100-m and 200-m sprints? Notice the value in part (B) is more than twice that of the 20-m position at which the stopwatch was stopped. Is this value consistent with the time of 10 s being more than twice the time of 4.0 s?

The mathematical manipulations for the particle under constant velocity stem from Equation 2.6 and its descendent, Equation 2.7. These equations can be used to solve for any variable in the equations that happens to be unknown if the other variables are known. For example, in part (B) of Example 2.4, we find the position when the velocity and the time are known. Similarly, if we know the velocity and the final position, we could use Equation 2.7 to find the time at which the runner is at this position.

A particle under constant velocity moves with a constant speed along a straight line. Now consider a particle moving with a constant speed through a distance d along a curved path. This situation can be represented with the model of a **particle under constant speed**. The primary equation for this model is Equation 2.3, with the average speed v_{avg} replaced by the constant speed v :

$$v = \frac{d}{\Delta t} \quad (2.8)$$

As an example, imagine a particle moving at a constant speed in a circular path. If the speed is 5.00 m/s and the radius of the path is 10.0 m, we can calculate the time interval required to complete one trip around the circle:

$$v = \frac{d}{\Delta t} \rightarrow \Delta t = \frac{d}{v} = \frac{2\pi r}{v} = \frac{2\pi(10.0 \text{ m})}{5.00 \text{ m/s}} = 12.6 \text{ s}$$

Analysis Model Particle Under Constant Velocity

Imagine a moving object that can be modeled as a particle. If it moves at a constant speed through a displacement Δx in a straight line in a time interval Δt , its constant velocity is

$$v_x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \quad (2.6)$$

The position of the particle as a function of time is given by

$$x_f = x_i + v_x t \quad (2.7)$$

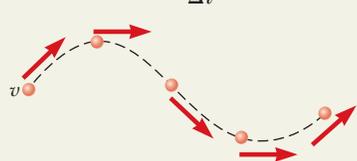


Examples:

- a meteoroid traveling through gravity-free space
- a car traveling at a constant speed on a straight highway
- a runner traveling at constant speed on a perfectly straight path
- an object moving at terminal speed through a viscous medium (Chapter 6)

Analysis Model Particle Under Constant Speed

Imagine a moving object that can be modeled as a particle. If it moves at a constant speed through a distance d along a straight line or a curved path in a time interval Δt , its constant speed is

$$v = \frac{d}{\Delta t} \quad (2.8)$$


Examples:

- a planet traveling around a perfectly circular orbit
- a car traveling at a constant speed on a curved racetrack
- a runner traveling at constant speed on a curved path
- a charged particle moving through a uniform magnetic field (Chapter 29)

2.4 Acceleration

In Example 2.3, we worked with a common situation in which the velocity of a particle changes while the particle is moving. When the velocity of a particle changes with time, the particle is said to be *accelerating*. For example, the magnitude of a car's velocity increases when you step on the gas and decreases when you apply the brakes. Let us see how to quantify acceleration.

Suppose an object that can be modeled as a particle moving along the x axis has an initial velocity v_{xi} at time t_i at position **A** and a final velocity v_{xf} at time t_f at position **B** as in Figure 2.6a. The red-brown curve in Figure 2.6b shows how the velocity varies with time. The **average acceleration** $a_{x,\text{avg}}$ of the particle is defined as the *change* in velocity Δv_x divided by the time interval Δt during which that change occurs:

$$a_{x,\text{avg}} \equiv \frac{\Delta v_x}{\Delta t} = \frac{v_{xf} - v_{xi}}{t_f - t_i} \quad (2.9)$$

◀ Average acceleration

As with velocity, when the motion being analyzed is one dimensional, we can use positive and negative signs to indicate the direction of the acceleration. Because the dimensions of velocity are L/T and the dimension of time is T, acceleration has dimensions of length divided by time squared, or L/T². The SI unit of acceleration is meters per second squared (m/s²). It might be easier to interpret these units if you think of them as meters per second per second. For example, suppose an object has an acceleration of +2 m/s². You can interpret this value by forming a mental image of the object having a velocity that is along a straight line and is increasing by 2 m/s during every time interval of 1 s. If the object starts from rest,

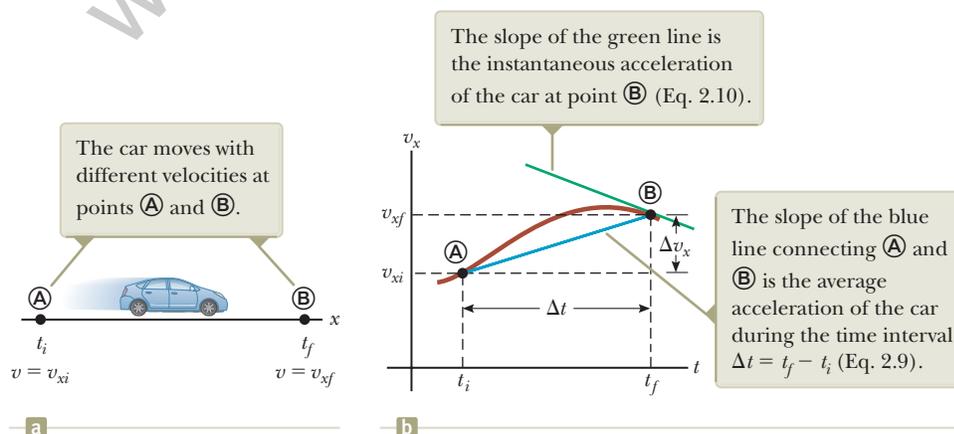


Figure 2.6 (a) A car, modeled as a particle, moving along the x axis from **A** to **B**, has velocity v_{xi} at $t = t_i$ and velocity v_{xf} at $t = t_f$. (b) Velocity–time graph (red-brown) for the particle moving in a straight line.

you should be able to picture it moving at a velocity of +2 m/s after 1 s, at +4 m/s after 2 s, and so on.

In some situations, the value of the average acceleration may be different over different time intervals. It is therefore useful to define the **instantaneous acceleration** as the limit of the average acceleration as Δt approaches zero. This concept is analogous to the definition of instantaneous velocity discussed in Section 2.2. If we imagine that point \textcircled{A} is brought closer and closer to point \textcircled{B} in Figure 2.6a and we take the limit of $\Delta v_x/\Delta t$ as Δt approaches zero, we obtain the instantaneous acceleration at point \textcircled{B} :

Instantaneous acceleration ►

$$a_x \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta v_x}{\Delta t} = \frac{dv_x}{dt} \quad (2.10)$$

That is, the instantaneous acceleration equals the derivative of the velocity with respect to time, which by definition is the slope of the velocity–time graph. The slope of the green line in Figure 2.6b is equal to the instantaneous acceleration at point \textcircled{B} . Notice that Figure 2.6b is a *velocity–time* graph, not a *position–time* graph like Figures 2.1b, 2.3, 2.4, and 2.5. Therefore, we see that just as the velocity of a moving particle is the slope at a point on the particle's x – t graph, the acceleration of a particle is the slope at a point on the particle's v_x – t graph. One can interpret the derivative of the velocity with respect to time as the time rate of change of velocity. If a_x is positive, the acceleration is in the positive x direction; if a_x is negative, the acceleration is in the negative x direction.

Figure 2.7 illustrates how an acceleration–time graph is related to a velocity–time graph. The acceleration at any time is the slope of the velocity–time graph at that time. Positive values of acceleration correspond to those points in Figure 2.7a where the velocity is increasing in the positive x direction. The acceleration reaches a maximum at time $t_{\textcircled{A}}$, when the slope of the velocity–time graph is a maximum. The acceleration then goes to zero at time $t_{\textcircled{B}}$, when the velocity is a maximum (that is, when the slope of the v_x – t graph is zero). The acceleration is negative when the velocity is decreasing in the positive x direction, and it reaches its most negative value at time $t_{\textcircled{C}}$.

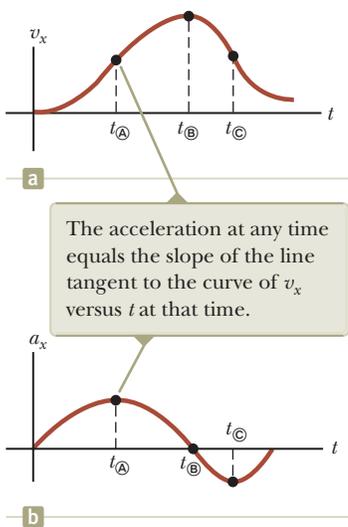


Figure 2.7 (a) The velocity–time graph for a particle moving along the x axis. (b) The instantaneous acceleration can be obtained from the velocity–time graph.

- Quick Quiz 2.3** Make a velocity–time graph for the car in Figure 2.1a. Suppose the speed limit for the road on which the car is driving is 30 km/h. True or False?
- The car exceeds the speed limit at some time within the time interval 0 – 50 s.

For the case of motion in a straight line, the direction of the velocity of an object and the direction of its acceleration are related as follows. When the object's velocity and acceleration are in the same direction, the object is speeding up. On the other hand, when the object's velocity and acceleration are in opposite directions, the object is slowing down.

To help with this discussion of the signs of velocity and acceleration, we can relate the acceleration of an object to the total *force* exerted on the object. In Chapter 5, we formally establish that **the force on an object is proportional to the acceleration of the object**:

$$F_x \propto a_x \quad (2.11)$$

This proportionality indicates that acceleration is caused by force. Furthermore, force and acceleration are both vectors, and the vectors are in the same direction. Therefore, let us think about the signs of velocity and acceleration by imagining a force applied to an object and causing it to accelerate. Let us assume the velocity and acceleration are in the same direction. This situation corresponds to an object that experiences a force acting in the same direction as its velocity. In this case, the object speeds up! Now suppose the velocity and acceleration are in opposite directions. In this situation, the object moves in some direction and experiences a force acting in the opposite direction. Therefore, the object slows

down! It is very useful to equate the direction of the acceleration to the direction of a force because it is easier from our everyday experience to think about what effect a force will have on an object than to think only in terms of the direction of the acceleration.

- Quick Quiz 2.4** If a car is traveling eastward and slowing down, what is the direction of the force on the car that causes it to slow down? (a) eastward (b) westward (c) neither eastward nor westward

From now on, we shall use the term *acceleration* to mean instantaneous acceleration. When we mean average acceleration, we shall always use the adjective *average*. Because $v_x = dx/dt$, the acceleration can also be written as

$$a_x = \frac{dv_x}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{dx}{dt} \right) = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} \quad (2.12)$$

That is, in one-dimensional motion, the acceleration equals the *second derivative* of x with respect to time.

Pitfall Prevention 2.4

Negative Acceleration Keep in mind that *negative acceleration* does not necessarily mean that an object is *slowing down*. If the acceleration is negative and the velocity is negative, the object is speeding up!

Pitfall Prevention 2.5

Deceleration The word *deceleration* has the common popular connotation of *slowing down*. We will not use this word in this book because it confuses the definition we have given for negative acceleration.

Conceptual Example 2.5

Graphical Relationships Between x , v_x , and a_x

The position of an object moving along the x axis varies with time as in Figure 2.8a. Graph the velocity versus time and the acceleration versus time for the object.

SOLUTION

The velocity at any instant is the slope of the tangent to the $x-t$ graph at that instant. Between $t = 0$ and $t = t_A$, the slope of the $x-t$ graph increases uniformly, so the velocity increases linearly as shown in Figure 2.8b. Between t_A and t_B , the slope of the $x-t$ graph is constant, so the velocity remains constant. Between t_B and t_D , the slope of the $x-t$ graph decreases, so the value of the velocity in the v_x-t graph decreases. At t_D , the slope of the $x-t$ graph is zero, so the velocity is zero at that instant. Between t_D and t_E , the slope of the $x-t$ graph and therefore the velocity are negative and decrease uniformly in this interval. In the interval t_E to t_F , the slope of the $x-t$ graph is still negative, and at t_F it goes to zero. Finally, after t_F , the slope of the $x-t$ graph is zero, meaning that the object is at rest for $t > t_F$.

The acceleration at any instant is the slope of the tangent to the v_x-t graph at that instant. The graph of acceleration versus time for this object is shown in Figure 2.8c. The acceleration is constant and positive between 0 and t_A , where the slope of the v_x-t graph is positive. It is zero between t_A and t_B and for $t > t_E$ because the slope of the v_x-t graph is zero at these times. It is negative between t_B and t_E because the slope of the v_x-t graph is negative during this interval. Between t_E and t_F , the acceleration is positive like it is between 0 and t_A , but higher in value because the slope of the v_x-t graph is steeper.

Notice that the sudden changes in acceleration shown in Figure 2.8c are unphysical. Such instantaneous changes cannot occur in reality.

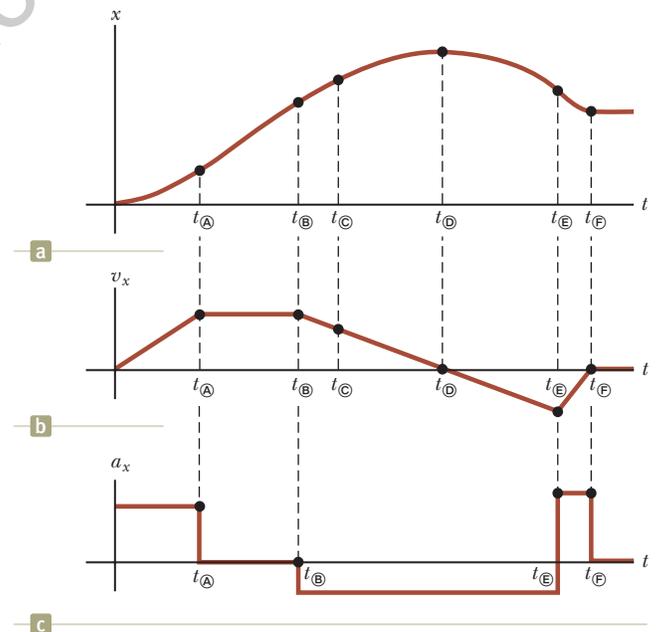


Figure 2.8 (Conceptual Example 2.5) (a) Position–time graph for an object moving along the x axis. (b) The velocity–time graph for the object is obtained by measuring the slope of the position–time graph at each instant. (c) The acceleration–time graph for the object is obtained by measuring the slope of the velocity–time graph at each instant.

Example 2.6 Average and Instantaneous Acceleration

The velocity of a particle moving along the x axis varies according to the expression $v_x = 40 - 5t^2$, where v_x is in meters per second and t is in seconds.

(A) Find the average acceleration in the time interval $t = 0$ to $t = 2.0$ s.

SOLUTION

Think about what the particle is doing from the mathematical representation. Is it moving at $t = 0$? In which direction? Does it speed up or slow down? Figure 2.9 is a v_x - t graph that was created from the velocity versus time expression given in the problem statement. Because the slope of the entire v_x - t curve is negative, we expect the acceleration to be negative.

Find the velocities at $t_i = t_{\text{A}} = 0$ and $t_f = t_{\text{B}} = 2.0$ s by substituting these values of t into the expression for the velocity:

Find the average acceleration in the specified time interval $\Delta t = t_{\text{B}} - t_{\text{A}} = 2.0$ s:

$$\begin{aligned} v_{x\text{A}} &= 40 - 5t_{\text{A}}^2 = 40 - 5(0)^2 = +40 \text{ m/s} \\ v_{x\text{B}} &= 40 - 5t_{\text{B}}^2 = 40 - 5(2.0)^2 = +20 \text{ m/s} \\ a_{x,\text{avg}} &= \frac{v_{xf} - v_{xi}}{t_f - t_i} = \frac{v_{x\text{B}} - v_{x\text{A}}}{t_{\text{B}} - t_{\text{A}}} = \frac{20 \text{ m/s} - 40 \text{ m/s}}{2.0 \text{ s} - 0 \text{ s}} \\ &= -10 \text{ m/s}^2 \end{aligned}$$

The negative sign is consistent with our expectations: the average acceleration, represented by the slope of the blue line joining the initial and final points on the velocity-time graph, is negative.

(B) Determine the acceleration at $t = 2.0$ s.

SOLUTION

Knowing that the initial velocity at any time t is $v_{xi} = 40 - 5t^2$, find the velocity at any later time $t + \Delta t$:

Find the change in velocity over the time interval Δt :

To find the acceleration at any time t , divide this expression by Δt and take the limit of the result as Δt approaches zero:

Substitute $t = 2.0$ s:

$$\begin{aligned} v_{xf} &= 40 - 5(t + \Delta t)^2 = 40 - 5t^2 - 10t\Delta t - 5(\Delta t)^2 \\ \Delta v_x &= v_{xf} - v_{xi} = -10t\Delta t - 5(\Delta t)^2 \\ a_x &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta v_x}{\Delta t} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} (-10t - 5\Delta t) = -10t \\ a_x &= (-10)(2.0) \text{ m/s}^2 = -20 \text{ m/s}^2 \end{aligned}$$

Because the velocity of the particle is positive and the acceleration is negative at this instant, the particle is slowing down.

Notice that the answers to parts (A) and (B) are different. The average acceleration in part (A) is the slope of the blue line in Figure 2.9 connecting points A and B. The instantaneous acceleration in part (B) is the slope of the green line tangent to the curve at point B. Notice also that the acceleration is *not* constant in this example. Situations involving constant acceleration are treated in Section 2.6.



Figure 2.9 (Example 2.6) The velocity-time graph for a particle moving along the x axis according to the expression $v_x = 40 - 5t^2$.

So far, we have evaluated the derivatives of a function by starting with the definition of the function and then taking the limit of a specific ratio. If you are familiar with calculus, you should recognize that there are specific rules for taking

derivatives. These rules, which are listed in Appendix B.6, enable us to evaluate derivatives quickly. For instance, one rule tells us that the derivative of any constant is zero. As another example, suppose x is proportional to some power of t such as in the expression

$$x = At^n$$

where A and n are constants. (This expression is a very common functional form.) The derivative of x with respect to t is

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = nAt^{n-1}$$

Applying this rule to Example 2.6, in which $v_x = 40 - 5t^2$, we quickly find that the acceleration is $a_x = dv_x/dt = -10t$, as we found in part (B) of the example.

2.5 Motion Diagrams

The concepts of velocity and acceleration are often confused with each other, but in fact they are quite different quantities. In forming a mental representation of a moving object, a pictorial representation called a *motion diagram* is sometimes useful to describe the velocity and acceleration while an object is in motion.

A motion diagram can be formed by imagining a *stroboscopic* photograph of a moving object, which shows several images of the object taken as the strobe light flashes at a constant rate. Figure 2.1a is a motion diagram for the car studied in Section 2.1. Figure 2.10 represents three sets of strobe photographs of cars moving along a straight roadway in a single direction, from left to right. The time intervals between flashes of the stroboscope are equal in each part of the diagram. So as to not confuse the two vector quantities, we use red arrows for velocity and purple arrows for acceleration in Figure 2.10. The arrows are shown at several instants during the motion of the object. Let us describe the motion of the car in each diagram.

In Figure 2.10a, the images of the car are equally spaced, showing us that the car moves through the same displacement in each time interval. This equal spacing is consistent with the car moving with *constant positive velocity* and *zero acceleration*. We could model the car as a particle and describe it with the particle under constant velocity model.

In Figure 2.10b, the images become farther apart as time progresses. In this case, the velocity arrow increases in length with time because the car's displacement between adjacent positions increases in time. These features suggest the car is moving with a *positive velocity* and a *positive acceleration*. The velocity and acceleration are in the same direction. In terms of our earlier force discussion, imagine a force pulling on the car in the same direction it is moving: it speeds up.

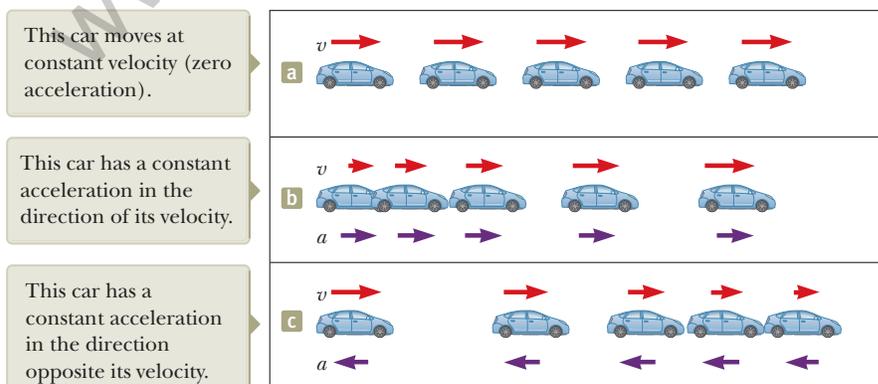


Figure 2.10 Motion diagrams of a car moving along a straight roadway in a single direction. The velocity at each instant is indicated by a red arrow, and the constant acceleration is indicated by a purple arrow.

In Figure 2.10c, we can tell that the car slows as it moves to the right because its displacement between adjacent images decreases with time. This case suggests the car moves to the right with a negative acceleration. The length of the velocity arrow decreases in time and eventually reaches zero. From this diagram, we see that the acceleration and velocity arrows are *not* in the same direction. The car is moving with a *positive velocity*, but with a *negative acceleration*. (This type of motion is exhibited by a car that skids to a stop after its brakes are applied.) The velocity and acceleration are in opposite directions. In terms of our earlier force discussion, imagine a force pulling on the car opposite to the direction it is moving: it slows down.

Each purple acceleration arrow in parts (b) and (c) of Figure 2.10 is the same length. Therefore, these diagrams represent motion of a *particle under constant acceleration*. This important analysis model will be discussed in the next section.

- Quick Quiz 2.5** Which one of the following statements is true? (a) If a car is traveling eastward, its acceleration must be eastward. (b) If a car is slowing down, its acceleration must be negative. (c) A particle with constant acceleration can never stop and stay stopped.

2.6 Analysis Model: Particle Under Constant Acceleration

If the acceleration of a particle varies in time, its motion can be complex and difficult to analyze. A very common and simple type of one-dimensional motion, however, is that in which the acceleration is constant. In such a case, the average acceleration $a_{x,\text{avg}}$ over any time interval is numerically equal to the instantaneous acceleration a_x at any instant within the interval, and the velocity changes at the same rate throughout the motion. This situation occurs often enough that we identify it as an analysis model: the **particle under constant acceleration**. In the discussion that follows, we generate several equations that describe the motion of a particle for this model.

If we replace $a_{x,\text{avg}}$ by a_x in Equation 2.9 and take $t_i = 0$ and t_f to be any later time t , we find that

$$a_x = \frac{v_{xf} - v_{xi}}{t - 0}$$

or

$$v_{xf} = v_{xi} + a_x t \quad (\text{for constant } a_x) \quad (2.13)$$

This powerful expression enables us to determine an object's velocity at *any* time t if we know the object's initial velocity v_{xi} and its (constant) acceleration a_x . A velocity–time graph for this constant-acceleration motion is shown in Figure 2.11b. The graph is a straight line, the slope of which is the acceleration a_x ; the (constant) slope is consistent with $a_x = dv_x/dt$ being a constant. Notice that the slope is positive, which indicates a positive acceleration. If the acceleration were negative, the slope of the line in Figure 2.11b would be negative. When the acceleration is constant, the graph of acceleration versus time (Fig. 2.11c) is a straight line having a slope of zero.

Because velocity at constant acceleration varies linearly in time according to Equation 2.13, we can express the average velocity in any time interval as the arithmetic mean of the initial velocity v_{xi} and the final velocity v_{xf} :

$$v_{x,\text{avg}} = \frac{v_{xi} + v_{xf}}{2} \quad (\text{for constant } a_x) \quad (2.14)$$

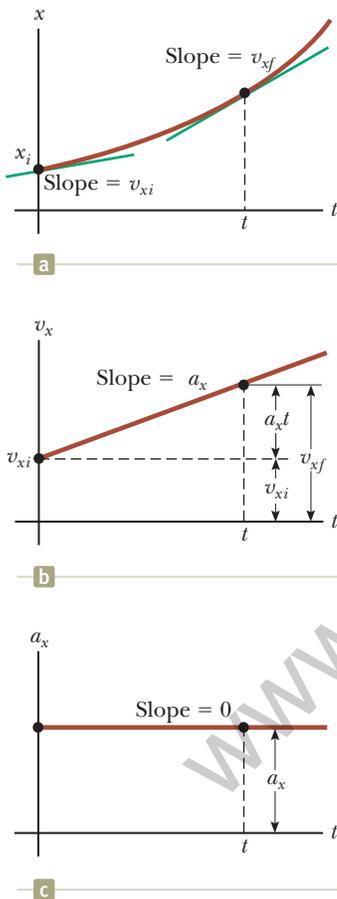


Figure 2.11 A particle under constant acceleration a_x moving along the x axis: (a) the position–time graph, (b) the velocity–time graph, and (c) the acceleration–time graph.

Notice that this expression for average velocity applies *only* in situations in which the acceleration is constant.

We can now use Equations 2.1, 2.2, and 2.14 to obtain the position of an object as a function of time. Recalling that Δx in Equation 2.2 represents $x_f - x_i$ and recognizing that $\Delta t = t_f - t_i = t - 0 = t$, we find that

$$x_f - x_i = v_{x,\text{avg}} t = \frac{1}{2}(v_{xi} + v_{xf})t$$

$$x_f = x_i + \frac{1}{2}(v_{xi} + v_{xf})t \quad (\text{for constant } a_x) \quad (2.15)$$

This equation provides the final position of the particle at time t in terms of the initial and final velocities.

We can obtain another useful expression for the position of a particle under constant acceleration by substituting Equation 2.13 into Equation 2.15:

$$x_f = x_i + \frac{1}{2}[v_{xi} + (v_{xi} + a_x t)]t$$

$$x_f = x_i + v_{xi}t + \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2 \quad (\text{for constant } a_x) \quad (2.16)$$

This equation provides the final position of the particle at time t in terms of the initial position, the initial velocity, and the constant acceleration.

The position–time graph for motion at constant (positive) acceleration shown in Figure 2.11a is obtained from Equation 2.16. Notice that the curve is a parabola. The slope of the tangent line to this curve at $t = 0$ equals the initial velocity v_{xi} , and the slope of the tangent line at any later time t equals the velocity v_{xf} at that time.

Finally, we can obtain an expression for the final velocity that does not contain time as a variable by substituting the value of t from Equation 2.13 into Equation 2.15:

$$x_f = x_i + \frac{1}{2}(v_{xi} + v_{xf})\left(\frac{v_{xf} - v_{xi}}{a_x}\right) = x_i + \frac{v_{xf}^2 - v_{xi}^2}{2a_x}$$

$$v_{xf}^2 = v_{xi}^2 + 2a_x(x_f - x_i) \quad (\text{for constant } a_x) \quad (2.17)$$

This equation provides the final velocity in terms of the initial velocity, the constant acceleration, and the position of the particle.

For motion at *zero* acceleration, we see from Equations 2.13 and 2.16 that

$$\left. \begin{aligned} v_{xf} &= v_{xi} = v_x \\ x_f &= x_i + v_x t \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ when } a_x = 0$$

That is, when the acceleration of a particle is zero, its velocity is constant and its position changes linearly with time. In terms of models, when the acceleration of a particle is zero, the particle under constant acceleration model reduces to the particle under constant velocity model (Section 2.3).

Equations 2.13 through 2.17 are **kinematic equations** that may be used to solve any problem involving a particle under constant acceleration in one dimension. These equations are listed together for convenience on page 38. The choice of which equation you use in a given situation depends on what you know beforehand. Sometimes it is necessary to use two of these equations to solve for two unknowns. You should recognize that the quantities that vary during the motion are position x_f , velocity v_{xf} , and time t .

You will gain a great deal of experience in the use of these equations by solving a number of exercises and problems. Many times you will discover that more than one method can be used to obtain a solution. Remember that these equations of kinematics *cannot* be used in a situation in which the acceleration varies with time. They can be used only when the acceleration is constant.

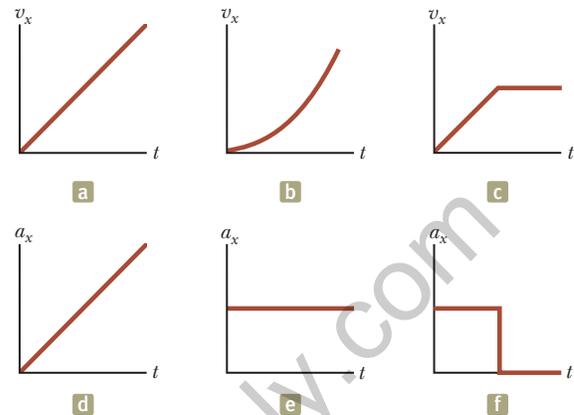
◀ Position as a function of velocity and time for the particle under constant acceleration model

◀ Position as a function of time for the particle under constant acceleration model

◀ Velocity as a function of position for the particle under constant acceleration model

Quick Quiz 2.6 In Figure 2.12, match each v_x-t graph on the top with the a_x-t graph on the bottom that best describes the motion.

Figure 2.12 (Quick Quiz 2.6) Parts (a), (b), and (c) are v_x-t graphs of objects in one-dimensional motion. The possible accelerations of each object as a function of time are shown in scrambled order in (d), (e), and (f).



Analysis Model Particle Under Constant Acceleration

Imagine a moving object that can be modeled as a particle. If it begins from position x_i and initial velocity v_{xi} and moves in a straight line with a constant acceleration a_x , its subsequent position and velocity are described by the following kinematic equations:

$$v_{xf} = v_{xi} + a_x t \quad (2.13)$$

$$v_{x,\text{avg}} = \frac{v_{xi} + v_{xf}}{2} \quad (2.14)$$

$$x_f = x_i + \frac{1}{2}(v_{xi} + v_{xf})t \quad (2.15)$$

$$x_f = x_i + v_{xi}t + \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2 \quad (2.16)$$

$$v_{xf}^2 = v_{xi}^2 + 2a_x(x_f - x_i) \quad (2.17)$$



Examples

- a car accelerating at a constant rate along a straight freeway
- a dropped object in the absence of air resistance (Section 2.7)
- an object on which a constant net force acts (Chapter 5)
- a charged particle in a uniform electric field (Chapter 23)

Example 2.7 Carrier Landing

AM

A jet lands on an aircraft carrier at a speed of 140 mi/h (≈ 63 m/s).

(A) What is its acceleration (assumed constant) if it stops in 2.0 s due to an arresting cable that snags the jet and brings it to a stop?

SOLUTION

You might have seen movies or television shows in which a jet lands on an aircraft carrier and is brought to rest surprisingly fast by an arresting cable. A careful reading of the problem reveals that in addition to being given the initial speed of 63 m/s, we also know that the final speed is zero. Because the acceleration of the jet is assumed constant, we model it as a *particle under constant acceleration*. We define our x axis as the direction of motion of the jet. Notice that we have no information about the change in position of the jet while it is slowing down.

2.7 continued

Equation 2.13 is the only equation in the particle under constant acceleration model that does not involve position, so we use it to find the acceleration of the jet, modeled as a particle:

$$\begin{aligned} a_x &= \frac{v_{xf} - v_{xi}}{t} \approx \frac{0 - 63 \text{ m/s}}{2.0 \text{ s}} \\ &= -32 \text{ m/s}^2 \end{aligned}$$

(B) If the jet touches down at position $x_i = 0$, what is its final position?

SOLUTION

Use Equation 2.15 to solve for the final position:

$$x_f = x_i + \frac{1}{2}(v_{xi} + v_{xf})t = 0 + \frac{1}{2}(63 \text{ m/s} + 0)(2.0 \text{ s}) = 63 \text{ m}$$

Given the size of aircraft carriers, a length of 63 m seems reasonable for stopping the jet. The idea of using arresting cables to slow down landing aircraft and enable them to land safely on ships originated at about the time of World War I. The cables are still a vital part of the operation of modern aircraft carriers.

WHAT IF? Suppose the jet lands on the deck of the aircraft carrier with a speed faster than 63 m/s but has the same acceleration due to the cable as that calculated in part (A). How will that change the answer to part (B)?

Answer If the jet is traveling faster at the beginning, it will stop farther away from its starting point, so the answer to part (B) should be larger. Mathematically, we see in Equation 2.15 that if v_{xi} is larger, then x_f will be larger.

Example 2.8

Watch Out for the Speed Limit! **AM**

A car traveling at a constant speed of 45.0 m/s passes a trooper on a motorcycle hidden behind a billboard. One second after the speeding car passes the billboard, the trooper sets out from the billboard to catch the car, accelerating at a constant rate of 3.00 m/s². How long does it take the trooper to overtake the car?

SOLUTION

A pictorial representation (Fig. 2.13) helps clarify the sequence of events. The car is modeled as a *particle under constant velocity*, and the trooper is modeled as a *particle under constant acceleration*.

First, we write expressions for the position of each vehicle as a function of time. It is convenient to choose the position of the billboard as the origin and to set $t_{\text{trooper}} = 0$ as the time the trooper begins moving. At that instant, the car has already traveled a distance of 45.0 m from the billboard because it has traveled at a constant speed of $v_x = 45.0$ m/s for 1 s. Therefore, the initial position of the speeding car is $x_{\text{car}} = 45.0$ m.

Using the particle under constant velocity model, apply Equation 2.7 to give the car's position at any time t :

$$x_{\text{car}} = x_{\text{car}} + v_{x \text{ car}} t$$

A quick check shows that at $t = 0$, this expression gives the car's correct initial position when the trooper begins to move: $x_{\text{car}} = x_{\text{car}} = 45.0$ m.

The trooper starts from rest at $t_{\text{trooper}} = 0$ and accelerates at $a_x = 3.00$ m/s² away from the origin. Use Equation 2.16 to give her position at any time t :

$$\begin{aligned} x_f &= x_i + v_{xi}t + \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2 \\ x_{\text{trooper}} &= 0 + (0)t + \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2 = \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2 \end{aligned}$$

Set the positions of the car and trooper equal to represent the trooper overtaking the car at position ©:

$$\begin{aligned} x_{\text{trooper}} &= x_{\text{car}} \\ \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2 &= x_{\text{car}} + v_{x \text{ car}} t \end{aligned}$$

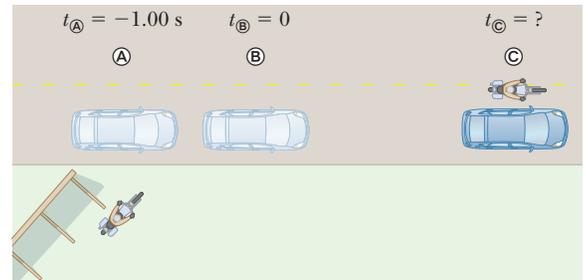


Figure 2.13 (Example 2.8) A speeding car passes a hidden trooper.

continued

2.8 continued

Rearrange to give a quadratic equation:

$$\frac{1}{2}a_x t^2 - v_{x\text{car}} t - x_{\text{tr}} = 0$$

Solve the quadratic equation for the time at which the trooper catches the car (for help in solving quadratic equations, see Appendix B.2.):

$$t = \frac{v_{x\text{car}} \pm \sqrt{v_{x\text{car}}^2 + 2a_x x_{\text{tr}}}}{a_x}$$

$$(1) \quad t = \frac{v_{x\text{car}}}{a_x} \pm \sqrt{\frac{v_{x\text{car}}^2}{a_x^2} + \frac{2x_{\text{tr}}}{a_x}}$$

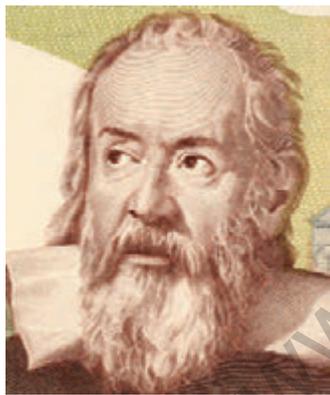
Evaluate the solution, choosing the positive root because that is the only choice consistent with a time $t > 0$:

$$t = \frac{45.0 \text{ m/s}}{3.00 \text{ m/s}^2} + \sqrt{\frac{(45.0 \text{ m/s})^2}{(3.00 \text{ m/s}^2)^2} + \frac{2(45.0 \text{ m})}{3.00 \text{ m/s}^2}} = 31.0 \text{ s}$$

Why didn't we choose $t = 0$ as the time at which the car passes the trooper? If we did so, we would not be able to use the particle under constant acceleration model for the trooper. Her acceleration would be zero for the first second and then 3.00 m/s^2 for the remaining time. By defining the time $t = 0$ as when the trooper begins moving, we can use the particle under constant acceleration model for her movement for all positive times.

WHAT IF? What if the trooper had a more powerful motorcycle with a larger acceleration? How would that change the time at which the trooper catches the car?

Answer If the motorcycle has a larger acceleration, the trooper should catch up to the car sooner, so the answer for the time should be less than 31 s. Because all terms on the right side of Equation (1) have the acceleration a_x in the denominator, we see symbolically that increasing the acceleration will decrease the time at which the trooper catches the car.



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Galileo Galilei

Italian physicist and astronomer (1564–1642)

Galileo formulated the laws that govern the motion of objects in free fall and made many other significant discoveries in physics and astronomy. Galileo publicly defended Nicolaus Copernicus's assertion that the Sun is at the center of the Universe (the heliocentric system). He published *Dialogue Concerning Two New World Systems* to support the Copernican model, a view that the Catholic Church declared to be heretical.

2.7 Freely Falling Objects

It is well known that, in the absence of air resistance, all objects dropped near the Earth's surface fall toward the Earth with the same constant acceleration under the influence of the Earth's gravity. It was not until about 1600 that this conclusion was accepted. Before that time, the teachings of the Greek philosopher Aristotle (384–322 BC) had held that heavier objects fall faster than lighter ones.

The Italian Galileo Galilei (1564–1642) originated our present-day ideas concerning falling objects. There is a legend that he demonstrated the behavior of falling objects by observing that two different weights dropped simultaneously from the Leaning Tower of Pisa hit the ground at approximately the same time. Although there is some doubt that he carried out this particular experiment, it is well established that Galileo performed many experiments on objects moving on inclined planes. In his experiments, he rolled balls down a slight incline and measured the distances they covered in successive time intervals. The purpose of the incline was to reduce the acceleration, which made it possible for him to make accurate measurements of the time intervals. By gradually increasing the slope of the incline, he was finally able to draw conclusions about freely falling objects because a freely falling ball is equivalent to a ball moving down a vertical incline.

You might want to try the following experiment. Simultaneously drop a coin and a crumpled-up piece of paper from the same height. If the effects of air resistance are negligible, both will have the same motion and will hit the floor at the same time. In the idealized case, in which air resistance is absent, such motion is referred

to as *free-fall* motion. If this same experiment could be conducted in a vacuum, in which air resistance is truly negligible, the paper and the coin would fall with the same acceleration even when the paper is not crumpled. On August 2, 1971, astronaut David Scott conducted such a demonstration on the Moon. He simultaneously released a hammer and a feather, and the two objects fell together to the lunar surface. This simple demonstration surely would have pleased Galileo!

When we use the expression *freely falling object*, we do not necessarily refer to an object dropped from rest. A freely falling object is any object moving freely under the influence of gravity alone, regardless of its initial motion. Objects thrown upward or downward and those released from rest are all falling freely once they are released. Any freely falling object experiences an acceleration directed *downward*, regardless of its initial motion.

We shall denote the magnitude of the *free-fall acceleration*, also called the *acceleration due to gravity*, by the symbol g . The value of g decreases with increasing altitude above the Earth's surface. Furthermore, slight variations in g occur with changes in latitude. At the Earth's surface, the value of g is approximately 9.80 m/s^2 . Unless stated otherwise, we shall use this value for g when performing calculations. For making quick estimates, use $g = 10 \text{ m/s}^2$.

If we neglect air resistance and assume the free-fall acceleration does not vary with altitude over short vertical distances, the motion of a freely falling object moving vertically is equivalent to the motion of a particle under constant acceleration in one dimension. Therefore, the equations developed in Section 2.6 for the particle under constant acceleration model can be applied. The only modification for freely falling objects that we need to make in these equations is to note that the motion is in the vertical direction (the y direction) rather than in the horizontal direction (x) and that the acceleration is downward and has a magnitude of 9.80 m/s^2 . Therefore, we choose $a_y = -g = -9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$, where the negative sign means that the acceleration of a freely falling object is downward. In Chapter 13, we shall study how to deal with variations in g with altitude.

- Quick Quiz 2.7** Consider the following choices: (a) increases, (b) decreases, (c) increases and then decreases, (d) decreases and then increases, (e) remains the same. From these choices, select what happens to (i) the acceleration and (ii) the speed of a ball after it is thrown upward into the air.

Pitfall Prevention 2.6

g and g Be sure not to confuse the italic symbol g for free-fall acceleration with the nonitalic symbol g used as the abbreviation for the unit gram.

Pitfall Prevention 2.7

The Sign of g Keep in mind that g is a *positive number*. It is tempting to substitute -9.80 m/s^2 for g , but resist the temptation. Downward gravitational acceleration is indicated explicitly by stating the acceleration as $a_y = -g$.

Pitfall Prevention 2.8

Acceleration at the Top of the Motion A common misconception is that the acceleration of a projectile at the top of its trajectory is zero. Although the velocity at the top of the motion of an object thrown upward momentarily goes to zero, *the acceleration is still that due to gravity* at this point. If the velocity and acceleration were both zero, the projectile would stay at the top.

Conceptual Example 2.9

The Daring Skydivers

A skydiver jumps out of a hovering helicopter. A few seconds later, another skydiver jumps out, and they both fall along the same vertical line. Ignore air resistance so that both skydivers fall with the same acceleration. Does the difference in their speeds stay the same throughout the fall? Does the vertical distance between them stay the same throughout the fall?

SOLUTION

At any given instant, the speeds of the skydivers are different because one had a head start. In any time interval Δt after this instant, however, the two skydivers increase their speeds by the same amount because they have the same acceleration. Therefore, the difference in their speeds remains the same throughout the fall.

The first jumper always has a greater speed than the second. Therefore, in a given time interval, the first skydiver covers a greater distance than the second. Consequently, the separation distance between them increases.

Example 2.10 Not a Bad Throw for a Rookie!

AM

A stone thrown from the top of a building is given an initial velocity of 20.0 m/s straight upward. The stone is launched 50.0 m above the ground, and the stone just misses the edge of the roof on its way down as shown in Figure 2.14.

(A) Using $t_{\text{A}} = 0$ as the time the stone leaves the thrower's hand at position **A**, determine the time at which the stone reaches its maximum height.

SOLUTION

You most likely have experience with dropping objects or throwing them upward and watching them fall, so this problem should describe a familiar experience. To simulate this situation, toss a small object upward and notice the time interval required for it to fall to the floor. Now imagine throwing that object upward from the roof of a building. Because the stone is in free fall, it is modeled as a *particle under constant acceleration* due to gravity.

Recognize that the initial velocity is positive because the stone is launched upward. The velocity will change sign after the stone reaches its highest point, but the acceleration of the stone will *always* be downward so that it will always have a negative value. Choose an initial point just after the stone leaves the person's hand and a final point at the top of its flight.

Use Equation 2.13 to calculate the time at which the stone reaches its maximum height:

Substitute numerical values:

$$v_{yf} = v_{yi} + a_y t \rightarrow t = \frac{v_{yf} - v_{yi}}{a_y}$$

$$t = t_{\text{B}} = \frac{0 - 20.0 \text{ m/s}}{-9.80 \text{ m/s}^2} = 2.04 \text{ s}$$

(B) Find the maximum height of the stone.

SOLUTION

As in part (A), choose the initial and final points at the beginning and the end of the upward flight.

Set $y_{\text{A}} = 0$ and substitute the time from part (A) into Equation 2.16 to find the maximum height:

$$y_{\text{max}} = y_{\text{B}} = y_{\text{A}} + v_{x\text{A}} t + \frac{1}{2} a_y t^2$$

$$y_{\text{B}} = 0 + (20.0 \text{ m/s})(2.04 \text{ s}) + \frac{1}{2}(-9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(2.04 \text{ s})^2 = 20.4 \text{ m}$$

(C) Determine the velocity of the stone when it returns to the height from which it was thrown.

SOLUTION

Choose the initial point where the stone is launched and the final point when it passes this position coming down.

Substitute known values into Equation 2.17:

$$v_{y\text{C}}^2 = v_{y\text{A}}^2 + 2a_y(y_{\text{C}} - y_{\text{A}})$$

$$v_{y\text{C}}^2 = (20.0 \text{ m/s})^2 + 2(-9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(0 - 0) = 400 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$$

$$v_{y\text{C}} = -20.0 \text{ m/s}$$

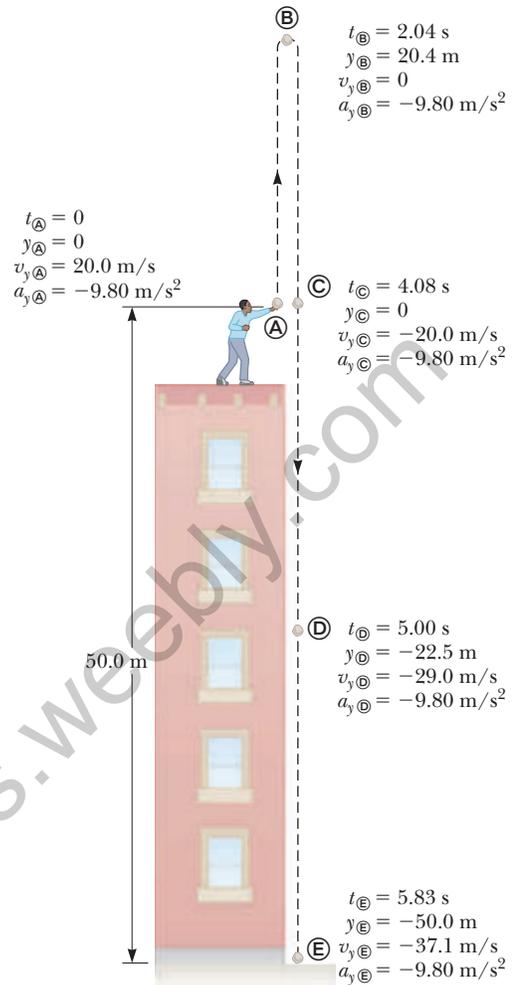


Figure 2.14 (Example 2.10) Position, velocity, and acceleration values at various times for a freely falling stone thrown initially upward with a velocity $v_{yi} = 20.0 \text{ m/s}$. Many of the quantities in the labels for points in the motion of the stone are calculated in the example. Can you verify the other values that are not?

► 2.10 continued

When taking the square root, we could choose either a positive or a negative root. We choose the negative root because we know that the stone is moving downward at point ©. The velocity of the stone when it arrives back at its original height is equal in magnitude to its initial velocity but is opposite in direction.

(D) Find the velocity and position of the stone at $t = 5.00$ s.

SOLUTION

Choose the initial point just after the throw and the final point 5.00 s later.

Calculate the velocity at © from Equation 2.13: $v_{y©} = v_{yⓐ} + a_y t = 20.0 \text{ m/s} + (-9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(5.00 \text{ s}) = -29.0 \text{ m/s}$

Use Equation 2.16 to find the position of the stone at $t_{©} = 5.00$ s:

$$y_{©} = y_{ⓐ} + v_{yⓐ} t + \frac{1}{2} a_y t^2$$

$$= 0 + (20.0 \text{ m/s})(5.00 \text{ s}) + \frac{1}{2}(-9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(5.00 \text{ s})^2$$

$$= -22.5 \text{ m}$$

The choice of the time defined as $t = 0$ is arbitrary and up to you to select as the problem solver. As an example of this arbitrariness, choose $t = 0$ as the time at which the stone is at the highest point in its motion. Then solve parts (C) and (D) again using this new initial instant and notice that your answers are the same as those above.

WHAT IF? What if the throw were from 30.0 m above the ground instead of 50.0 m? Which answers in parts (A) to (D) would change?

Answer None of the answers would change. All the motion takes place in the air during the first 5.00 s. (Notice that even for a throw from 30.0 m, the stone is above the ground at $t = 5.00$ s.) Therefore, the height of the throw is not an issue. Mathematically, if we look back over our calculations, we see that we never entered the height of the throw into any equation.

2.8 Kinematic Equations Derived from Calculus

This section assumes the reader is familiar with the techniques of integral calculus. If you have not yet studied integration in your calculus course, you should skip this section or cover it after you become familiar with integration.

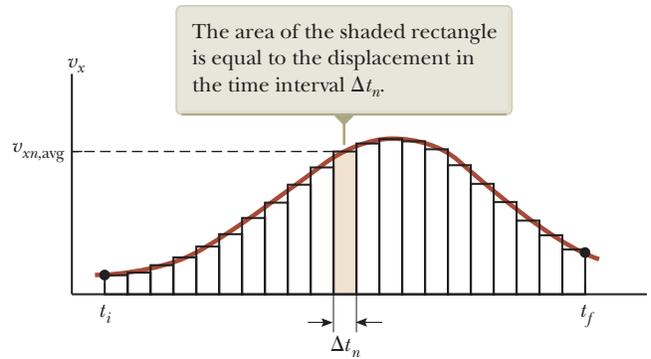
The velocity of a particle moving in a straight line can be obtained if its position as a function of time is known. Mathematically, the velocity equals the derivative of the position with respect to time. It is also possible to find the position of a particle if its velocity is known as a function of time. In calculus, the procedure used to perform this task is referred to either as *integration* or as finding the *antiderivative*. Graphically, it is equivalent to finding the area under a curve.

Suppose the v_x - t graph for a particle moving along the x axis is as shown in Figure 2.15 on page 44. Let us divide the time interval $t_f - t_i$ into many small intervals, each of duration Δt_n . From the definition of average velocity, we see that the displacement of the particle during any small interval, such as the one shaded in Figure 2.15, is given by $\Delta x_n = v_{x_n, \text{avg}} \Delta t_n$, where $v_{x_n, \text{avg}}$ is the average velocity in that interval. Therefore, the displacement during this small interval is simply the area of the shaded rectangle in Figure 2.15. The total displacement for the interval $t_f - t_i$ is the sum of the areas of all the rectangles from t_i to t_f :

$$\Delta x = \sum_n v_{x_n, \text{avg}} \Delta t_n$$

where the symbol Σ (uppercase Greek sigma) signifies a sum over all terms, that is, over all values of n . Now, as the intervals are made smaller and smaller, the number of terms in the sum increases and the sum approaches a value equal to the area

Figure 2.15 Velocity versus time for a particle moving along the x axis. The total area under the curve is the total displacement of the particle.



under the curve in the velocity–time graph. Therefore, in the limit $n \rightarrow \infty$, or $\Delta t_n \rightarrow 0$, the displacement is

$$\Delta x = \lim_{\Delta t_n \rightarrow 0} \sum_n v_{xn,avg} \Delta t_n \quad (2.18)$$

If we know the v_x – t graph for motion along a straight line, we can obtain the displacement during any time interval by measuring the area under the curve corresponding to that time interval.

The limit of the sum shown in Equation 2.18 is called a **definite integral** and is written

$$\lim_{\Delta t_n \rightarrow 0} \sum_n v_{xn,avg} \Delta t_n = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} v_x(t) dt \quad (2.19)$$

where $v_x(t)$ denotes the velocity at any time t . If the explicit functional form of $v_x(t)$ is known and the limits are given, the integral can be evaluated. Sometimes the v_x – t graph for a moving particle has a shape much simpler than that shown in Figure 2.15. For example, suppose an object is described with the particle under constant velocity model. In this case, the v_x – t graph is a horizontal line as in Figure 2.16 and the displacement of the particle during the time interval Δt is simply the area of the shaded rectangle:

$$\Delta x = v_{xi} \Delta t \quad (\text{when } v_x = v_{xi} = \text{constant})$$

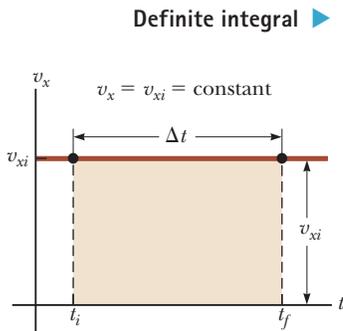


Figure 2.16 The velocity–time curve for a particle moving with constant velocity v_{xi} . The displacement of the particle during the time interval $t_f - t_i$ is equal to the area of the shaded rectangle.

Kinematic Equations

We now use the defining equations for acceleration and velocity to derive two of our kinematic equations, Equations 2.13 and 2.16.

The defining equation for acceleration (Eq. 2.10),

$$a_x = \frac{dv_x}{dt}$$

may be written as $dv_x = a_x dt$ or, in terms of an integral (or antiderivative), as

$$v_{xf} - v_{xi} = \int_0^t a_x dt$$

For the special case in which the acceleration is constant, a_x can be removed from the integral to give

$$v_{xf} - v_{xi} = a_x \int_0^t dt = a_x(t - 0) = a_x t \quad (2.20)$$

which is Equation 2.13 in the particle under constant acceleration model.

Now let us consider the defining equation for velocity (Eq. 2.5):

$$v_x = \frac{dx}{dt}$$

We can write this equation as $dx = v_x dt$ or in integral form as

$$x_f - x_i = \int_0^t v_x dt$$

Because $v_x = v_{xf} = v_{xi} + a_x t$, this expression becomes

$$x_f - x_i = \int_0^t (v_{xi} + a_x t) dt = \int_0^t v_{xi} dt + a_x \int_0^t t dt = v_{xi}(t - 0) + a_x \left(\frac{t^2}{2} - 0 \right)$$

$$x_f - x_i = v_{xi}t + \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2$$

which is Equation 2.16 in the particle under constant acceleration model.

Besides what you might expect to learn about physics concepts, a very valuable skill you should hope to take away from your physics course is the ability to solve complicated problems. The way physicists approach complex situations and break them into manageable pieces is extremely useful. The following is a general problem-solving strategy to guide you through the steps. To help you remember the steps of the strategy, they are *Conceptualize*, *Categorize*, *Analyze*, and *Finalize*.

GENERAL PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGY

Conceptualize

- The first things to do when approaching a problem are to *think about* and *understand* the situation. Study carefully any representations of the information (for example, diagrams, graphs, tables, or photographs) that accompany the problem. Imagine a movie, running in your mind, of what happens in the problem.
- If a pictorial representation is not provided, you should almost always make a quick drawing of the situation. Indicate any known values, perhaps in a table or directly on your sketch.
- Now focus on what algebraic or numerical information is given in the problem. Carefully read the problem statement, looking for key phrases such as “starts from rest” ($v_i = 0$), “stops” ($v_f = 0$), or “falls freely” ($a_y = -g = -9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$).
- Now focus on the expected result of solving the problem. Exactly what is the question asking? Will the final result be numerical or algebraic? Do you know what units to expect?
- Don't forget to incorporate information from your own experiences and common sense. What should a reasonable answer look like? For example, you wouldn't expect to calculate the speed of an automobile to be $5 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s}$.

Categorize

- Once you have a good idea of what the problem is about, you need to *simplify* the problem. Remove

the details that are not important to the solution.

For example, model a moving object as a particle. If appropriate, ignore air resistance or friction between a sliding object and a surface.

- Once the problem is simplified, it is important to *categorize* the problem. Is it a simple *substitution problem* such that numbers can be substituted into a simple equation or a definition? If so, the problem is likely to be finished when this substitution is done. If not, you face what we call an *analysis problem*: the situation must be analyzed more deeply to generate an appropriate equation and reach a solution.
- If it is an analysis problem, it needs to be categorized further. Have you seen this type of problem before? Does it fall into the growing list of types of problems that you have solved previously? If so, identify any analysis model(s) appropriate for the problem to prepare for the Analyze step below. We saw the first three analysis models in this chapter: the particle under constant velocity, the particle under constant speed, and the particle under constant acceleration. Being able to classify a problem with an analysis model can make it much easier to lay out a plan to solve it. For example, if your simplification shows that the problem can be treated as a particle under constant acceleration and you have already solved such a problem (such as the examples in Section 2.6), the solution to the present problem follows a similar pattern.

continued

Analyze

- Now you must analyze the problem and strive for a mathematical solution. Because you have already categorized the problem and identified an analysis model, it should not be too difficult to select relevant equations that apply to the type of situation in the problem. For example, if the problem involves a particle under constant acceleration, Equations 2.13 to 2.17 are relevant.
- Use algebra (and calculus, if necessary) to solve symbolically for the unknown variable in terms of what is given. Finally, substitute in the appropriate numbers, calculate the result, and round it to the proper number of significant figures.

Finalize

- Examine your numerical answer. Does it have the correct units? Does it meet your expectations from your conceptualization of the problem? What about the algebraic form of the result? Does it make sense? Examine the variables in the problem to see whether the answer would change in a physically meaningful way if the variables were drastically increased or decreased or even became zero. Looking at limiting cases to see whether they yield expected values is a very useful way to make sure that you are obtaining reasonable results.

- Think about how this problem compared with others you have solved. How was it similar? In what critical ways did it differ? Why was this problem assigned? Can you figure out what you have learned by doing it? If it is a new category of problem, be sure you understand it so that you can use it as a model for solving similar problems in the future.

When solving complex problems, you may need to identify a series of subproblems and apply the problem-solving strategy to each. For simple problems, you probably don't need this strategy. When you are trying to solve a problem and you don't know what to do next, however, remember the steps in the strategy and use them as a guide.

For practice, it would be useful for you to revisit the worked examples in this chapter and identify the *Conceptualize*, *Categorize*, *Analyze*, and *Finalize* steps. In the rest of this book, we will label these steps explicitly in the worked examples. Many chapters in this book include a section labeled Problem-Solving Strategy that should help you through the rough spots. These sections are organized according to the General Problem-Solving Strategy outlined above and are tailored to the specific types of problems addressed in that chapter.

To clarify how this Strategy works, we repeat Example 2.7 below with the particular steps of the Strategy identified.

When you **Conceptualize** a problem, try to understand the situation that is presented in the problem statement. Study carefully any representations of the information (for example, diagrams, graphs, tables, or photographs) that accompany the problem. Imagine a movie, running in your mind, of what happens in the problem.

Simplify the problem. Remove the details that are not important to the solution. Then **Categorize** the problem. Is it a simple substitution problem such that numbers can be substituted into a simple equation or a definition? If not, you face an analysis problem. In this case, identify the appropriate analysis model.

Example 2.7 Carrier Landing **AM**

A jet lands on an aircraft carrier at a speed of 140 mi/h (≈ 63 m/s).

(A) What is its acceleration (assumed constant) if it stops in 2.0 s due to an arresting cable that snags the jet and brings it to a stop?

SOLUTION**Conceptualize**

You might have seen movies or television shows in which a jet lands on an aircraft carrier and is brought to rest surprisingly fast by an arresting cable. A careful reading of the problem reveals that in addition to being given the initial speed of 63 m/s, we also know that the final speed is zero.

Categorize

Because the acceleration of the jet is assumed constant, we model it as a *particle under constant acceleration*.

2.7 continued

Analyze

We define our x axis as the direction of motion of the jet. Notice that we have no information about the change in position of the jet while it is slowing down.

Equation 2.13 is the only equation in the particle under constant acceleration model that does not involve position, so we use it to find the acceleration of the jet, modeled as a particle:

$$\begin{aligned} a_x &= \frac{v_{xf} - v_{xi}}{t} = \frac{0 - 63 \text{ m/s}}{2.0 \text{ s}} \\ &= -32 \text{ m/s}^2 \end{aligned}$$

(B) If the jet touches down at position $x_i = 0$, what is its final position?

SOLUTION

Use Equation 2.15 to solve for the final position:

$$x_f = x_i + \frac{1}{2}(v_{xi} + v_{xf})t = 0 + \frac{1}{2}(63 \text{ m/s} + 0)(2.0 \text{ s}) = 63 \text{ m}$$

Finalize

Given the size of aircraft carriers, a length of 63 m seems reasonable for stopping the jet. The idea of using arresting cables to slow down landing aircraft and enable them to land safely on ships originated at about the time of World War I. The cables are still a vital part of the operation of modern aircraft carriers.

WHAT IF? Suppose the jet lands on the deck of the aircraft carrier with a speed higher than 63 m/s but has the same acceleration due to the cable as that calculated in part (A). How will that change the answer to part (B)?

Answer If the jet is traveling faster at the beginning, it will stop farther away from its starting point, so the answer to part (B) should be larger. Mathematically, we see in Equation 2.15 that if v_{xi} is larger, x_f will be larger.

Now **Analyze** the problem. Select relevant equations from the analysis model. Solve symbolically for the unknown variable in terms of what is given. Substitute in the appropriate numbers, calculate the result, and round it to the proper number of significant figures.

Finalize the problem. Examine the numerical answer. Does it have the correct units? Does it meet your expectations from your conceptualization of the problem? Does the answer make sense? What about the algebraic form of the result? Examine the variables in the problem to see whether the answer would change in a physically meaningful way if the variables were drastically increased or decreased or even became zero.

What If? questions will appear in many examples in the text, and offer a variation on the situation just explored. This feature encourages you to think about the results of the example and assists in conceptual understanding of the principles.

Summary

Definitions

When a particle moves along the x axis from some initial position x_i to some final position x_f , its **displacement** is

$$\Delta x \equiv x_f - x_i \quad (2.1)$$

The **average velocity** of a particle during some time interval is the displacement Δx divided by the time interval Δt during which that displacement occurs:

$$v_{x,\text{avg}} \equiv \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \quad (2.2)$$

The **average speed** of a particle is equal to the ratio of the total distance it travels to the total time interval during which it travels that distance:

$$v_{\text{avg}} \equiv \frac{d}{\Delta t} \quad (2.3)$$

continued

The **instantaneous velocity** of a particle is defined as the limit of the ratio $\Delta x/\Delta t$ as Δt approaches zero. By definition, this limit equals the derivative of x with respect to t , or the time rate of change of the position:

$$v_x \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{dx}{dt} \quad (2.5)$$

The **instantaneous speed** of a particle is equal to the magnitude of its instantaneous velocity.

The **average acceleration** of a particle is defined as the ratio of the change in its velocity Δv_x divided by the time interval Δt during which that change occurs:

$$a_{x,\text{avg}} \equiv \frac{\Delta v_x}{\Delta t} = \frac{v_{xf} - v_{xi}}{t_f - t_i} \quad (2.9)$$

The **instantaneous acceleration** is equal to the limit of the ratio $\Delta v_x/\Delta t$ as Δt approaches 0. By definition, this limit equals the derivative of v_x with respect to t , or the time rate of change of the velocity:

$$a_x \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta v_x}{\Delta t} = \frac{dv_x}{dt} \quad (2.10)$$

Concepts and Principles

When an object's velocity and acceleration are in the same direction, the object is speeding up. On the other hand, when the object's velocity and acceleration are in opposite directions, the object is slowing down. Remembering that $F_x \propto a_x$ is a useful way to identify the direction of the acceleration by associating it with a force.

An object falling freely in the presence of the Earth's gravity experiences free-fall acceleration directed toward the center of the Earth. If air resistance is neglected, if the motion occurs near the surface of the Earth, and if the range of the motion is small compared with the Earth's radius, the free-fall acceleration $a_y = -g$ is constant over the range of motion, where g is equal to 9.80 m/s^2 .

Complicated problems are best approached in an organized manner. Recall and apply the *Conceptualize*, *Categorize*, *Analyze*, and *Finalize* steps of the **General Problem-Solving Strategy** when you need them.

An important aid to problem solving is the use of **analysis models**. Analysis models are situations that we have seen in previous problems. Each analysis model has one or more equations associated with it. When solving a new problem, identify the analysis model that corresponds to the problem. The model will tell you which equations to use. The first three analysis models introduced in this chapter are summarized below.

Analysis Models for Problem-Solving

Particle Under Constant Velocity. If a particle moves in a straight line with a constant speed v_x , its constant velocity is given by

$$v_x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \quad (2.6)$$

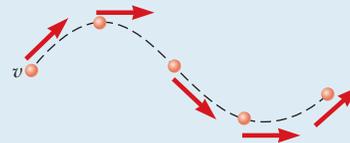
and its position is given by

$$x_f = x_i + v_x t \quad (2.7)$$



Particle Under Constant Speed. If a particle moves a distance d along a curved or straight path with a constant speed, its constant speed is given by

$$v = \frac{d}{\Delta t} \quad (2.8)$$



Particle Under Constant Acceleration. If a particle moves in a straight line with a constant acceleration a_x , its motion is described by the kinematic equations:

$$v_{xf} = v_{xi} + a_x t \quad (2.13)$$

$$v_{x,\text{avg}} = \frac{v_{xi} + v_{xf}}{2} \quad (2.14)$$

$$x_f = x_i + \frac{1}{2}(v_{xi} + v_{xf})t \quad (2.15)$$

$$x_f = x_i + v_{xi}t + \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2 \quad (2.16)$$

$$v_{xf}^2 = v_{xi}^2 + 2a_x(x_f - x_i) \quad (2.17)$$



Objective Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

1. One drop of oil falls straight down onto the road from the engine of a moving car every 5 s. Figure OQ2.1 shows the pattern of the drops left behind on the pavement. What is the average speed of the car over this section of its motion? (a) 20 m/s (b) 24 m/s (c) 30 m/s (d) 100 m/s (e) 120 m/s

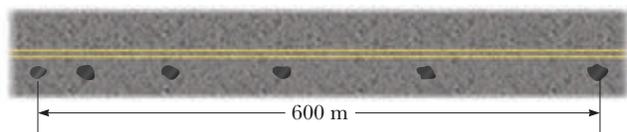


Figure OQ2.1

2. A racing car starts from rest at $t = 0$ and reaches a final speed v at time t . If the acceleration of the car is constant during this time, which of the following statements are true? (a) The car travels a distance vt . (b) The average speed of the car is $v/2$. (c) The magnitude of the acceleration of the car is v/t . (d) The velocity of the car remains constant. (e) None of statements (a) through (d) is true.
3. A juggler throws a bowling pin straight up in the air. After the pin leaves his hand and while it is in the air, which statement is true? (a) The velocity of the pin is always in the same direction as its acceleration. (b) The velocity of the pin is never in the same direction as its acceleration. (c) The acceleration of the pin is zero. (d) The velocity of the pin is opposite its acceleration on the way up. (e) The velocity of the pin is in the same direction as its acceleration on the way up.
4. When applying the equations of kinematics for an object moving in one dimension, which of the following statements *must* be true? (a) The velocity of the object must remain constant. (b) The acceleration of the object must remain constant. (c) The velocity of the object must increase with time. (d) The position of the object must increase with time. (e) The velocity of the object must always be in the same direction as its acceleration.
5. A cannon shell is fired straight up from the ground at an initial speed of 225 m/s. After how much time is the shell at a height of 6.20×10^2 m above the ground and moving downward? (a) 2.96 s (b) 17.3 s (c) 25.4 s (d) 33.6 s (e) 43.0 s
6. An arrow is shot straight up in the air at an initial speed of 15.0 m/s. After how much time is the arrow moving downward at a speed of 8.00 m/s? (a) 0.714 s (b) 1.24 s (c) 1.87 s (d) 2.35 s (e) 3.22 s
7. When the pilot reverses the propeller in a boat moving north, the boat moves with an acceleration directed south. Assume the acceleration of the boat remains constant in magnitude and direction. What happens to the boat? (a) It eventually stops and remains stopped. (b) It eventually stops and then speeds up in the forward direction. (c) It eventually stops and then speeds up in the reverse direction. (d) It never stops but loses speed more and more slowly forever. (e) It never stops but continues to speed up in the forward direction.
8. A rock is thrown downward from the top of a 40.0-m-tall tower with an initial speed of 12 m/s. Assuming negligible air resistance, what is the speed of the rock just before hitting the ground? (a) 28 m/s (b) 30 m/s (c) 56 m/s (d) 784 m/s (e) More information is needed.
9. A skateboarder starts from rest and moves down a hill with constant acceleration in a straight line, traveling for 6 s. In a second trial, he starts from rest and moves along the same straight line with the same acceleration for only 2 s. How does his displacement from his starting point in this second trial compare with that from the first trial? (a) one-third as large (b) three times larger (c) one-ninth as large (d) nine times larger (e) $1/\sqrt{3}$ times as large
10. On another planet, a marble is released from rest at the top of a high cliff. It falls 4.00 m in the first 1 s of its motion. Through what additional distance does it fall in the next 1 s? (a) 4.00 m (b) 8.00 m (c) 12.0 m (d) 16.0 m (e) 20.0 m
11. As an object moves along the x axis, many measurements are made of its position, enough to generate a smooth, accurate graph of x versus t . Which of the following quantities for the object *cannot* be obtained from this graph *alone*? (a) the velocity at any instant (b) the acceleration at any instant (c) the displacement during some time interval (d) the average velocity during some time interval (e) the speed at any instant
12. A pebble is dropped from rest from the top of a tall cliff and falls 4.9 m after 1.0 s has elapsed. How much farther does it drop in the next 2.0 s? (a) 9.8 m (b) 19.6 m (c) 39 m (d) 44 m (e) none of the above
13. A student at the top of a building of height h throws one ball upward with a speed of v_i and then throws a second ball downward with the same initial speed v_i . Just before it reaches the ground, is the final speed of the ball thrown upward (a) larger, (b) smaller, or (c) the same in magnitude, compared with the final speed of the ball thrown downward?
14. You drop a ball from a window located on an upper floor of a building. It strikes the ground with speed v . You now repeat the drop, but your friend down on the ground throws another ball upward at the same speed v , releasing her ball at the same moment that you drop yours from the window. At some location, the balls pass each other. Is this location (a) *at* the halfway point between window and ground, (b) *above* this point, or (c) *below* this point?
15. A pebble is released from rest at a certain height and falls freely, reaching an impact speed of 4 m/s at the floor. Next, the pebble is thrown down with an initial speed of 3 m/s from the same height. What is its speed at the floor? (a) 4 m/s (b) 5 m/s (c) 6 m/s (d) 7 m/s (e) 8 m/s

16. A ball is thrown straight up in the air. For which situation are both the instantaneous velocity and the acceleration zero? (a) on the way up (b) at the top of its flight path (c) on the way down (d) halfway up and halfway down (e) none of the above

17. A hard rubber ball, not affected by air resistance in its motion, is tossed upward from shoulder height, falls to the sidewalk, rebounds to a smaller maximum height, and is caught on its way down again. This motion is represented in Figure OQ2.17, where the successive positions of the ball **A** through **E** are not equally spaced in time. At point **D** the center of the ball is at its lowest point in the motion. The motion of the ball is along a straight, vertical line, but the diagram shows successive positions offset to the right to avoid overlapping. Choose the positive y direction to be upward. (a) Rank the situations **A** through **E** according to the speed of the ball $|v_y|$ at each point, with the largest speed first. (b) Rank the same situations according to the acceleration a_y of the ball at each point. (In both rankings, remember that zero is greater than a negative value. If two values are equal, show that they are equal in your ranking.)

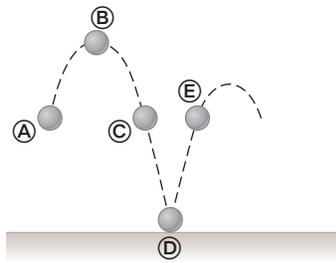
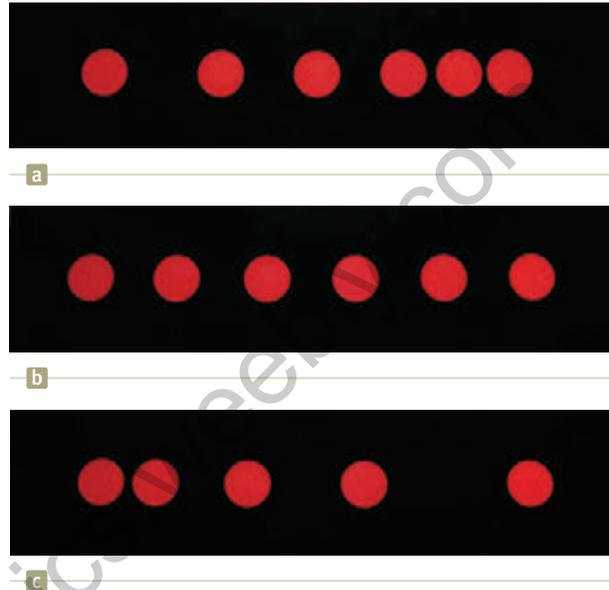


Figure OQ2.17

18. Each of the strobe photographs (a), (b), and (c) in Figure OQ2.18 was taken of a single disk moving toward the right, which we take as the positive direction. Within each photograph, the time interval between images is constant. (i) Which photograph shows motion with zero acceleration? (ii) Which photograph shows motion with positive acceleration? (iii) Which photograph shows motion with negative acceleration?



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Figure OQ2.18 Objective Question 18 and Problem 23.

Conceptual Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

- If the average velocity of an object is zero in some time interval, what can you say about the displacement of the object for that interval?
- Try the following experiment away from traffic where you can do it safely. With the car you are driving moving slowly on a straight, level road, shift the transmission into neutral and let the car coast. At the moment the car comes to a complete stop, step hard on the brake and notice what you feel. Now repeat the same experiment on a fairly gentle, uphill slope. Explain the difference in what a person riding in the car feels in the two cases. (Brian Popp suggested the idea for this question.)
- If a car is traveling eastward, can its acceleration be westward? Explain.
- If the velocity of a particle is zero, can the particle's acceleration be zero? Explain.
- If the velocity of a particle is nonzero, can the particle's acceleration be zero? Explain.
- You throw a ball vertically upward so that it leaves the ground with velocity $+5.00$ m/s. (a) What is its velocity when it reaches its maximum altitude? (b) What is its acceleration at this point? (c) What is the velocity with which it returns to ground level? (d) What is its acceleration at this point?
- (a) Can the equations of kinematics (Eqs. 2.13–2.17) be used in a situation in which the acceleration varies in time? (b) Can they be used when the acceleration is zero?
- (a) Can the velocity of an object at an instant of time be greater in magnitude than the average velocity over a time interval containing the instant? (b) Can it be less?
- Two cars are moving in the same direction in parallel lanes along a highway. At some instant, the velocity of car A exceeds the velocity of car B. Does that mean that the acceleration of car A is greater than that of car B? Explain.

Problems

WebAssign The problems found in this chapter may be assigned online in Enhanced WebAssign

1. straightforward; 2. intermediate; 3. challenging

1. full solution available in the *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

AMT Analysis Model tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

GP Guided Problem

M Master It tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

W Watch It video solution available in Enhanced WebAssign

Section 2.1 Position, Velocity, and Speed

1. The position versus time for a certain particle moving along the x axis is shown in Figure P2.1. Find the average velocity in the time intervals (a) 0 to 2 s, (b) 0 to 4 s, (c) 2 s to 4 s, (d) 4 s to 7 s, and (e) 0 to 8 s.

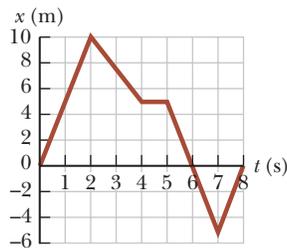


Figure P2.1 Problems 1 and 9.

2. The speed of a nerve impulse in the human body is about 100 m/s. If you accidentally stub your toe in the dark, estimate the time it takes the nerve impulse to travel to your brain.
3. A person walks first at a constant speed of 5.00 m/s along a straight line from point A to point B and then back along the line from B to A at a constant speed of 3.00 m/s. (a) What is her average speed over the entire trip? (b) What is her average velocity over the entire trip?
4. A particle moves according to the equation $x = 10t^2$, where x is in meters and t is in seconds. (a) Find the average velocity for the time interval from 2.00 s to 3.00 s. (b) Find the average velocity for the time interval from 2.00 to 2.10 s.
5. The position of a pinewood derby car was observed at various times; the results are summarized in the following table. Find the average velocity of the car for (a) the first second, (b) the last 3 s, and (c) the entire period of observation.

| | | | | | | |
|---------|---|-----|-----|------|------|------|
| t (s) | 0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 5.0 |
| x (m) | 0 | 2.3 | 9.2 | 20.7 | 36.8 | 57.5 |

Section 2.2 Instantaneous Velocity and Speed

6. The position of a particle moving along the x axis varies in time according to the expression $x = 3t^2$, where x is in meters and t is in seconds. Evaluate its position (a) at $t = 3.00$ s and (b) at 3.00 s + Δt . (c) Evaluate the limit of $\Delta x/\Delta t$ as Δt approaches zero to find the velocity at $t = 3.00$ s.

7. A position–time graph for a particle moving along the x axis is shown in Figure P2.7. (a) Find the average velocity in the time interval $t = 1.50$ s to $t = 4.00$ s. (b) Determine the instantaneous velocity at $t = 2.00$ s by measuring the slope of the tangent line shown in the graph. (c) At what value of t is the velocity zero?

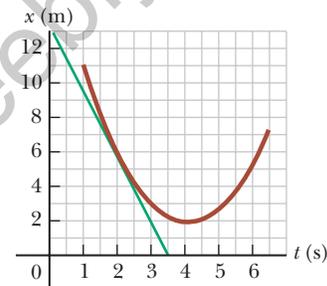


Figure P2.7

8. An athlete leaves one end of a pool of length L at $t = 0$ and arrives at the other end at time t_1 . She swims back and arrives at the starting position at time t_2 . If she is swimming initially in the positive x direction, determine her average velocities symbolically in (a) the first half of the swim, (b) the second half of the swim, and (c) the round trip. (d) What is her average speed for the round trip?
9. Find the instantaneous velocity of the particle described in Figure P2.1 at the following times: (a) $t = 1.0$ s, (b) $t = 3.0$ s, (c) $t = 4.5$ s, and (d) $t = 7.5$ s.

Section 2.3 Analysis Model: Particle Under Constant Velocity

10. **Review.** The North American and European plates of the Earth's crust are drifting apart with a relative speed of about 25 mm/yr. Take the speed as constant and find when the rift between them started to open, to reach a current width of 2.9×10^3 mi.
11. A hare and a tortoise compete in a race over a straight course 1.00 km long. The tortoise crawls at a speed of 0.200 m/s toward the finish line. The hare runs at a speed of 8.00 m/s toward the finish line for 0.800 km and then stops to tease the slow-moving tortoise as the tortoise eventually passes by. The hare waits for a while after the tortoise passes and then runs toward the finish line again at 8.00 m/s. Both the hare and the tortoise cross the finish line at the exact same instant. Assume both animals, when moving, move steadily at

their respective speeds. (a) How far is the tortoise from the finish line when the hare resumes the race? (b) For how long in time was the hare stationary?

- 12.** A car travels along a straight line at a constant speed of 60.0 mi/h for a distance d and then another distance d in the same direction at another constant speed. The average velocity for the entire trip is 30.0 mi/h. (a) What is the constant speed with which the car moved during the second distance d ? (b) **What If?** Suppose the second distance d were traveled in the opposite direction; you forgot something and had to return home at the same constant speed as found in part (a). What is the average velocity for this trip? (c) What is the average speed for this new trip?

- 13.** A person takes a trip, driving with a constant speed of 89.5 km/h, except for a 22.0-min rest stop. If the person's average speed is 77.8 km/h, (a) how much time is spent on the trip and (b) how far does the person travel?

Section 2.4 Acceleration

- 14.** **Review.** A 50.0-g Super Ball traveling at 25.0 m/s bounces off a brick wall and rebounds at 22.0 m/s. A high-speed camera records this event. If the ball is in contact with the wall for 3.50 ms, what is the magnitude of the average acceleration of the ball during this time interval?

- 15.** A velocity–time graph for an object moving along the x axis is shown in Figure P2.15. (a) Plot a graph of the acceleration versus time. Determine the average acceleration of the object (b) in the time interval $t = 5.00$ s to $t = 15.0$ s and (c) in the time interval $t = 0$ to $t = 20.0$ s.

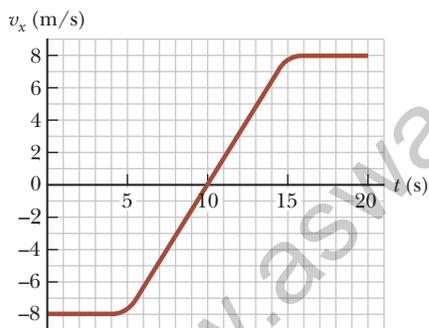


Figure P2.15

- 16.** A child rolls a marble on a bent track that is 100 cm long as shown in Figure P2.16. We use x to represent the position of the marble along the track. On the horizontal sections from $x = 0$ to $x = 20$ cm and from $x = 40$ cm to $x = 60$ cm, the marble rolls with constant speed. On the sloping sections, the marble's speed changes steadily. At the places where the slope changes, the marble stays on the track and does not undergo any sudden changes in speed. The child gives the marble some initial speed at $x = 0$ and $t = 0$ and then watches it roll to $x = 90$ cm, where it turns around, eventually returning to $x = 0$ with the same speed with which the child released it. Prepare graphs of x versus t , v_x versus t , and a_x versus t , vertically aligned with their time axes identical, to show the motion of the marble. You will not be able to place numbers other than zero on the

horizontal axis or on the velocity or acceleration axes, but show the correct graph shapes.

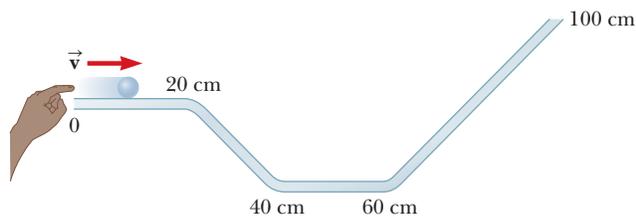


Figure P2.16

- 17.** Figure P2.17 shows a graph of v_x versus t for the motion of a motorcyclist as he starts from rest and moves along the road in a straight line. (a) Find the average acceleration for the time interval $t = 0$ to $t = 6.00$ s. (b) Estimate the time at which the acceleration has its greatest positive value and the value of the acceleration at that instant. (c) When is the acceleration zero? (d) Estimate the maximum negative value of the acceleration and the time at which it occurs.

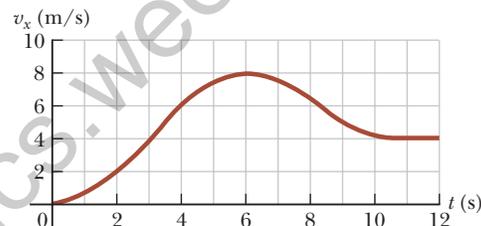


Figure P2.17

- 18.** (a) Use the data in Problem 5 to construct a smooth graph of position versus time. (b) By constructing tangents to the $x(t)$ curve, find the instantaneous velocity of the car at several instants. (c) Plot the instantaneous velocity versus time and, from this information, determine the average acceleration of the car. (d) What was the initial velocity of the car?

- 19.** A particle starts from rest and accelerates as shown in Figure P2.19. Determine (a) the particle's speed at $t = 10.0$ s and at $t = 20.0$ s, and (b) the distance traveled in the first 20.0 s.

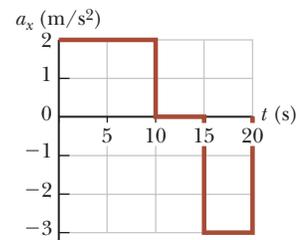


Figure P2.19

- 20.** An object moves along the x axis according to the equation $x = 3.00t^2 - 2.00t + 3.00$, where x is in meters and t is in seconds. Determine (a) the average speed between $t = 2.00$ s and $t = 3.00$ s, (b) the instantaneous speed at $t = 2.00$ s and at $t = 3.00$ s, (c) the average acceleration between $t = 2.00$ s and $t = 3.00$ s, and (d) the instantaneous acceleration at $t = 2.00$ s and $t = 3.00$ s. (e) At what time is the object at rest?

- 21.** A particle moves along the x axis according to the equation $x = 2.00 + 3.00t - 1.00t^2$, where x is in meters and t is in seconds. At $t = 3.00$ s, find (a) the position of the particle, (b) its velocity, and (c) its acceleration.

Section 2.5 Motion Diagrams

22. Draw motion diagrams for (a) an object moving to the right at constant speed, (b) an object moving to the right and speeding up at a constant rate, (c) an object moving to the right and slowing down at a constant rate, (d) an object moving to the left and speeding up at a constant rate, and (e) an object moving to the left and slowing down at a constant rate. (f) How would your drawings change if the changes in speed were not uniform, that is, if the speed were not changing at a constant rate?
23. Each of the strobe photographs (a), (b), and (c) in Figure OQ2.18 was taken of a single disk moving toward the right, which we take as the positive direction. Within each photograph the time interval between images is constant. For each photograph, prepare graphs of x versus t , v_x versus t , and a_x versus t , vertically aligned with their time axes identical, to show the motion of the disk. You will not be able to place numbers other than zero on the axes, but show the correct shapes for the graph lines.

Section 2.6 Analysis Model: Particle Under Constant Acceleration

24. The minimum distance required to stop a car moving at 35.0 mi/h is 40.0 ft. What is the minimum stopping distance for the same car moving at 70.0 mi/h, assuming the same rate of acceleration?
25. An electron in a cathode-ray tube accelerates uniformly from 2.00×10^4 m/s to 6.00×10^6 m/s over 1.50 cm. (a) In what time interval does the electron travel this 1.50 cm? (b) What is its acceleration?
26. A speedboat moving at 30.0 m/s approaches a no-wake buoy marker 100 m ahead. The pilot slows the boat with a constant acceleration of -3.50 m/s² by reducing the throttle. (a) How long does it take the boat to reach the buoy? (b) What is the velocity of the boat when it reaches the buoy?
27. A parcel of air moving in a straight tube with a constant acceleration of -4.00 m/s² has a velocity of 13.0 m/s at 10:05:00 a.m. (a) What is its velocity at 10:05:01 a.m.? (b) At 10:05:04 a.m.? (c) At 10:04:59 a.m.? (d) Describe the shape of a graph of velocity versus time for this parcel of air. (e) Argue for or against the following statement: "Knowing the single value of an object's constant acceleration is like knowing a whole list of values for its velocity."
28. A truck covers 40.0 m in 8.50 s while smoothly slowing down to a final speed of 2.80 m/s. (a) Find its original speed. (b) Find its acceleration.
29. An object moving with uniform acceleration has a velocity of 12.0 cm/s in the positive x direction when its x coordinate is 3.00 cm. If its x coordinate 2.00 s later is -5.00 cm, what is its acceleration?
30. In Example 2.7, we investigated a jet landing on an aircraft carrier. In a later maneuver, the jet comes in for a landing on solid ground with a speed of 100 m/s, and its acceleration can have a maximum magnitude

of 5.00 m/s² as it comes to rest. (a) From the instant the jet touches the runway, what is the minimum time interval needed before it can come to rest? (b) Can this jet land at a small tropical island airport where the runway is 0.800 km long? (c) Explain your answer.

31. **Review.** Colonel John P. Stapp, USAF, participated in studying whether a jet pilot could survive emergency ejection. On March 19, 1954, he rode a rocket-propelled sled that moved down a track at a speed of 632 mi/h. He and the sled were safely brought to rest in 1.40 s (Fig. P2.31). Determine (a) the negative acceleration he experienced and (b) the distance he traveled during this negative acceleration.

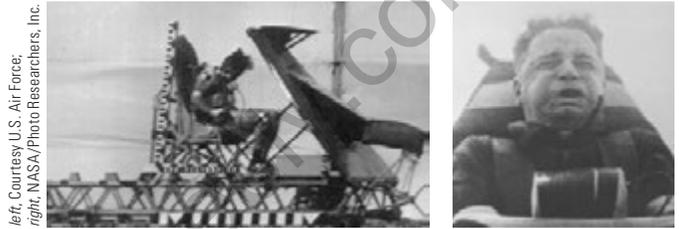


Figure P2.31 (left) Col. John Stapp and his rocket sled are brought to rest in a very short time interval. (right) Stapp's face is contorted by the stress of rapid negative acceleration.

32. Solve Example 2.8 by a graphical method. On the same graph, plot position versus time for the car and the trooper. From the intersection of the two curves, read the time at which the trooper overtakes the car.
33. A truck on a straight road starts from rest, accelerating at 2.00 m/s² until it reaches a speed of 20.0 m/s. Then the truck travels for 20.0 s at constant speed until the brakes are applied, stopping the truck in a uniform manner in an additional 5.00 s. (a) How long is the truck in motion? (b) What is the average velocity of the truck for the motion described?
34. *Why is the following situation impossible?* Starting from rest, a charging rhinoceros moves 50.0 m in a straight line in 10.0 s. Her acceleration is constant during the entire motion, and her final speed is 8.00 m/s.
35. **AMT** The driver of a car slams on the brakes when he sees a tree blocking the road. The car slows uniformly with an acceleration of -5.60 m/s² for 4.20 s, making straight skid marks 62.4 m long, all the way to the tree. With what speed does the car then strike the tree?
36. In the particle under constant acceleration model, we identify the variables and parameters v_{xi} , v_{xf} , a_x , t , and $x_f - x_i$. Of the equations in the model, Equations 2.13–2.17, the first does not involve $x_f - x_i$, the second and third do not contain a_x , the fourth omits v_{xf} , and the last leaves out t . So, to complete the set, there should be an equation *not* involving v_{xi} . (a) Derive it from the others. (b) Use the equation in part (a) to solve Problem 35 in one step.
37. **AMT** A speedboat travels in a straight line and increases in speed uniformly from $v_i = 20.0$ m/s to $v_f = 30.0$ m/s in a displacement Δx of 200 m. We wish to find the time interval required for the boat to move through this

displacement. (a) Draw a coordinate system for this situation. (b) What analysis model is most appropriate for describing this situation? (c) From the analysis model, what equation is most appropriate for finding the acceleration of the speedboat? (d) Solve the equation selected in part (c) symbolically for the boat's acceleration in terms of v_i , v_f , and Δx . (e) Substitute numerical values to obtain the acceleration numerically. (f) Find the time interval mentioned above.

38. A particle moves along the x axis. Its position is given by the equation $x = 2 + 3t - 4t^2$, with x in meters and t in seconds. Determine (a) its position when it changes direction and (b) its velocity when it returns to the position it had at $t = 0$.

39. A glider of length ℓ moves through a stationary photogate on an air track. A photogate (Fig. P2.39) is a device that measures the time interval Δt_d during which the glider blocks a beam of infrared light passing across the photogate. The ratio $v_d = \ell/\Delta t_d$ is the average velocity of the glider over this part of its motion. Suppose the glider moves with constant acceleration. (a) Argue for or against the idea that v_d is equal to the instantaneous velocity of the glider when it is halfway through the photogate in space. (b) Argue for or against the idea that v_d is equal to the instantaneous velocity of the glider when it is halfway through the photogate in time.

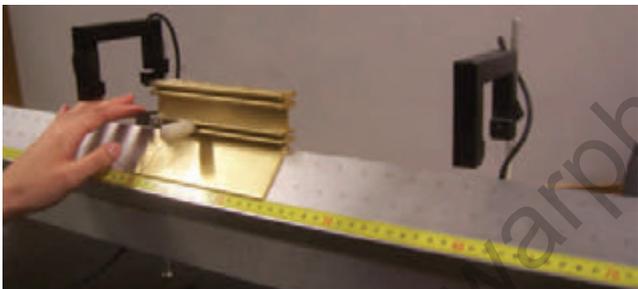


Figure P2.39 Problems 39 and 40.

40. A glider of length 12.4 cm moves on an air track with constant acceleration (Fig. P2.39). A time interval of 0.628 s elapses between the moment when its front end passes a fixed point \textcircled{A} along the track and the moment when its back end passes this point. Next, a time interval of 1.39 s elapses between the moment when the back end of the glider passes the point \textcircled{A} and the moment when the front end of the glider passes a second point \textcircled{B} farther down the track. After that, an additional 0.431 s elapses until the back end of the glider passes point \textcircled{B} . (a) Find the average speed of the glider as it passes point \textcircled{A} . (b) Find the acceleration of the glider. (c) Explain how you can compute the acceleration without knowing the distance between points \textcircled{A} and \textcircled{B} .

41. An object moves with constant acceleration 4.00 m/s^2 and over a time interval reaches a final velocity of 12.0 m/s . (a) If its initial velocity is 6.00 m/s , what is its displacement during the time interval? (b) What is the distance it travels during this interval? (c) If its initial velocity is -6.00 m/s , what is its displacement during

the time interval? (d) What is the total distance it travels during the interval in part (c)?

42. At $t = 0$, one toy car is set rolling on a straight track with initial position 15.0 cm , initial velocity -3.50 cm/s , and constant acceleration 2.40 cm/s^2 . At the same moment, another toy car is set rolling on an adjacent track with initial position 10.0 cm , initial velocity $+5.50 \text{ cm/s}$, and constant acceleration zero. (a) At what time, if any, do the two cars have equal speeds? (b) What are their speeds at that time? (c) At what time(s), if any, do the cars pass each other? (d) What are their locations at that time? (e) Explain the difference between question (a) and question (c) as clearly as possible.

43. Figure P2.43 represents part of the performance data of a car owned by a proud physics student. (a) Calculate the total distance traveled by computing the area under the red-brown graph line. (b) What distance does the car travel between the times $t = 10 \text{ s}$ and $t = 40 \text{ s}$?

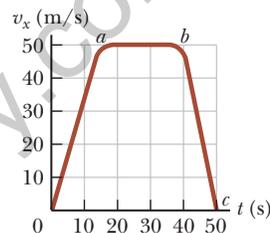


Figure P2.43

(c) Draw a graph of its acceleration versus time between $t = 0$ and $t = 50 \text{ s}$. (d) Write an equation for x as a function of time for each phase of the motion, represented by the segments $0a$, ab , and bc . (e) What is the average velocity of the car between $t = 0$ and $t = 50 \text{ s}$?

44. A hockey player is standing on his skates on a frozen pond when an opposing player, moving with a uniform speed of 12.0 m/s , skates by with the puck. After 3.00 s , the first player makes up his mind to chase his opponent. If he accelerates uniformly at 4.00 m/s^2 , (a) how long does it take him to catch his opponent and (b) how far has he traveled in that time? (Assume the player with the puck remains in motion at constant speed.)

Section 2.7 Freely Falling Objects

Note: In all problems in this section, ignore the effects of air resistance.

45. In Chapter 9, we will define the center of mass of an object and prove that its motion is described by the particle under constant acceleration model when constant forces act on the object. A gymnast jumps straight up, with her center of mass moving at 2.80 m/s as she leaves the ground. How high above this point is her center of mass (a) 0.100 s , (b) 0.200 s , (c) 0.300 s , and (d) 0.500 s thereafter?

46. An attacker at the base of a castle wall 3.65 m high throws a rock straight up with speed 7.40 m/s from a height of 1.55 m above the ground. (a) Will the rock reach the top of the wall? (b) If so, what is its speed at the top? If not, what initial speed must it have to reach the top? (c) Find the change in speed of a rock thrown straight down from the top of the wall at an initial speed of 7.40 m/s and moving between the same two

points. (d) Does the change in speed of the downward-moving rock agree with the magnitude of the speed change of the rock moving upward between the same elevations? (e) Explain physically why it does or does not agree.

47. Why is the following situation impossible? Emily challenges David to catch a \$1 bill as follows. She holds the bill vertically as shown in Figure P2.47, with the center of the bill between but not touching David's index finger and thumb. Without warning, Emily releases the bill. David catches the bill without moving his hand downward. David's reaction time is equal to the average human reaction time.



Figure P2.47

48. **W** A baseball is hit so that it travels straight upward after being struck by the bat. A fan observes that it takes 3.00 s for the ball to reach its maximum height. Find (a) the ball's initial velocity and (b) the height it reaches.
49. It is possible to shoot an arrow at a speed as high as 100 m/s. (a) If friction can be ignored, how high would an arrow launched at this speed rise if shot straight up? (b) How long would the arrow be in the air?
50. The height of a helicopter above the ground is given by $h = 3.00t^3$, where h is in meters and t is in seconds. At $t = 2.00$ s, the helicopter releases a small mailbag. How long after its release does the mailbag reach the ground?
51. **W** A ball is thrown directly downward with an initial speed of 8.00 m/s from a height of 30.0 m. After what time interval does it strike the ground?
52. **M** A ball is thrown upward from the ground with an initial speed of 25 m/s; at the same instant, another ball is dropped from a building 15 m high. After how long will the balls be at the same height above the ground?
53. **M** A student throws a set of keys vertically upward to her sorority sister, who is in a window 4.00 m above. The second student catches the keys 1.50 s later. (a) With what initial velocity were the keys thrown? (b) What was the velocity of the keys just before they were caught?
54. At time $t = 0$, a student throws a set of keys vertically upward to her sorority sister, who is in a window at distance h above. The second student catches the keys at time t . (a) With what initial velocity were the keys thrown? (b) What was the velocity of the keys just before they were caught?
55. **AMT** A daring ranch hand sitting on a tree limb wishes to drop vertically onto a horse galloping under the tree. The constant speed of the horse is 10.0 m/s, and the distance from the limb to the level of the saddle is 3.00 m. (a) What must be the horizontal distance between the saddle and limb when the ranch hand makes his move? (b) For what time interval is he in the air?

56. A package is dropped at time $t = 0$ from a helicopter that is descending steadily at a speed v_i . (a) What is the speed of the package in terms of v_i , g , and t ? (b) What vertical distance d is it from the helicopter in terms of g and t ? (c) What are the answers to parts (a) and (b) if the helicopter is rising steadily at the same speed?

Section 2.8 Kinematic Equations Derived from Calculus

57. Automotive engineers refer to the time rate of change of acceleration as the "jerk." Assume an object moves in one dimension such that its jerk J is constant. (a) Determine expressions for its acceleration $a_x(t)$, velocity $v_x(t)$, and position $x(t)$, given that its initial acceleration, velocity, and position are a_{xi} , v_{xi} , and x_i , respectively. (b) Show that $a_x^2 = a_{xi}^2 + 2J(v_x - v_{xi})$.

58. A student drives a moped along a straight road as described by the velocity-time graph in Figure P2.58. Sketch this graph in the middle of a sheet of graph paper.

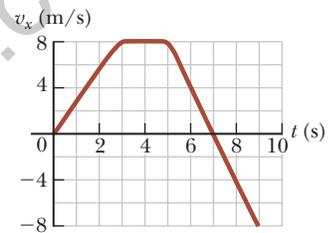


Figure P2.58

- (a) Directly above your graph, sketch a graph of the position versus time, aligning the time coordinates of the two graphs. (b) Sketch a graph of the acceleration versus time directly below the velocity-time graph, again aligning the time coordinates. On each graph, show the numerical values of x and a_x for all points of inflection. (c) What is the acceleration at $t = 6.00$ s? (d) Find the position (relative to the starting point) at $t = 6.00$ s. (e) What is the moped's final position at $t = 9.00$ s?
59. The speed of a bullet as it travels down the barrel of a rifle toward the opening is given by

$$v = (-5.00 \times 10^7)t^2 + (3.00 \times 10^5)t$$

where v is in meters per second and t is in seconds. The acceleration of the bullet just as it leaves the barrel is zero. (a) Determine the acceleration and position of the bullet as functions of time when the bullet is in the barrel. (b) Determine the time interval over which the bullet is accelerated. (c) Find the speed at which the bullet leaves the barrel. (d) What is the length of the barrel?

Additional Problems

60. A certain automobile manufacturer claims that its deluxe sports car will accelerate from rest to a speed of 42.0 m/s in 8.00 s. (a) Determine the average acceleration of the car. (b) Assume that the car moves with constant acceleration. Find the distance the car travels in the first 8.00 s. (c) What is the speed of the car 10.0 s after it begins its motion if it can continue to move with the same acceleration?
61. The froghopper *Philaenus spumarius* is supposedly the best jumper in the animal kingdom. To start a jump, this insect can accelerate at 4.00 km/s^2 over a distance of 2.00 mm as it straightens its specially adapted

“jumping legs.” Assume the acceleration is constant. (a) Find the upward velocity with which the insect takes off. (b) In what time interval does it reach this velocity? (c) How high would the insect jump if air resistance were negligible? The actual height it reaches is about 70 cm, so air resistance must be a noticeable force on the leaping frog hopper.

62. An object is at $x = 0$ at $t = 0$ and moves along the x axis according to the velocity–time graph in Figure P2.62. (a) What is the object’s acceleration between 0 and 4.0 s? (b) What is the object’s acceleration between 4.0 s and 9.0 s? (c) What is the object’s acceleration between 13.0 s and 18.0 s? (d) At what time(s) is the object moving with the lowest speed? (e) At what time is the object farthest from $x = 0$? (f) What is the final position x of the object at $t = 18.0$ s? (g) Through what total distance has the object moved between $t = 0$ and $t = 18.0$ s?

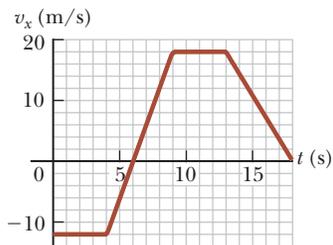


Figure P2.62

63. An inquisitive physics student and mountain climber climbs a 50.0-m-high cliff that overhangs a calm pool of water. He throws two stones vertically downward, 1.00 s apart, and observes that they cause a single splash. The first stone has an initial speed of 2.00 m/s. (a) How long after release of the first stone do the two stones hit the water? (b) What initial velocity must the second stone have if the two stones are to hit the water simultaneously? (c) What is the speed of each stone at the instant the two stones hit the water?

64. In Figure 2.11b, the area under the velocity–time graph and between the vertical axis and time t (vertical dashed line) represents the displacement. As shown, this area consists of a rectangle and a triangle. (a) Compute their areas. (b) Explain how the sum of the two areas compares with the expression on the right-hand side of Equation 2.16.

65. A ball starts from rest and accelerates at 0.500 m/s^2 while moving down an inclined plane 9.00 m long. When it reaches the bottom, the ball rolls up another plane, where it comes to rest after moving 15.0 m on that plane. (a) What is the speed of the ball at the bottom of the first plane? (b) During what time interval does the ball roll down the first plane? (c) What is the acceleration along the second plane? (d) What is the ball’s speed 8.00 m along the second plane?

66. A woman is reported to have fallen 144 ft from the 17th floor of a building, landing on a metal ventilator box that she crushed to a depth of 18.0 in. She suffered only minor injuries. Ignoring air resistance, calculate

(a) the speed of the woman just before she collided with the ventilator and (b) her average acceleration while in contact with the box. (c) Modeling her acceleration as constant, calculate the time interval it took to crush the box.

67. An elevator moves downward in a tall building at a constant speed of 5.00 m/s. Exactly 5.00 s after the top of the elevator car passes a bolt loosely attached to the wall of the elevator shaft, the bolt falls from rest. (a) At what time does the bolt hit the top of the still-descending elevator? (b) In what way is this problem similar to Example 2.8? (c) Estimate the highest floor from which the bolt can fall if the elevator reaches the ground floor before the bolt hits the top of the elevator.

68. Why is the following situation impossible? A freight train is lumbering along at a constant speed of 16.0 m/s. Behind the freight train on the same track is a passenger train traveling in the same direction at 40.0 m/s. When the front of the passenger train is 58.5 m from the back of the freight train, the engineer on the passenger train recognizes the danger and hits the brakes of his train, causing the train to move with acceleration -3.00 m/s^2 . Because of the engineer’s action, the trains do not collide.

69. The Acela is an electric train on the Washington–New York–Boston run, carrying passengers at 170 mi/h. A velocity–time graph for the Acela is shown in Figure P2.69. (a) Describe the train’s motion in each successive time interval. (b) Find the train’s peak positive acceleration in the motion graphed. (c) Find the train’s displacement in miles between $t = 0$ and $t = 200$ s.

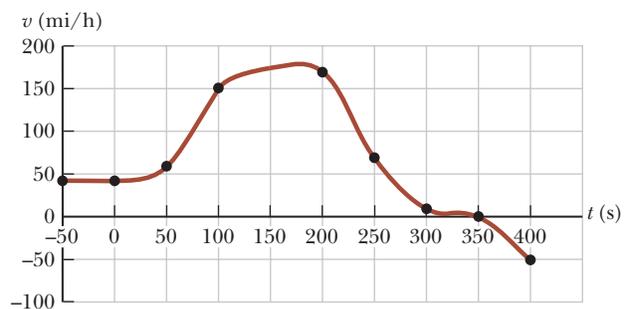


Figure P2.69 Velocity–time graph for the Acela.

70. Two objects move with initial velocity -8.00 m/s , final velocity 16.0 m/s , and constant accelerations. (a) The first object has displacement 20.0 m. Find its acceleration. (b) The second object travels a total distance of 22.0 m. Find its acceleration.

71. At $t = 0$, one athlete in a race running on a long, straight track with a constant speed v_1 is a distance d_1 behind a second athlete running with a constant speed v_2 . (a) Under what circumstances is the first athlete able to overtake the second athlete? (b) Find the time t at which the first athlete overtakes the second athlete, in terms of d_1 , v_1 , and v_2 . (c) At what minimum distance d_2 from the leading athlete must the finish line

be located so that the trailing athlete can at least tie for first place? Express d_2 in terms of d_1 , v_1 , and v_2 by using the result of part (b).

72. A catapult launches a test rocket vertically upward from a well, giving the rocket an initial speed of 80.0 m/s at ground level. The engines then fire, and the rocket accelerates upward at 4.00 m/s² until it reaches an altitude of 1 000 m. At that point, its engines fail and the rocket goes into free fall, with an acceleration of -9.80 m/s². (a) For what time interval is the rocket in motion above the ground? (b) What is its maximum altitude? (c) What is its velocity just before it hits the ground? (You will need to consider the motion while the engine is operating and the free-fall motion separately.)

73. Kathy tests her new sports car by racing with Stan, an experienced racer. Both start from rest, but Kathy leaves the starting line 1.00 s after Stan does. Stan moves with a constant acceleration of 3.50 m/s², while Kathy maintains an acceleration of 4.90 m/s². Find (a) the time at which Kathy overtakes Stan, (b) the distance she travels before she catches him, and (c) the speeds of both cars at the instant Kathy overtakes Stan.

74. Two students are on a balcony a distance h above the street. One student throws a ball vertically downward at a speed v_i ; at the same time, the other student throws a ball vertically upward at the same speed. Answer the following symbolically in terms of v_i , g , h , and t . (a) What is the time interval between when the first ball strikes the ground and the second ball strikes the ground? (b) Find the velocity of each ball as it strikes the ground. (c) How far apart are the balls at a time t after they are thrown and before they strike the ground?

75. Two objects, A and B, are connected by hinges to a rigid rod that has a length L . The objects slide along perpendicular guide rails as shown in Figure P2.75. Assume object A slides to the left with a constant speed v . (a) Find the velocity v_B of object B as a function of the angle θ . (b) Describe v_B relative to v . Is v_B always smaller than v , larger than v , or the same as v , or does it have some other relationship?

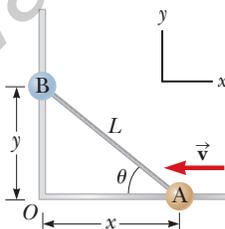


Figure P2.75

76. Astronauts on a distant planet toss a rock into the air. With the aid of a camera that takes pictures at a steady rate, they record the rock's height as a function of time as given in the following table. (a) Find the rock's average velocity in the time interval between each measurement and the next. (b) Using these average velocities to approximate instantaneous velocities at the midpoints of the time intervals, make a graph of velocity as a function of time. (c) Does the rock move with constant acceleration? If so, plot a straight line of best fit on the graph and calculate its slope to find the acceleration.

| Time (s) | Height (m) | Time (s) | Height (m) |
|----------|------------|----------|------------|
| 0.00 | 5.00 | 2.75 | 7.62 |
| 0.25 | 5.75 | 3.00 | 7.25 |
| 0.50 | 6.40 | 3.25 | 6.77 |
| 0.75 | 6.94 | 3.50 | 6.20 |
| 1.00 | 7.38 | 3.75 | 5.52 |
| 1.25 | 7.72 | 4.00 | 4.73 |
| 1.50 | 7.96 | 4.25 | 3.85 |
| 1.75 | 8.10 | 4.50 | 2.86 |
| 2.00 | 8.13 | 4.75 | 1.77 |
| 2.25 | 8.07 | 5.00 | 0.58 |
| 2.50 | 7.90 | | |

77. A motorist drives along a straight road at a constant speed of 15.0 m/s. Just as she passes a parked motorcycle police officer, the officer starts to accelerate at 2.00 m/s² to overtake her. Assuming that the officer maintains this acceleration, (a) determine the time interval required for the police officer to reach the motorist. Find (b) the speed and (c) the total displacement of the officer as he overtakes the motorist.

78. A commuter train travels between two downtown stations. Because the stations are only 1.00 km apart, the train never reaches its maximum possible cruising speed. During rush hour the engineer minimizes the time interval Δt between two stations by accelerating at a rate $a_1 = 0.100$ m/s² for a time interval Δt_1 and then immediately braking with acceleration $a_2 = -0.500$ m/s² for a time interval Δt_2 . Find the minimum time interval of travel Δt and the time interval Δt_1 .

79. Liz rushes down onto a subway platform to find her train already departing. She stops and watches the cars go by. Each car is 8.60 m long. The first moves past her in 1.50 s and the second in 1.10 s. Find the constant acceleration of the train.

80. A hard rubber ball, released at chest height, falls to the pavement and bounces back to nearly the same height. When it is in contact with the pavement, the lower side of the ball is temporarily flattened. Suppose the maximum depth of the dent is on the order of 1 cm. Find the order of magnitude of the maximum acceleration of the ball while it is in contact with the pavement. State your assumptions, the quantities you estimate, and the values you estimate for them.

Challenge Problems

81. A blue car of length 4.52 m is moving north on a roadway that intersects another perpendicular roadway (Fig. P2.81, page 58). The width of the intersection from near edge to far edge is 28.0 m. The blue car has a constant acceleration of magnitude 2.10 m/s² directed south. The time interval required for the nose of the blue car to move from the near (south) edge of the intersection to the north edge of the intersection is 3.10 s. (a) How far is the nose of the blue car from the south edge of the intersection when it stops? (b) For what time interval is any part of the blue car within the boundaries of the intersection? (c) A red car is at rest on the perpendicular intersecting roadway. As the nose of the blue car

enters the intersection, the red car starts from rest and accelerates east at 5.60 m/s^2 . What is the minimum distance from the near (west) edge of the intersection at which the nose of the red car can begin its motion if it is to enter the intersection after the blue car has entirely left the intersection? (d) If the red car begins its motion at the position given by the answer to part (c), with what speed does it enter the intersection?

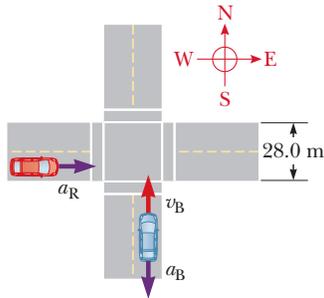


Figure P2.81

- 82. Review.** As soon as a traffic light turns green, a car speeds up from rest to 50.0 mi/h with constant acceleration 9.00 mi/h/s . In the adjoining bicycle lane, a cyclist speeds up from rest to 20.0 mi/h with constant acceleration 13.0 mi/h/s . Each vehicle maintains constant velocity after reaching its cruising speed. (a) For what time interval is the bicycle ahead of the car? (b) By what maximum distance does the bicycle lead the car?

- 83.** In a women's 100-m race, accelerating uniformly, Laura takes 2.00 s and Healan 3.00 s to attain their maximum speeds, which they each maintain for the rest of the race. They cross the finish line simultaneously, both setting a world record of 10.4 s . (a) What is the acceleration of each sprinter? (b) What are their respective maximum speeds? (c) Which sprinter is

ahead at the 6.00-s mark, and by how much? (d) What is the maximum distance by which Healan is behind Laura, and at what time does that occur?

- 84.** Two thin rods are fastened to the inside of a circular ring as shown in Figure P2.84. One rod of length D is vertical, and the other of length L makes an angle θ with the horizontal. The two rods and the ring lie in a vertical plane. Two small beads are free to slide without friction along the rods. (a) If the two beads are released from rest simultaneously from the positions shown, use your intuition and guess which bead reaches the bottom first. (b) Find an expression for the time interval required for the red bead to fall from point **A** to point **C** in terms of g and D . (c) Find an expression for the time interval required for the blue bead to slide from point **B** to point **C** in terms of g , L , and θ . (d) Show that the two time intervals found in parts (b) and (c) are equal. *Hint:* What is the angle between the chords of the circle **A** **B** and **B** **C**? (e) Do these results surprise you? Was your intuitive guess in part (a) correct? This problem was inspired by an article by Thomas B. Greenslade, Jr., "Galileo's Paradox," *Phys. Teach.* **46**, 294 (May 2008).

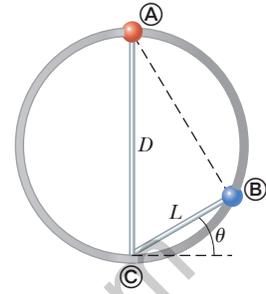


Figure P2.84

- 85.** A man drops a rock into a well. (a) The man hears the sound of the splash 2.40 s after he releases the rock from rest. The speed of sound in air (at the ambient temperature) is 336 m/s . How far below the top of the well is the surface of the water? (b) **What If?** If the travel time for the sound is ignored, what percentage error is introduced when the depth of the well is calculated?

Vectors



- 3.1 Coordinate Systems
- 3.2 Vector and Scalar Quantities
- 3.3 Some Properties of Vectors
- 3.4 Components of a Vector and Unit Vectors

In our study of physics, we often need to work with physical quantities that have both numerical and directional properties. As noted in Section 2.1, quantities of this nature are vector quantities. This chapter is primarily concerned with general properties of vector quantities. We discuss the addition and subtraction of vector quantities, together with some common applications to physical situations.

Vector quantities are used throughout this text. Therefore, it is imperative that you master the techniques discussed in this chapter.

A signpost in Saint Petersburg, Florida, shows the distance and direction to several cities. Quantities that are defined by both a magnitude and a direction are called vector quantities.

(Raymond A. Serway)

3.1 Coordinate Systems

Many aspects of physics involve a description of a location in space. In Chapter 2, for example, we saw that the mathematical description of an object's motion requires a method for describing the object's position at various times. In two dimensions, this description is accomplished with the use of the Cartesian coordinate system, in which perpendicular axes intersect at a point defined as the origin O (Fig. 3.1). Cartesian coordinates are also called *rectangular coordinates*.

Sometimes it is more convenient to represent a point in a plane by its *plane polar coordinates* (r, θ) as shown in Figure 3.2a (page 60). In this *polar coordinate system*, r is the distance from the origin to the point having Cartesian coordinates (x, y) and θ is the angle between a fixed axis and a line drawn from the origin to the point. The fixed axis is often the positive x axis, and θ is usually measured counterclockwise

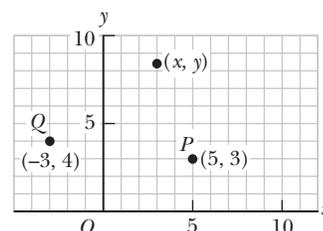


Figure 3.1 Designation of points in a Cartesian coordinate system. Every point is labeled with coordinates (x, y) .

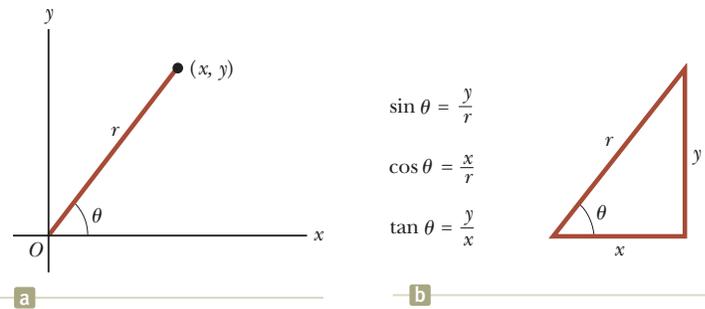


Figure 3.2 (a) The plane polar coordinates of a point are represented by the distance r and the angle θ , where θ is measured counterclockwise from the positive x axis. (b) The right triangle used to relate (x, y) to (r, θ) .

from it. From the right triangle in Figure 3.2b, we find that $\sin \theta = y/r$ and that $\cos \theta = x/r$. (A review of trigonometric functions is given in Appendix B.4.) Therefore, starting with the plane polar coordinates of any point, we can obtain the Cartesian coordinates by using the equations

Cartesian coordinates
in terms of polar
coordinates

$$x = r \cos \theta \quad (3.1)$$

$$y = r \sin \theta \quad (3.2)$$

Furthermore, if we know the Cartesian coordinates, the definitions of trigonometry tell us that

Polar coordinates in terms
of Cartesian coordinates

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \quad (3.3)$$

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \quad (3.4)$$

Equation 3.4 is the familiar Pythagorean theorem.

These four expressions relating the coordinates (x, y) to the coordinates (r, θ) apply only when θ is defined as shown in Figure 3.2a—in other words, when positive θ is an angle measured counterclockwise from the positive x axis. (Some scientific calculators perform conversions between Cartesian and polar coordinates based on these standard conventions.) If the reference axis for the polar angle θ is chosen to be one other than the positive x axis or if the sense of increasing θ is chosen differently, the expressions relating the two sets of coordinates will change.

Example 3.1 Polar Coordinates

The Cartesian coordinates of a point in the xy plane are $(x, y) = (-3.50, -2.50)$ m as shown in Figure 3.3. Find the polar coordinates of this point.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize The drawing in Figure 3.3 helps us conceptualize the problem. We wish to find r and θ . We expect r to be a few meters and θ to be larger than 180° .

Categorize Based on the statement of the problem and the Conceptualize step, we recognize that we are simply converting from Cartesian coordinates to polar coordinates. We therefore categorize this example as a substitution problem. Substitution problems generally do not have an extensive Analyze step other than the substitution of numbers into a given equation. Similarly, the Finalize step

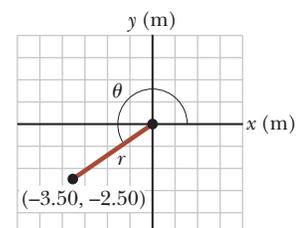


Figure 3.3 (Example 3.1) Finding polar coordinates when Cartesian coordinates are given.

3.1 continued

consists primarily of checking the units and making sure that the answer is reasonable and consistent with our expectations. Therefore, for substitution problems, we will not label Analyze or Finalize steps.

Use Equation 3.4 to find r :

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \sqrt{(-3.50 \text{ m})^2 + (-2.50 \text{ m})^2} = 4.30 \text{ m}$$

Use Equation 3.3 to find θ :

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} = \frac{-2.50 \text{ m}}{-3.50 \text{ m}} = 0.714$$

$$\theta = 216^\circ$$

Notice that you must use the signs of x and y to find that the point lies in the third quadrant of the coordinate system. That is, $\theta = 216^\circ$, not 35.5° , whose tangent is also 0.714. Both answers agree with our expectations in the Conceptualize step.

3.2 Vector and Scalar Quantities

We now formally describe the difference between scalar quantities and vector quantities. When you want to know the temperature outside so that you will know how to dress, the only information you need is a number and the unit “degrees C” or “degrees F.” Temperature is therefore an example of a *scalar quantity*:

A **scalar quantity** is completely specified by a single value with an appropriate unit and has no direction.

Other examples of scalar quantities are volume, mass, speed, time, and time intervals. Some scalars are always positive, such as mass and speed. Others, such as temperature, can have either positive or negative values. The rules of ordinary arithmetic are used to manipulate scalar quantities.

If you are preparing to pilot a small plane and need to know the wind velocity, you must know both the speed of the wind and its direction. Because direction is important for its complete specification, velocity is a *vector quantity*:

A **vector quantity** is completely specified by a number with an appropriate unit (the *magnitude* of the vector) plus a direction.

Another example of a vector quantity is displacement, as you know from Chapter 2. Suppose a particle moves from some point \textcircled{A} to some point \textcircled{B} along a straight path as shown in Figure 3.4. We represent this displacement by drawing an arrow from \textcircled{A} to \textcircled{B} , with the tip of the arrow pointing away from the starting point. The direction of the arrowhead represents the direction of the displacement, and the length of the arrow represents the magnitude of the displacement. If the particle travels along some other path from \textcircled{A} to \textcircled{B} such as shown by the broken line in Figure 3.4, its displacement is still the arrow drawn from \textcircled{A} to \textcircled{B} . Displacement depends only on the initial and final positions, so the displacement vector is independent of the path taken by the particle between these two points.

In this text, we use a boldface letter with an arrow over the letter, such as $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$, to represent a vector. Another common notation for vectors with which you should be familiar is a simple boldface character: \mathbf{A} . The magnitude of the vector $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ is written either A or $|\mathbf{A}|$. The magnitude of a vector has physical units, such as meters for displacement or meters per second for velocity. The magnitude of a vector is *always* a positive number.

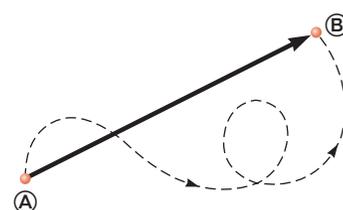


Figure 3.4 As a particle moves from \textcircled{A} to \textcircled{B} along an arbitrary path represented by the broken line, its displacement is a vector quantity shown by the arrow drawn from \textcircled{A} to \textcircled{B} .

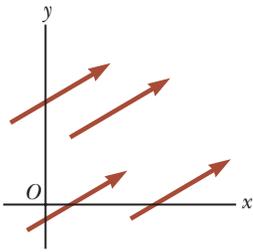


Figure 3.5 These four vectors are equal because they have equal lengths and point in the same direction.

Quick Quiz 3.1 Which of the following are vector quantities and which are scalar quantities? (a) your age (b) acceleration (c) velocity (d) speed (e) mass

3.3 Some Properties of Vectors

In this section, we shall investigate general properties of vectors representing physical quantities. We also discuss how to add and subtract vectors using both algebraic and geometric methods.

Equality of Two Vectors

For many purposes, two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} may be defined to be equal if they have the same magnitude and if they point in the same direction. That is, $\vec{A} = \vec{B}$ only if $A = B$ and if \vec{A} and \vec{B} point in the same direction along parallel lines. For example, all the vectors in Figure 3.5 are equal even though they have different starting points. This property allows us to move a vector to a position parallel to itself in a diagram without affecting the vector.

Adding Vectors

The rules for adding vectors are conveniently described by a graphical method. To add vector \vec{B} to vector \vec{A} , first draw vector \vec{A} on graph paper, with its magnitude represented by a convenient length scale, and then draw vector \vec{B} to the same scale, with its tail starting from the tip of \vec{A} , as shown in Figure 3.6. The **resultant vector** $\vec{R} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$ is the vector drawn from the tail of \vec{A} to the tip of \vec{B} .

A geometric construction can also be used to add more than two vectors as shown in Figure 3.7 for the case of four vectors. The resultant vector $\vec{R} = \vec{A} + \vec{B} + \vec{C} + \vec{D}$ is the vector that completes the polygon. In other words, \vec{R} is the vector drawn from the tail of the first vector to the tip of the last vector. This technique for adding vectors is often called the “head to tail method.”

When two vectors are added, the sum is independent of the order of the addition. (This fact may seem trivial, but as you will see in Chapter 11, the order is important when vectors are multiplied. Procedures for multiplying vectors are discussed in Chapters 7 and 11.) This property, which can be seen from the geometric construction in Figure 3.8, is known as the **commutative law of addition**:

$$\vec{A} + \vec{B} = \vec{B} + \vec{A} \quad (3.5)$$

Commutative law of addition ▶

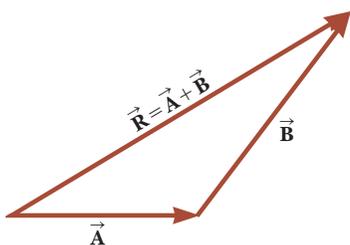


Figure 3.6 When vector \vec{B} is added to vector \vec{A} , the resultant \vec{R} is the vector that runs from the tail of \vec{A} to the tip of \vec{B} .

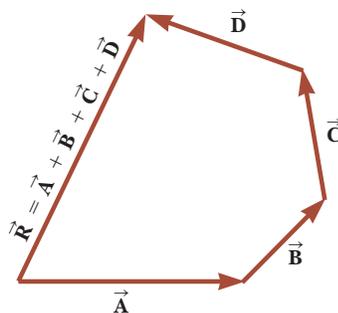


Figure 3.7 Geometric construction for summing four vectors. The resultant vector \vec{R} is by definition the one that completes the polygon.

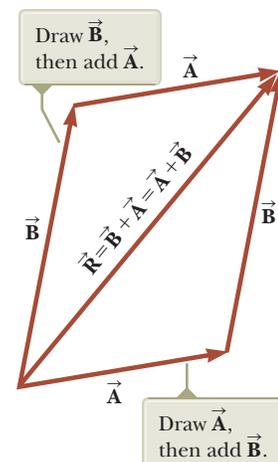


Figure 3.8 This construction shows that $\vec{A} + \vec{B} = \vec{B} + \vec{A}$ or, in other words, that vector addition is commutative.

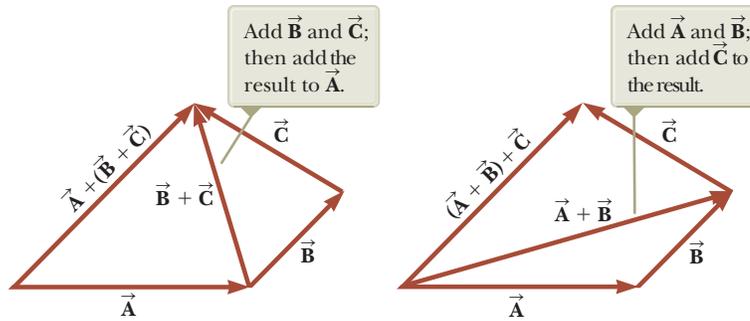


Figure 3.9 Geometric constructions for verifying the associative law of addition.

When three or more vectors are added, their sum is independent of the way in which the individual vectors are grouped together. A geometric proof of this rule for three vectors is given in Figure 3.9. This property is called the **associative law of addition**:

$$\vec{A} + (\vec{B} + \vec{C}) = (\vec{A} + \vec{B}) + \vec{C} \quad (3.6)$$

◀ Associative law of addition

In summary, a **vector quantity has both magnitude and direction and also obeys the laws of vector addition** as described in Figures 3.6 to 3.9. When two or more vectors are added together, they must all have the same units and they must all be the same type of quantity. It would be meaningless to add a velocity vector (for example, 60 km/h to the east) to a displacement vector (for example, 200 km to the north) because these vectors represent different physical quantities. The same rule also applies to scalars. For example, it would be meaningless to add time intervals to temperatures.

Negative of a Vector

The negative of the vector \vec{A} is defined as the vector that when added to \vec{A} gives zero for the vector sum. That is, $\vec{A} + (-\vec{A}) = \mathbf{0}$. The vectors \vec{A} and $-\vec{A}$ have the same magnitude but point in opposite directions.

Subtracting Vectors

The operation of vector subtraction makes use of the definition of the negative of a vector. We define the operation $\vec{A} - \vec{B}$ as vector $-\vec{B}$ added to vector \vec{A} :

$$\vec{A} - \vec{B} = \vec{A} + (-\vec{B}) \quad (3.7)$$

The geometric construction for subtracting two vectors in this way is illustrated in Figure 3.10a.

Another way of looking at vector subtraction is to notice that the difference $\vec{A} - \vec{B}$ between two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} is what you have to add to the second vector

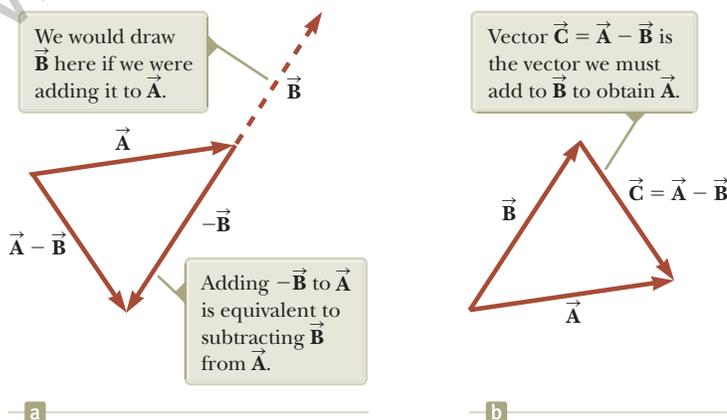


Figure 3.10 (a) Subtracting vector \vec{B} from vector \vec{A} . The vector $-\vec{B}$ is equal in magnitude to vector \vec{B} and points in the opposite direction. (b) A second way of looking at vector subtraction.

to obtain the first. In this case, as Figure 3.10b shows, the vector $\vec{A} - \vec{B}$ points from the tip of the second vector to the tip of the first.

Multiplying a Vector by a Scalar

If vector \vec{A} is multiplied by a positive scalar quantity m , the product $m\vec{A}$ is a vector that has the same direction as \vec{A} and magnitude mA . If vector \vec{A} is multiplied by a negative scalar quantity $-m$, the product $-m\vec{A}$ is directed opposite \vec{A} . For example, the vector $5\vec{A}$ is five times as long as \vec{A} and points in the same direction as \vec{A} ; the vector $-\frac{1}{3}\vec{A}$ is one-third the length of \vec{A} and points in the direction opposite \vec{A} .

Quick Quiz 3.2 The magnitudes of two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} are $A = 12$ units and $B = 8$ units. Which pair of numbers represents the *largest* and *smallest* possible values for the magnitude of the resultant vector $\vec{R} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$? (a) 14.4 units, 4 units (b) 12 units, 8 units (c) 20 units, 4 units (d) none of these answers

Quick Quiz 3.3 If vector \vec{B} is added to vector \vec{A} , which *two* of the following choices must be true for the resultant vector to be equal to zero? (a) \vec{A} and \vec{B} are parallel and in the same direction. (b) \vec{A} and \vec{B} are parallel and in opposite directions. (c) \vec{A} and \vec{B} have the same magnitude. (d) \vec{A} and \vec{B} are perpendicular.

Example 3.2 A Vacation Trip

A car travels 20.0 km due north and then 35.0 km in a direction 60.0° west of north as shown in Figure 3.11a. Find the magnitude and direction of the car's resultant displacement.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize The vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} drawn in Figure 3.11a help us conceptualize the problem. The resultant vector \vec{R} has also been drawn. We expect its magnitude to be a few tens of kilometers. The angle β that the resultant vector makes with the y axis is expected to be less than 60° , the angle that vector \vec{B} makes with the y axis.

Categorize We can categorize this example as a simple analysis problem in vector addition. The displacement \vec{R} is the resultant when the two individual displacements \vec{A} and \vec{B} are added. We can further categorize it as a problem about the analysis of triangles, so we appeal to our expertise in geometry and trigonometry.

Analyze In this example, we show two ways to analyze the problem of finding the resultant of two vectors. The first way is to solve the problem geometrically, using graph paper and a protractor to measure the magnitude of \vec{R} and its direction in Figure 3.11a. (In fact, even when you know you are going to be carrying out a calculation, you should sketch the vectors to check your results.) With an ordinary ruler and protractor, a large diagram typically gives answers to two-digit but not to three-digit precision. Try using these tools on \vec{R} in Figure 3.11a and compare to the trigonometric analysis below!

The second way to solve the problem is to analyze it using algebra and trigonometry. The magnitude of \vec{R} can be obtained from the law of cosines as applied to the triangle in Figure 3.11a (see Appendix B.4).

Use $R^2 = A^2 + B^2 - 2AB \cos \theta$ from the law of cosines to find R :

$$R = \sqrt{A^2 + B^2 - 2AB \cos \theta}$$

Substitute numerical values, noting that $\theta = 180^\circ - 60^\circ = 120^\circ$:

$$\begin{aligned} R &= \sqrt{(20.0 \text{ km})^2 + (35.0 \text{ km})^2 - 2(20.0 \text{ km})(35.0 \text{ km}) \cos 120^\circ} \\ &= 48.2 \text{ km} \end{aligned}$$

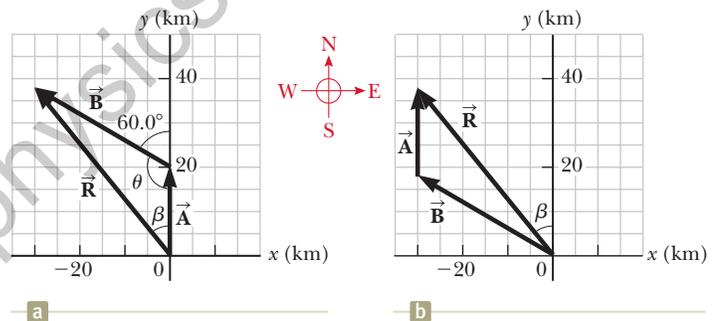


Figure 3.11 (Example 3.2) (a) Graphical method for finding the resultant displacement vector $\vec{R} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$. (b) Adding the vectors in reverse order ($\vec{B} + \vec{A}$) gives the same result for \vec{R} .

3.2 continued

Use the law of sines (Appendix B.4) to find the direction of $\vec{\mathbf{R}}$ measured from the northerly direction:

$$\frac{\sin \beta}{B} = \frac{\sin \theta}{R}$$

$$\sin \beta = \frac{B}{R} \sin \theta = \frac{35.0 \text{ km}}{48.2 \text{ km}} \sin 120^\circ = 0.629$$

$$\beta = 38.9^\circ$$

The resultant displacement of the car is 48.2 km in a direction 38.9° west of north.

Finalize Does the angle β that we calculated agree with an estimate made by looking at Figure 3.11a or with an actual angle measured from the diagram using the graphical method? Is it reasonable that the magnitude of $\vec{\mathbf{R}}$ is larger than that of both $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ and $\vec{\mathbf{B}}$? Are the units of $\vec{\mathbf{R}}$ correct?

Although the head to tail method of adding vectors works well, it suffers from two disadvantages. First, some

people find using the laws of cosines and sines to be awkward. Second, a triangle only results if you are adding two vectors. If you are adding three or more vectors, the resulting geometric shape is usually not a triangle. In Section 3.4, we explore a new method of adding vectors that will address both of these disadvantages.

WHAT IF? Suppose the trip were taken with the two vectors in reverse order: 35.0 km at 60.0° west of north first and then 20.0 km due north. How would the magnitude and the direction of the resultant vector change?

Answer They would not change. The commutative law for vector addition tells us that the order of vectors in an addition is irrelevant. Graphically, Figure 3.11b shows that the vectors added in the reverse order give us the same resultant vector.

3.4 Components of a Vector and Unit Vectors

The graphical method of adding vectors is not recommended whenever high accuracy is required or in three-dimensional problems. In this section, we describe a method of adding vectors that makes use of the projections of vectors along coordinate axes. These projections are called the **components** of the vector or its **rectangular components**. Any vector can be completely described by its components.

Consider a vector $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ lying in the xy plane and making an arbitrary angle θ with the positive x axis as shown in Figure 3.12a. This vector can be expressed as the sum of two other *component vectors* $\vec{\mathbf{A}}_x$, which is parallel to the x axis, and $\vec{\mathbf{A}}_y$, which is parallel to the y axis. From Figure 3.12b, we see that the three vectors form a right triangle and that $\vec{\mathbf{A}} = \vec{\mathbf{A}}_x + \vec{\mathbf{A}}_y$. We shall often refer to the “components of a vector $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$,” written A_x and A_y (without the boldface notation). The component A_x represents the projection of $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ along the x axis, and the component A_y represents the projection of $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ along the y axis. These components can be positive or negative. The component A_x is positive if the component vector $\vec{\mathbf{A}}_x$ points in the positive x direction and is negative if $\vec{\mathbf{A}}_x$ points in the negative x direction. A similar statement is made for the component A_y .

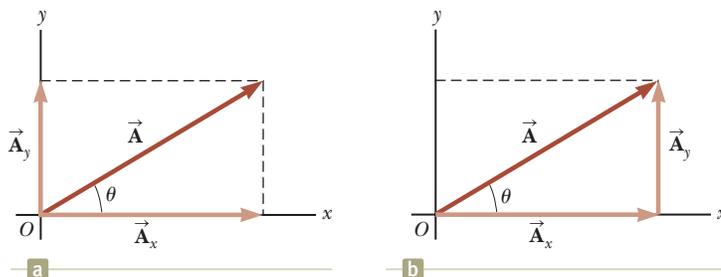


Figure 3.12 (a) A vector $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ lying in the xy plane can be represented by its component vectors $\vec{\mathbf{A}}_x$ and $\vec{\mathbf{A}}_y$. (b) The y component vector $\vec{\mathbf{A}}_y$ can be moved to the right so that it adds to $\vec{\mathbf{A}}_x$. The vector sum of the component vectors is $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$. These three vectors form a right triangle.

Pitfall Prevention 3.2

x and y Components Equations 3.8 and 3.9 associate the cosine of the angle with the x component and the sine of the angle with the y component. This association is true *only* because we measured the angle θ with respect to the x axis, so do not memorize these equations. If θ is measured with respect to the y axis (as in some problems), these equations will be incorrect. Think about which side of the triangle containing the components is adjacent to the angle and which side is opposite and then assign the cosine and sine accordingly.

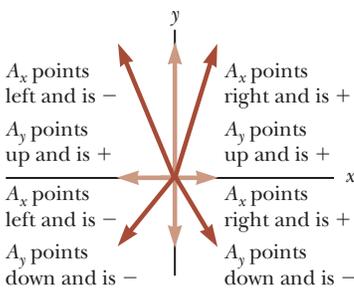


Figure 3.13 The signs of the components of a vector \vec{A} depend on the quadrant in which the vector is located.

From Figure 3.12 and the definition of sine and cosine, we see that $\cos \theta = A_x/A$ and that $\sin \theta = A_y/A$. Hence, the components of \vec{A} are

$$A_x = A \cos \theta \quad (3.8)$$

$$A_y = A \sin \theta \quad (3.9)$$

The magnitudes of these components are the lengths of the two sides of a right triangle with a hypotenuse of length A . Therefore, the magnitude and direction of \vec{A} are related to its components through the expressions

$$A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2} \quad (3.10)$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{A_y}{A_x}\right) \quad (3.11)$$

Notice that the signs of the components A_x and A_y depend on the angle θ . For example, if $\theta = 120^\circ$, A_x is negative and A_y is positive. If $\theta = 225^\circ$, both A_x and A_y are negative. Figure 3.13 summarizes the signs of the components when \vec{A} lies in the various quadrants.

When solving problems, you can specify a vector \vec{A} either with its components A_x and A_y or with its magnitude and direction A and θ .

Suppose you are working a physics problem that requires resolving a vector into its components. In many applications, it is convenient to express the components in a coordinate system having axes that are not horizontal and vertical but that are still perpendicular to each other. For example, we will consider the motion of objects sliding down inclined planes. For these examples, it is often convenient to orient the x axis parallel to the plane and the y axis perpendicular to the plane.

Quick Quiz 3.4 Choose the correct response to make the sentence true: A component of a vector is (a) always, (b) never, or (c) sometimes larger than the magnitude of the vector.

Unit Vectors

Vector quantities often are expressed in terms of unit vectors. A **unit vector** is a dimensionless vector having a magnitude of exactly 1. Unit vectors are used to specify a given direction and have no other physical significance. They are used solely as a bookkeeping convenience in describing a direction in space. We shall use the symbols \hat{i} , \hat{j} , and \hat{k} to represent unit vectors pointing in the positive x , y , and z directions, respectively. (The “hats,” or circumflexes, on the symbols are a standard notation for unit vectors.) The unit vectors \hat{i} , \hat{j} , and \hat{k} form a set of mutually perpendicular vectors in a right-handed coordinate system as shown in Figure 3.14a. The magnitude of each unit vector equals 1; that is, $|\hat{i}| = |\hat{j}| = |\hat{k}| = 1$.

Consider a vector \vec{A} lying in the xy plane as shown in Figure 3.14b. The product of the component A_x and the unit vector \hat{i} is the component vector $\vec{A}_x = A_x \hat{i}$,

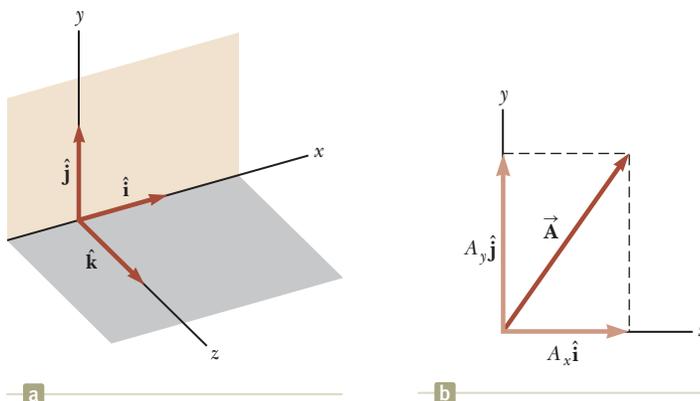


Figure 3.14 (a) The unit vectors \hat{i} , \hat{j} , and \hat{k} are directed along the x , y , and z axes, respectively. (b) Vector $\vec{A} = A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j}$ lying in the xy plane has components A_x and A_y .

which lies on the x axis and has magnitude $|A_x|$. Likewise, $\vec{A}_y = A_y \hat{j}$ is the component vector of magnitude $|A_y|$ lying on the y axis. Therefore, the unit-vector notation for the vector \vec{A} is

$$\vec{A} = A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} \quad (3.12)$$

For example, consider a point lying in the xy plane and having Cartesian coordinates (x, y) as in Figure 3.15. The point can be specified by the **position vector** \vec{r} , which in unit-vector form is given by

$$\vec{r} = x \hat{i} + y \hat{j} \quad (3.13)$$

This notation tells us that the components of \vec{r} are the coordinates x and y .

Now let us see how to use components to add vectors when the graphical method is not sufficiently accurate. Suppose we wish to add vector \vec{B} to vector \vec{A} in Equation 3.12, where vector \vec{B} has components B_x and B_y . Because of the bookkeeping convenience of the unit vectors, all we do is add the x and y components separately. The resultant vector $\vec{R} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$ is

$$\vec{R} = (A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j}) + (B_x \hat{i} + B_y \hat{j})$$

or

$$\vec{R} = (A_x + B_x) \hat{i} + (A_y + B_y) \hat{j} \quad (3.14)$$

Because $\vec{R} = R_x \hat{i} + R_y \hat{j}$, we see that the components of the resultant vector are

$$R_x = A_x + B_x \quad (3.15)$$

$$R_y = A_y + B_y$$

Therefore, we see that in the component method of adding vectors, we add all the x components together to find the x component of the resultant vector and use the same process for the y components. We can check this addition by components with a geometric construction as shown in Figure 3.16.

The magnitude of \vec{R} and the angle it makes with the x axis are obtained from its components using the relationships

$$R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2} = \sqrt{(A_x + B_x)^2 + (A_y + B_y)^2} \quad (3.16)$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{R_y}{R_x} = \frac{A_y + B_y}{A_x + B_x} \quad (3.17)$$

At times, we need to consider situations involving motion in three component directions. The extension of our methods to three-dimensional vectors is straightforward. If \vec{A} and \vec{B} both have x , y , and z components, they can be expressed in the form

$$\vec{A} = A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k} \quad (3.18)$$

$$\vec{B} = B_x \hat{i} + B_y \hat{j} + B_z \hat{k} \quad (3.19)$$

The sum of \vec{A} and \vec{B} is

$$\vec{R} = (A_x + B_x) \hat{i} + (A_y + B_y) \hat{j} + (A_z + B_z) \hat{k} \quad (3.20)$$

Notice that Equation 3.20 differs from Equation 3.14: in Equation 3.20, the resultant vector also has a z component $R_z = A_z + B_z$. If a vector \vec{R} has x , y , and z components, the magnitude of the vector is $R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2 + R_z^2}$. The angle θ_x that \vec{R} makes with the x axis is found from the expression $\cos \theta_x = R_x/R$, with similar expressions for the angles with respect to the y and z axes.

The extension of our method to adding more than two vectors is also straightforward. For example, $\vec{A} + \vec{B} + \vec{C} = (A_x + B_x + C_x) \hat{i} + (A_y + B_y + C_y) \hat{j} + (A_z + B_z + C_z) \hat{k}$. We have described adding displacement vectors in this section because these types of vectors are easy to visualize. We can also add other types of

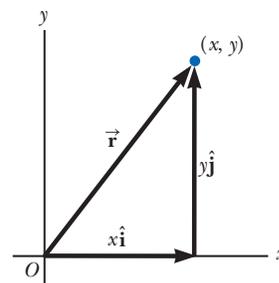


Figure 3.15 The point whose Cartesian coordinates are (x, y) can be represented by the position vector $\vec{r} = x \hat{i} + y \hat{j}$.

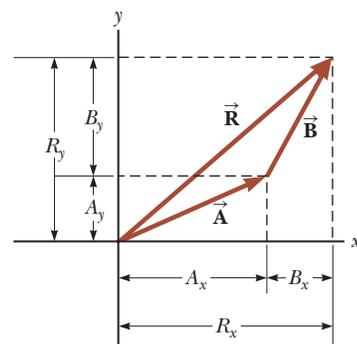


Figure 3.16 This geometric construction for the sum of two vectors shows the relationship between the components of the resultant \vec{R} and the components of the individual vectors.

Pitfall Prevention 3.3

Tangents on Calculators Equation 3.17 involves the calculation of an angle by means of a tangent function. Generally, the inverse tangent function on calculators provides an angle between -90° and $+90^\circ$. As a consequence, if the vector you are studying lies in the second or third quadrant, the angle measured from the positive x axis will be the angle your calculator returns plus 180° .

vectors, such as velocity, force, and electric field vectors, which we will do in later chapters.

- Quick Quiz 3.5** For which of the following vectors is the magnitude of the vector equal to one of the components of the vector? (a) $\vec{A} = 2\hat{i} + 5\hat{j}$
 (b) $\vec{B} = -3\hat{j}$ (c) $\vec{C} = +5\hat{k}$

Example 3.3 The Sum of Two Vectors

Find the sum of two displacement vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} lying in the xy plane and given by

$$\vec{A} = (2.0\hat{i} + 2.0\hat{j}) \text{ m} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{B} = (2.0\hat{i} - 4.0\hat{j}) \text{ m}$$

SOLUTION

Conceptualize You can conceptualize the situation by drawing the vectors on graph paper. Draw an approximation of the expected resultant vector.

Categorize We categorize this example as a simple substitution problem. Comparing this expression for \vec{A} with the general expression $\vec{A} = A_x\hat{i} + A_y\hat{j} + A_z\hat{k}$, we see that $A_x = 2.0 \text{ m}$, $A_y = 2.0 \text{ m}$, and $A_z = 0$. Likewise, $B_x = 2.0 \text{ m}$, $B_y = -4.0 \text{ m}$, and $B_z = 0$. We can use a two-dimensional approach because there are no z components.

Use Equation 3.14 to obtain the resultant vector \vec{R} :
$$\vec{R} = \vec{A} + \vec{B} = (2.0 + 2.0)\hat{i} \text{ m} + (2.0 - 4.0)\hat{j} \text{ m}$$

Evaluate the components of \vec{R} :
$$R_x = 4.0 \text{ m} \quad R_y = -2.0 \text{ m}$$

Use Equation 3.16 to find the magnitude of \vec{R} :
$$R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2} = \sqrt{(4.0 \text{ m})^2 + (-2.0 \text{ m})^2} = \sqrt{20} \text{ m} = 4.5 \text{ m}$$

Find the direction of \vec{R} from Equation 3.17:
$$\tan \theta = \frac{R_y}{R_x} = \frac{-2.0 \text{ m}}{4.0 \text{ m}} = -0.50$$

Your calculator likely gives the answer -27° for $\theta = \tan^{-1}(-0.50)$. This answer is correct if we interpret it to mean 27° clockwise from the x axis. Our standard form has been to quote the angles measured counterclockwise from the $+x$ axis, and that angle for this vector is $\theta = 333^\circ$.

Example 3.4 The Resultant Displacement

A particle undergoes three consecutive displacements: $\Delta\vec{r}_1 = (15\hat{i} + 30\hat{j} + 12\hat{k}) \text{ cm}$, $\Delta\vec{r}_2 = (23\hat{i} - 14\hat{j} - 5.0\hat{k}) \text{ cm}$, and $\Delta\vec{r}_3 = (-13\hat{i} + 15\hat{j}) \text{ cm}$. Find unit-vector notation for the resultant displacement and its magnitude.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Although x is sufficient to locate a point in one dimension, we need a vector \vec{r} to locate a point in two or three dimensions. The notation $\Delta\vec{r}$ is a generalization of the one-dimensional displacement Δx in Equation 2.1. Three-dimensional displacements are more difficult to conceptualize than those in two dimensions because they cannot be drawn on paper like the latter.

For this problem, let us imagine that you start with your pencil at the origin of a piece of graph paper on which you have drawn x and y axes. Move your pencil 15 cm to the right along the x axis, then 30 cm upward along the y axis, and then 12 cm *perpendicularly toward you away*

from the graph paper. This procedure provides the displacement described by $\Delta\vec{r}_1$. From this point, move your pencil 23 cm to the right parallel to the x axis, then 14 cm parallel to the graph paper in the $-y$ direction, and then 5.0 cm perpendicularly away from you toward the graph paper. You are now at the displacement from the origin described by $\Delta\vec{r}_1 + \Delta\vec{r}_2$. From this point, move your pencil 13 cm to the left in the $-x$ direction, and (finally!) 15 cm parallel to the graph paper along the y axis. Your final position is at a displacement $\Delta\vec{r}_1 + \Delta\vec{r}_2 + \Delta\vec{r}_3$ from the origin.

3.4 continued

Categorize Despite the difficulty in conceptualizing in three dimensions, we can categorize this problem as a substitution problem because of the careful bookkeeping methods that we have developed for vectors. The mathematical manipulation keeps track of this motion along the three perpendicular axes in an organized, compact way, as we see below.

To find the resultant displacement, add the three vectors:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta\vec{r} &= \Delta\vec{r}_1 + \Delta\vec{r}_2 + \Delta\vec{r}_3 \\ &= (15 + 23 - 13)\hat{i} \text{ cm} + (30 - 14 + 15)\hat{j} \text{ cm} + (12 - 5.0 + 0)\hat{k} \text{ cm} \\ &= (25\hat{i} + 31\hat{j} + 7.0\hat{k}) \text{ cm}\end{aligned}$$

Find the magnitude of the resultant vector:

$$\begin{aligned}R &= \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2 + R_z^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(25 \text{ cm})^2 + (31 \text{ cm})^2 + (7.0 \text{ cm})^2} = 40 \text{ cm}\end{aligned}$$

Example 3.5 Taking a Hike

A hiker begins a trip by first walking 25.0 km southeast from her car. She stops and sets up her tent for the night. On the second day, she walks 40.0 km in a direction 60.0° north of east, at which point she discovers a forest ranger's tower.

(A) Determine the components of the hiker's displacement for each day.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize We conceptualize the problem by drawing a sketch as in Figure 3.17. If we denote the displacement vectors on the first and second days by \vec{A} and \vec{B} , respectively, and use the car as the origin of coordinates, we obtain the vectors shown in Figure 3.17. The sketch allows us to estimate the resultant vector as shown.

Categorize Having drawn the resultant \vec{R} , we can now categorize this problem as one we've solved before: an addition of two vectors. You should now have a hint of the power of categorization in that many new problems are very similar to problems we have already solved if we are careful to conceptualize them. Once we have drawn the displacement vectors and categorized the problem, this problem is no longer about a hiker, a walk, a car, a tent, or a tower. It is a problem about vector addition, one that we have already solved.

Analyze Displacement \vec{A} has a magnitude of 25.0 km and is directed 45.0° below the positive x axis.

Find the components of \vec{A} using Equations 3.8 and 3.9:

$$\begin{aligned}A_x &= A \cos(-45.0^\circ) = (25.0 \text{ km})(0.707) = 17.7 \text{ km} \\ A_y &= A \sin(-45.0^\circ) = (25.0 \text{ km})(-0.707) = -17.7 \text{ km}\end{aligned}$$

The negative value of A_y indicates that the hiker walks in the negative y direction on the first day. The signs of A_x and A_y also are evident from Figure 3.17.

Find the components of \vec{B} using Equations 3.8 and 3.9:

$$\begin{aligned}B_x &= B \cos 60.0^\circ = (40.0 \text{ km})(0.500) = 20.0 \text{ km} \\ B_y &= B \sin 60.0^\circ = (40.0 \text{ km})(0.866) = 34.6 \text{ km}\end{aligned}$$

(B) Determine the components of the hiker's resultant displacement \vec{R} for the trip. Find an expression for \vec{R} in terms of unit vectors.

SOLUTION

Use Equation 3.15 to find the components of the resultant displacement $\vec{R} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$:

$$\begin{aligned}R_x &= A_x + B_x = 17.7 \text{ km} + 20.0 \text{ km} = 37.7 \text{ km} \\ R_y &= A_y + B_y = -17.7 \text{ km} + 34.6 \text{ km} = 17.0 \text{ km}\end{aligned}$$

continued

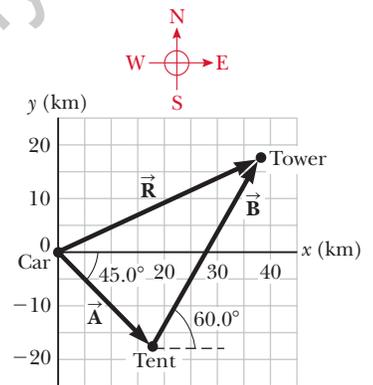


Figure 3.17 (Example 3.5) The total displacement of the hiker is the vector $\vec{R} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$.

3.5 continued

Write the total displacement in unit-vector form:

$$\vec{\mathbf{R}} = (37.7\hat{\mathbf{i}} + 17.0\hat{\mathbf{j}}) \text{ km}$$

Finalize Looking at the graphical representation in Figure 3.17, we estimate the position of the tower to be about (38 km, 17 km), which is consistent with the components of $\vec{\mathbf{R}}$ in our result for the final position of the hiker. Also, both components of $\vec{\mathbf{R}}$ are positive, putting the final position in the first quadrant of the coordinate system, which is also consistent with Figure 3.17.

WHAT IF? After reaching the tower, the hiker wishes to return to her car along a single straight line. What are the components of the vector representing this hike? What should the direction of the hike be?

Answer The desired vector $\vec{\mathbf{R}}_{\text{car}}$ is the negative of vector $\vec{\mathbf{R}}$:

$$\vec{\mathbf{R}}_{\text{car}} = -\vec{\mathbf{R}} = (-37.7\hat{\mathbf{i}} - 17.0\hat{\mathbf{j}}) \text{ km}$$

The direction is found by calculating the angle that the vector makes with the x axis:

$$\tan \theta = \frac{R_{\text{car},y}}{R_{\text{car},x}} = \frac{-17.0 \text{ km}}{-37.7 \text{ km}} = 0.450$$

which gives an angle of $\theta = 204.2^\circ$, or 24.2° south of west.

Summary

Definitions

Scalar quantities are those that have only a numerical value and no associated direction.

Vector quantities have both magnitude and direction and obey the laws of vector addition. The magnitude of a vector is *always* a positive number.

Concepts and Principles

When two or more vectors are added together, they must all have the same units and they all must be the same type of quantity. We can add two vectors $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ and $\vec{\mathbf{B}}$ graphically. In this method (Fig. 3.6), the resultant vector $\vec{\mathbf{R}} = \vec{\mathbf{A}} + \vec{\mathbf{B}}$ runs from the tail of $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ to the tip of $\vec{\mathbf{B}}$.

If a vector $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ has an x component A_x and a y component A_y , the vector can be expressed in unit-vector form as $\vec{\mathbf{A}} = A_x\hat{\mathbf{i}} + A_y\hat{\mathbf{j}}$. In this notation, $\hat{\mathbf{i}}$ is a unit vector pointing in the positive x direction and $\hat{\mathbf{j}}$ is a unit vector pointing in the positive y direction. Because $\hat{\mathbf{i}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{j}}$ are unit vectors, $|\hat{\mathbf{i}}| = |\hat{\mathbf{j}}| = 1$.

A second method of adding vectors involves **components** of the vectors. The x component A_x of the vector $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ is equal to the projection of $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ along the x axis of a coordinate system, where $A_x = A \cos \theta$. The y component A_y of $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ is the projection of $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ along the y axis, where $A_y = A \sin \theta$.

We can find the resultant of two or more vectors by resolving all vectors into their x and y components, adding their resultant x and y components, and then using the Pythagorean theorem to find the magnitude of the resultant vector. We can find the angle that the resultant vector makes with respect to the x axis by using a suitable trigonometric function.

Objective Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

- What is the magnitude of the vector $(10\hat{i} - 10\hat{k})$ m/s? (a) 0 (b) 10 m/s (c) -10 m/s (d) 10 (e) 14.1 m/s
- A vector lying in the xy plane has components of opposite sign. The vector must lie in which quadrant? (a) the first quadrant (b) the second quadrant (c) the third quadrant (d) the fourth quadrant (e) either the second or the fourth quadrant
- Figure OQ3.3 shows two vectors \vec{D}_1 and \vec{D}_2 . Which of the possibilities (a) through (d) is the vector $\vec{D}_2 - 2\vec{D}_1$, or (e) is it none of them?

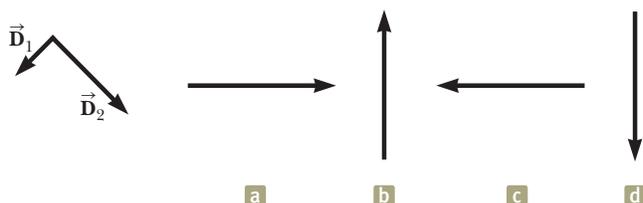


Figure OQ3.3

- The cutting tool on a lathe is given two displacements, one of magnitude 4 cm and one of magnitude 3 cm, in each one of five situations (a) through (e) diagrammed in Figure OQ3.4. Rank these situations according to the magnitude of the total displacement of the tool, putting the situation with the greatest resultant magnitude first. If the total displacement is the same size in two situations, give those letters equal ranks.

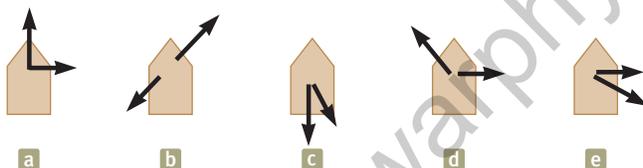


Figure OQ3.4

- The magnitude of vector \vec{A} is 8 km, and the magnitude of \vec{B} is 6 km. Which of the following are possible values for the magnitude of $\vec{A} + \vec{B}$? Choose all possible answers. (a) 10 km (b) 8 km (c) 2 km (d) 0 (e) -2 km
- Let vector \vec{A} point from the origin into the second quadrant of the xy plane and vector \vec{B} point from the origin into the fourth quadrant. The vector $\vec{B} - \vec{A}$

must be in which quadrant, (a) the first, (b) the second, (c) the third, or (d) the fourth, or (e) is more than one answer possible?

- Yes or no: Is each of the following quantities a vector? (a) force (b) temperature (c) the volume of water in a can (d) the ratings of a TV show (e) the height of a building (f) the velocity of a sports car (g) the age of the Universe
- What is the y component of the vector $(3\hat{i} - 8\hat{k})$ m/s? (a) 3 m/s (b) -8 m/s (c) 0 (d) 8 m/s (e) none of those answers
- What is the x component of the vector shown in Figure OQ3.9? (a) 3 cm (b) 6 cm (c) -4 cm (d) -6 cm (e) none of those answers

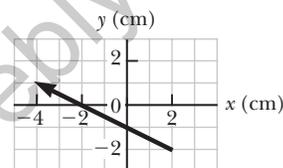


Figure OQ3.9 Objective Questions 9 and 10.

- What is the y component of the vector shown in Figure OQ3.9? (a) 3 cm (b) 6 cm (c) -4 cm (d) -6 cm (e) none of those answers
- Vector \vec{A} lies in the xy plane. Both of its components will be negative if it points from the origin into which quadrant? (a) the first quadrant (b) the second quadrant (c) the third quadrant (d) the fourth quadrant (e) the second or fourth quadrants
- A submarine dives from the water surface at an angle of 30° below the horizontal, following a straight path 50 m long. How far is the submarine then below the water surface? (a) 50 m (b) $(50 \text{ m})/\sin 30^\circ$ (c) $(50 \text{ m}) \sin 30^\circ$ (d) $(50 \text{ m}) \cos 30^\circ$ (e) none of those answers
- A vector points from the origin into the second quadrant of the xy plane. What can you conclude about its components? (a) Both components are positive. (b) The x component is positive, and the y component is negative. (c) The x component is negative, and the y component is positive. (d) Both components are negative. (e) More than one answer is possible.

Conceptual Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

- Is it possible to add a vector quantity to a scalar quantity? Explain.
- Can the magnitude of a vector have a negative value? Explain.
- A book is moved once around the perimeter of a tabletop with the dimensions 1.0 m by 2.0 m. The book ends up at its initial position. (a) What is its displacement? (b) What is the distance traveled?

- If the component of vector \vec{A} along the direction of vector \vec{B} is zero, what can you conclude about the two vectors?
- On a certain calculator, the inverse tangent function returns a value between -90° and $+90^\circ$. In what cases will this value correctly state the direction of a vector in the xy plane, by giving its angle measured counterclockwise from the positive x axis? In what cases will it be incorrect?

Problems

WebAssign

The problems found in this chapter may be assigned online in Enhanced WebAssign

1. straightforward; 2. intermediate; 3. challenging

1. full solution available in the *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

AMT Analysis Model tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

GP Guided Problem

M Master It tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

W Watch It video solution available in Enhanced WebAssign

Section 3.1 Coordinate Systems

1. The polar coordinates of a point are $r = 5.50$ m and $\theta = 240^\circ$. What are the Cartesian coordinates of this point?
2. The rectangular coordinates of a point are given by $(2, y)$, and its polar coordinates are $(r, 30^\circ)$. Determine (a) the value of y and (b) the value of r .
3. Two points in the xy plane have Cartesian coordinates $(2.00, -4.00)$ m and $(-3.00, 3.00)$ m. Determine (a) the distance between these points and (b) their polar coordinates.
4. Two points in a plane have polar coordinates $(2.50$ m, $30.0^\circ)$ and $(3.80$ m, $120.0^\circ)$. Determine (a) the Cartesian coordinates of these points and (b) the distance between them.
5. The polar coordinates of a certain point are $(r = 4.30$ cm, $\theta = 214^\circ)$. (a) Find its Cartesian coordinates x and y . Find the polar coordinates of the points with Cartesian coordinates (b) $(-x, y)$, (c) $(-2x, -2y)$, and (d) $(3x, -3y)$.
6. Let the polar coordinates of the point (x, y) be (r, θ) . Determine the polar coordinates for the points (a) $(-x, y)$, (b) $(-2x, -2y)$, and (c) $(3x, -3y)$.

Section 3.2 Vector and Scalar Quantities

Section 3.3 Some Properties of Vectors

7. A surveyor measures the distance across a straight river by the following method (Fig. P3.7). Starting directly across from a tree on the opposite bank, she walks $d = 100$ m along the riverbank to establish a baseline. Then she sights across to the tree. The angle from her baseline to the tree is $\theta = 35.0^\circ$. How wide is the river?

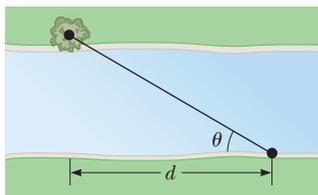


Figure P3.7

8. Vector \vec{A} has a magnitude of 29 units and points in the positive y direction. When vector \vec{B} is added to \vec{A} ,

the resultant vector $\vec{A} + \vec{B}$ points in the negative y direction with a magnitude of 14 units. Find the magnitude and direction of \vec{B} .

9. Why is the following situation impossible? A skater glides along a circular path. She defines a certain point on the circle as her origin. Later on, she passes through a point at which the distance she has traveled along the path from the origin is smaller than the magnitude of her displacement vector from the origin.

10. A force \vec{F}_1 of magnitude 6.00 units acts on an object at the origin in a direction $\theta = 30.0^\circ$ above the positive x axis (Fig. P3.10). A second force \vec{F}_2 of magnitude 5.00 units acts on the object in the direction of the positive y axis. Find graphically the magnitude and direction of the resultant force $\vec{F}_1 + \vec{F}_2$.

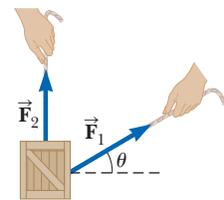


Figure P3.10

11. The displacement vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} shown in Figure P3.11 both have magnitudes of 3.00 m. The direction of vector \vec{A} is $\theta = 30.0^\circ$. Find graphically (a) $\vec{A} + \vec{B}$, (b) $\vec{A} - \vec{B}$, (c) $\vec{B} - \vec{A}$, and (d) $\vec{A} - 2\vec{B}$. (Report all angles counterclockwise from the positive x axis.)

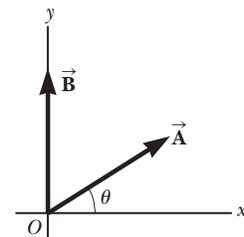


Figure P3.11

Problems 11 and 22.

12. Three displacements are $\vec{A} = 200$ m due south, $\vec{B} = 250$ m due west, and $\vec{C} = 150$ m at 30.0° east of north. (a) Construct a separate diagram for each of the following possible ways of adding these vectors; $\vec{R}_1 = \vec{A} + \vec{B} + \vec{C}$; $\vec{R}_2 = \vec{B} + \vec{C} + \vec{A}$; $\vec{R}_3 = \vec{C} + \vec{B} + \vec{A}$. (b) Explain what you can conclude from comparing the diagrams.

13. A roller-coaster car moves 200 ft horizontally and then rises 135 ft at an angle of 30.0° above the horizontal. It next travels 135 ft at an angle of 40.0° downward. What is its displacement from its starting point? Use graphical techniques.

14. A plane flies from base camp to Lake A, 280 km away in the direction 20.0° north of east. After dropping off supplies, it flies to Lake B, which is 190 km at 30.0° west of north from Lake A. Graphically determine the distance and direction from Lake B to the base camp.

Section 3.4 Components of a Vector and Unit Vectors

15. A vector has an x component of -25.0 units and a y component of 40.0 units. Find the magnitude and direction of this vector.
16. Vector \vec{A} has a magnitude of 35.0 units and points in the direction 325° counterclockwise from the positive x axis. Calculate the x and y components of this vector.
17. A minivan travels straight north in the right lane of a divided highway at 28.0 m/s. A camper passes the minivan and then changes from the left lane into the right lane. As it does so, the camper's path on the road is a straight displacement at 8.50° east of north. To avoid cutting off the minivan, the north-south distance between the camper's back bumper and the minivan's front bumper should not decrease. (a) Can the camper be driven to satisfy this requirement? (b) Explain your answer.
18. A person walks 25.0° north of east for 3.10 km. How far would she have to walk due north and due east to arrive at the same location?
19. Obtain expressions in component form for the position vectors having the polar coordinates (a) 12.8 m, 150° ; (b) 3.30 cm, 60.0° ; and (c) 22.0 in., 215° .
20. A girl delivering newspapers covers her route by traveling 3.00 blocks west, 4.00 blocks north, and then 6.00 blocks east. (a) What is her resultant displacement? (b) What is the total distance she travels?
21. While exploring a cave, a spelunker starts at the entrance and moves the following distances in a horizontal plane. She goes 75.0 m north, 250 m east, 125 m at an angle $\theta = 30.0^\circ$ north of east, and 150 m south. Find her resultant displacement from the cave entrance. Figure P3.21 suggests the situation but is not drawn to scale.

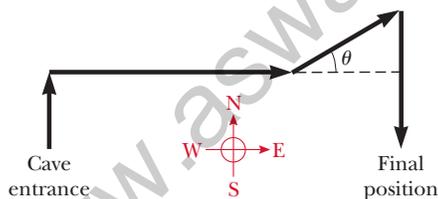


Figure P3.21

22. Use the component method to add the vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} shown in Figure P3.11. Both vectors have magnitudes of 3.00 m and vector \vec{A} makes an angle of $\theta = 30.0^\circ$ with the x axis. Express the resultant $\vec{A} + \vec{B}$ in unit-vector notation.
23. Consider the two vectors $\vec{A} = 3\hat{i} - 2\hat{j}$ and $\vec{B} = -\hat{i} - 4\hat{j}$. Calculate (a) $\vec{A} + \vec{B}$, (b) $\vec{A} - \vec{B}$, (c) $|\vec{A} + \vec{B}|$, (d) $|\vec{A} - \vec{B}|$, and (e) the directions of $\vec{A} + \vec{B}$ and $\vec{A} - \vec{B}$.
24. A map suggests that Atlanta is 730 miles in a direction of 5.00° north of east from Dallas. The same map shows that Chicago is 560 miles in a direction of 21.0° west of north from Atlanta. Figure P3.24 shows the locations of these three cities. Modeling the Earth as flat, use

this information to find the displacement from Dallas to Chicago.



Figure P3.24

25. Your dog is running around the grass in your backyard. He undergoes successive displacements 3.50 m south, 8.20 m northeast, and 15.0 m west. What is the resultant displacement?
26. Given the vectors $\vec{A} = 2.00\hat{i} + 6.00\hat{j}$ and $\vec{B} = 3.00\hat{i} - 2.00\hat{j}$, (a) draw the vector sum $\vec{C} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$ and the vector difference $\vec{D} = \vec{A} - \vec{B}$. (b) Calculate \vec{C} and \vec{D} , in terms of unit vectors. (c) Calculate \vec{C} and \vec{D} in terms of polar coordinates, with angles measured with respect to the positive x axis.
27. A novice golfer on the green takes three strokes to sink the ball. The successive displacements of the ball are 4.00 m to the north, 2.00 m northeast, and 1.00 m at 30.0° west of south (Fig. P3.27). Starting at the same initial point, an expert golfer could make the hole in what single displacement?

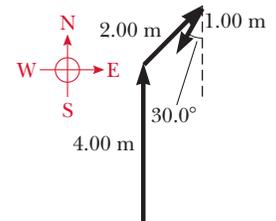


Figure P3.27

28. A snow-covered ski slope makes an angle of 35.0° with the horizontal. When a ski jumper plummets onto the hill, a parcel of splashed snow is thrown up to a maximum displacement of 1.50 m at 16.0° from the vertical in the uphill direction as shown in Figure P3.28. Find the components of its maximum displacement (a) parallel to the surface and (b) perpendicular to the surface.

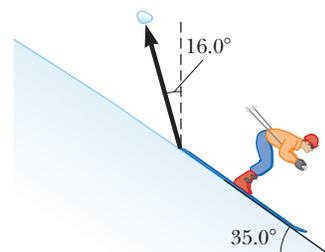


Figure P3.28

29. The helicopter view in Fig. P3.29 (page 74) shows two people pulling on a stubborn mule. The person on the right pulls with a force \vec{F}_1 of magnitude 120 N

and direction of $\theta_1 = 60.0^\circ$. The person on the left pulls with a force \vec{F}_2 of magnitude 80.0 N and direction of $\theta_2 = 75.0^\circ$. Find (a) the single force that is equivalent to the two forces shown and (b) the force that a third person would have to exert on the mule to make the resultant force equal to zero. The forces are measured in units of newtons (symbolized N).

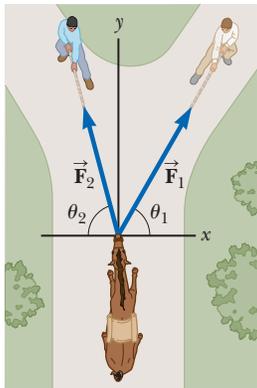


Figure P3.29

30. In a game of American football, a quarterback takes the ball from the line of scrimmage, runs backward a distance of 10.0 yards, and then runs sideways parallel to the line of scrimmage for 15.0 yards. At this point, he throws a forward pass downfield 50.0 yards perpendicular to the line of scrimmage. What is the magnitude of the football's resultant displacement?

31. Consider the three displacement vectors $\vec{A} = (3\hat{i} - 3\hat{j})$ m, $\vec{B} = (\hat{i} - 4\hat{j})$ m, and $\vec{C} = (-2\hat{i} + 5\hat{j})$ m. Use the component method to determine (a) the magnitude and direction of $\vec{D} = \vec{A} + \vec{B} + \vec{C}$ and (b) the magnitude and direction of $\vec{E} = -\vec{A} - \vec{B} + \vec{C}$.

32. Vector \vec{A} has x and y components of -8.70 cm and 15.0 cm, respectively; vector \vec{B} has x and y components of 13.2 cm and -6.60 cm, respectively. If $\vec{A} - \vec{B} + 3\vec{C} = 0$, what are the components of \vec{C} ?

33. The vector \vec{A} has x , y , and z components of 8.00 , 12.0 , and -4.00 units, respectively. (a) Write a vector expression for \vec{A} in unit-vector notation. (b) Obtain a unit-vector expression for a vector \vec{B} one-fourth the length of \vec{A} pointing in the same direction as \vec{A} . (c) Obtain a unit-vector expression for a vector \vec{C} three times the length of \vec{A} pointing in the direction opposite the direction of \vec{A} .

34. Vector \vec{B} has x , y , and z components of 4.00 , 6.00 , and 3.00 units, respectively. Calculate (a) the magnitude of \vec{B} and (b) the angle that \vec{B} makes with each coordinate axis.

35. Vector \vec{A} has a negative x component 3.00 units in length and a positive y component 2.00 units in length. (a) Determine an expression for \vec{A} in unit-vector notation. (b) Determine the magnitude and direction of \vec{A} . (c) What vector \vec{B} when added to \vec{A} gives a resultant vector with no x component and a negative y component 4.00 units in length?

36. Given the displacement vectors $\vec{A} = (3\hat{i} - 4\hat{j} + 4\hat{k})$ m and $\vec{B} = (2\hat{i} + 3\hat{j} - 7\hat{k})$ m, find the magnitudes of the following vectors and express each in terms of its rectangular components. (a) $\vec{C} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$ (b) $\vec{D} = 2\vec{A} - \vec{B}$

37. (a) Taking $\vec{A} = (6.00\hat{i} - 8.00\hat{j})$ units, $\vec{B} = (-8.00\hat{i} + 3.00\hat{j})$ units, and $\vec{C} = (26.0\hat{i} + 19.0\hat{j})$ units, determine a and b such that $a\vec{A} + b\vec{B} + \vec{C} = 0$. (b) A

student has learned that a single equation cannot be solved to determine values for more than one unknown in it. How would you explain to him that both a and b can be determined from the single equation used in part (a)?

38. Three displacement vectors of a croquet ball are shown in Figure P3.38, where $|\vec{A}| = 20.0$ units, $|\vec{B}| = 40.0$ units, and $|\vec{C}| = 30.0$ units. Find (a) the resultant in unit-vector notation and (b) the magnitude and direction of the resultant displacement.

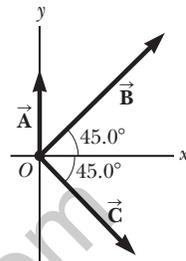


Figure P3.38

39. A man pushing a mop across a floor causes it to undergo two displacements. The first has a magnitude of 150 cm and makes an angle of 120° with the positive x axis. The resultant displacement has a magnitude of 140 cm and is directed at an angle of 35.0° to the positive x axis. Find the magnitude and direction of the second displacement.

40. Figure P3.40 illustrates typical proportions of male (m) and female (f) anatomies. The displacements \vec{d}_{1m} and \vec{d}_{1f} from the soles of the feet to the navel have magnitudes of 104 cm and 84.0 cm, respectively. The displacements \vec{d}_{2m} and \vec{d}_{2f} from the navel to outstretched fingertips have magnitudes of 100 cm and 86.0 cm, respectively. Find the vector sum of these displacements $\vec{d}_3 = \vec{d}_1 + \vec{d}_2$ for both people.

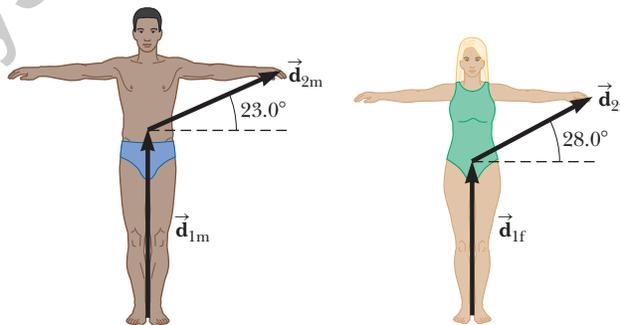


Figure P3.40

41. Express in unit-vector notation the following vectors, each of which has magnitude 17.0 cm. (a) Vector \vec{E} is directed 27.0° counterclockwise from the positive x axis. (b) Vector \vec{F} is directed 27.0° counterclockwise from the positive y axis. (c) Vector \vec{G} is directed 27.0° clockwise from the negative y axis.

42. A radar station locates a sinking ship at range 17.3 km and bearing 136° clockwise from north. From the same station, a rescue plane is at horizontal range 19.6 km, 153° clockwise from north, with elevation 2.20 km. (a) Write the position vector for the ship relative to the plane, letting \hat{i} represent east, \hat{j} north, and \hat{k} up. (b) How far apart are the plane and ship?

43. **Review.** As it passes over Grand Bahama Island, the eye of a hurricane is moving in a direction 60.0° north of west with a speed of 41.0 km/h. (a) What is the unit-vector expression for the velocity of the hurricane?

It maintains this velocity for 3.00 h, at which time the course of the hurricane suddenly shifts due north, and its speed slows to a constant 25.0 km/h. This new velocity is maintained for 1.50 h. (b) What is the unit-vector expression for the new velocity of the hurricane? (c) What is the unit-vector expression for the displacement of the hurricane during the first 3.00 h? (d) What is the unit-vector expression for the displacement of the hurricane during the latter 1.50 h? (e) How far from Grand Bahama is the eye 4.50 h after it passes over the island?

44. *Why is the following situation impossible?* A shopper pushing a cart through a market follows directions to the canned goods and moves through a displacement $8.00\hat{i}$ m down one aisle. He then makes a 90.0° turn and moves 3.00 m along the y axis. He then makes another 90.0° turn and moves 4.00 m along the x axis. Every shopper who follows these directions correctly ends up 5.00 m from the starting point.

45. **Review.** You are standing on the ground at the origin of a coordinate system. An airplane flies over you with constant velocity parallel to the x axis and at a fixed height of 7.60×10^3 m. At time $t = 0$, the airplane is directly above you so that the vector leading from you to it is $\vec{P}_0 = 7.60 \times 10^3\hat{j}$ m. At $t = 30.0$ s, the position vector leading from you to the airplane is $\vec{P}_{30} = (8.04 \times 10^3\hat{i} + 7.60 \times 10^3\hat{j})$ m as suggested in Figure P3.45. Determine the magnitude and orientation of the airplane's position vector at $t = 45.0$ s.

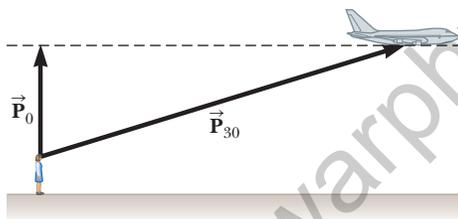


Figure P3.45

46. In Figure P3.46, the line segment represents a path from the point with position vector $(5\hat{i} + 3\hat{j})$ m to the point with location $(16\hat{i} + 12\hat{j})$ m. Point \textcircled{A} is along this path, a fraction f of the way to the destination. (a) Find the position vector of point \textcircled{A} in terms of f . (b) Evaluate the expression from part (a) for $f = 0$. (c) Explain whether the result in part (b) is reasonable. (d) Evaluate the expression for $f = 1$. (e) Explain whether the result in part (d) is reasonable.

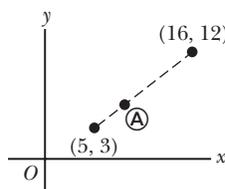


Figure P3.46 Point \textcircled{A} is a fraction f of the distance from the initial point $(5, 3)$ to the final point $(16, 12)$.

47. In an assembly operation illustrated in Figure P3.47, a robot moves an object first straight upward and then also to the east, around an arc forming one-quarter of a circle of radius 4.80 cm that lies in an east–west vertical plane. The robot then moves the object upward and to the north, through one-quarter of a

circle of radius 3.70 cm that lies in a north–south vertical plane. Find (a) the magnitude of the total displacement of the object and (b) the angle the total displacement makes with the vertical.

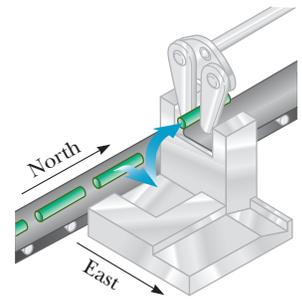


Figure P3.47

Additional Problems

48. **W** A fly lands on one wall of a room. The lower-left corner of the wall is selected as the origin of a two-dimensional Cartesian coordinate system. If the fly is located at the point having coordinates $(2.00, 1.00)$ m, (a) how far is it from the origin? (b) What is its location in polar coordinates?

49. As she picks up her riders, a bus driver traverses four successive displacements represented by the expression $(-6.30 b)\hat{i} - (4.00 b \cos 40^\circ)\hat{i} - (4.00 b \sin 40^\circ)\hat{j} + (3.00 b \cos 50^\circ)\hat{i} - (3.00 b \sin 50^\circ)\hat{j} - (5.00 b)\hat{j}$

Here b represents one city block, a convenient unit of distance of uniform size; \hat{i} is east; and \hat{j} is north. The displacements at 40° and 50° represent travel on roadways in the city that are at these angles to the main east–west and north–south streets. (a) Draw a map of the successive displacements. (b) What total distance did she travel? (c) Compute the magnitude and direction of her total displacement. The logical structure of this problem and of several problems in later chapters was suggested by Alan Van Heuvelen and David Maloney, *American Journal of Physics* **67**(3) 252–256, March 1999.

50. A jet airliner, moving initially at 300 mi/h to the east, suddenly enters a region where the wind is blowing at 100 mi/h toward the direction 30.0° north of east. What are the new speed and direction of the aircraft relative to the ground?

51. **M** A person going for a walk follows the path shown in Figure P3.51. The total trip consists of four straight-line paths. At the end of the walk, what is the person's resultant displacement measured from the starting point?

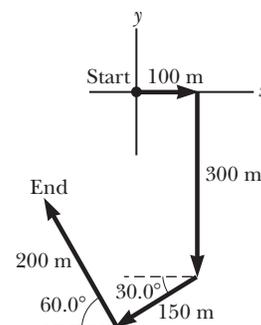


Figure P3.51

52. Find the horizontal and vertical components of the 100-m displacement of a superhero who flies from the

top of a tall building following the path shown in Figure P3.52.

- 53. Review.** The biggest stuffed animal in the world is a snake 420 m long, constructed by Norwegian children. Suppose the snake is laid out in a park as shown in Figure P3.53, forming two straight sides of a 105° angle, with one side 240 m long. Olaf and Inge run a race they invent. Inge runs directly from the tail of the snake to its head, and Olaf starts from the same place at the same moment but runs along the snake.
- (a) If both children run steadily at 12.0 km/h, Inge reaches the head of the snake how much earlier than Olaf? (b) If Inge runs the race again at a constant speed of 12.0 km/h, at what constant speed must Olaf run to reach the end of the snake at the same time as Inge?

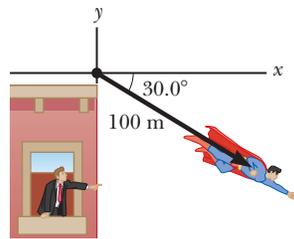


Figure P3.52

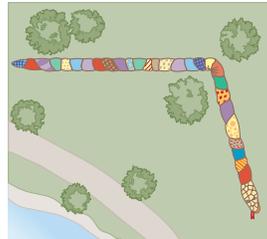


Figure P3.53

- 54.** An air-traffic controller observes two aircraft on his radar screen. The first is at altitude 800 m, horizontal distance 19.2 km, and 25.0° south of west. The second aircraft is at altitude 1100 m, horizontal distance 17.6 km, and 20.0° south of west. What is the distance between the two aircraft? (Place the x axis west, the y axis south, and the z axis vertical.)

- 55.** In Figure P3.55, a spider is resting after starting to spin its web. The gravitational force on the spider makes it exert a downward force of 0.150 N on the junction of the three strands of silk. The junction is supported by different tension forces in the two strands above it so that the resultant force on the junction is zero. The two sloping strands are perpendicular, and we have chosen the x and y directions to be along them. The tension T_x is 0.127 N. Find (a) the tension T_y , (b) the angle the x axis makes with the horizontal, and (c) the angle the y axis makes with the horizontal.

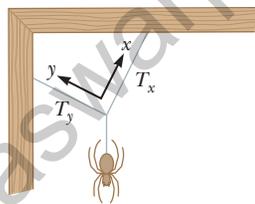


Figure P3.55

- 56.** The rectangle shown in Figure P3.56 has sides parallel to the x and y axes. The position vectors of two corners are $\vec{A} = 10.0$ m at 50.0° and $\vec{B} = 12.0$ m at 30.0° . (a) Find the perimeter of the rectangle. (b) Find the magnitude and direction of the vector from the origin to the upper-right corner of the rectangle.

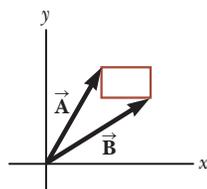


Figure P3.56

- 57.** A vector is given by $\vec{R} = 2\hat{i} + \hat{j} + 3\hat{k}$. Find (a) the magnitudes of the x , y , and z components; (b) the magnitude of \vec{R} ; and (c) the angles between \vec{R} and the x , y , and z axes.
- 58.** A ferry transports tourists between three islands. It sails from the first island to the second island, 4.76 km away, in a direction 37.0° north of east. It then sails from the second island to the third island in a direction 69.0° west of north. Finally it returns to the first island, sailing in a direction 28.0° east of south. Calculate the distance between (a) the second and third islands and (b) the first and third islands.
- 59.** Two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} have precisely equal magnitudes. For the magnitude of $\vec{A} + \vec{B}$ to be 100 times larger than the magnitude of $\vec{A} - \vec{B}$, what must be the angle between them?
- 60.** Two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} have precisely equal magnitudes. For the magnitude of $\vec{A} + \vec{B}$ to be larger than the magnitude of $\vec{A} - \vec{B}$ by the factor n , what must be the angle between them?
- 61.** Let $\vec{A} = 60.0$ cm at 270° measured from the horizontal. Let $\vec{B} = 80.0$ cm at some angle θ . (a) Find the magnitude of $\vec{A} + \vec{B}$ as a function of θ . (b) From the answer to part (a), for what value of θ does $|\vec{A} + \vec{B}|$ take on its maximum value? What is this maximum value? (c) From the answer to part (a), for what value of θ does $|\vec{A} + \vec{B}|$ take on its minimum value? What is this minimum value? (d) Without reference to the answer to part (a), argue that the answers to each of parts (b) and (c) do or do not make sense.
- 62.** After a ball rolls off the edge of a horizontal table at time $t = 0$, its velocity as a function of time is given by

$$\vec{v} = 1.2\hat{i} - 9.8t\hat{j}$$

where \vec{v} is in meters per second and t is in seconds. The ball's displacement away from the edge of the table, during the time interval of 0.380 s for which the ball is in flight, is given by

$$\Delta\vec{r} = \int_0^{0.380\text{ s}} \vec{v} dt$$

To perform the integral, you can use the calculus theorem

$$\int [A + Bf(x)]dx = \int A dx + B \int f(x) dx$$

You can think of the units and unit vectors as constants, represented by A and B . Perform the integration to calculate the displacement of the ball from the edge of the table at 0.380 s.

- 63. Review.** The instantaneous position of an object is specified by its position vector leading from a fixed origin to the location of the object, modeled as a particle. Suppose for a certain object the position vector is a function of time given by $\vec{r} = 4\hat{i} + 3\hat{j} - 2t\hat{k}$, where \vec{r} is in meters and t is in seconds. (a) Evaluate $d\vec{r}/dt$. (b) What physical quantity does $d\vec{r}/dt$ represent about the object?

64. Ecotourists use their global positioning system indicator to determine their location inside a botanical garden as latitude $0.002\ 43$ degree south of the equator, longitude $75.642\ 38$ degrees west. They wish to visit a tree at latitude $0.001\ 62$ degree north, longitude $75.644\ 26$ degrees west. (a) Determine the straight-line distance and the direction in which they can walk to reach the tree as follows. First model the Earth as a sphere of radius 6.37×10^6 m to determine the westward and northward displacement components required, in meters. Then model the Earth as a flat surface to complete the calculation. (b) Explain why it is possible to use these two geometrical models together to solve the problem.
65. A rectangular parallelepiped has dimensions a , b , and c as shown in Figure P3.65. (a) Obtain a vector expression for the face diagonal vector \vec{R}_1 . (b) What is the magnitude of this vector? (c) Notice that \vec{R}_1 , $c\hat{k}$, and \vec{R}_2 make a right triangle. Obtain a vector expression for the body diagonal vector \vec{R}_2 .

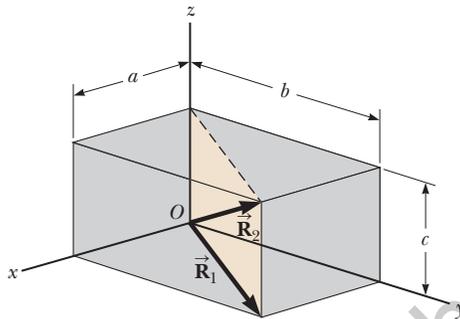


Figure P3.65

66. Vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} have equal magnitudes of 5.00 . The sum of \vec{A} and \vec{B} is the vector $6.00\hat{j}$. Determine the angle between \vec{A} and \vec{B} .

Challenge Problem

67. A pirate has buried his treasure on an island with five trees located at the points $(30.0\text{ m}, -20.0\text{ m})$, $(60.0\text{ m}, 80.0\text{ m})$, $(-10.0\text{ m}, -10.0\text{ m})$, $(40.0\text{ m}, -30.0\text{ m})$, and $(-70.0\text{ m}, 60.0\text{ m})$, all measured relative to some origin, as shown in Figure P3.67. His ship's log instructs you to start at tree A and move toward tree B , but to cover only one-half the distance between A and B . Then move toward tree C , covering one-third the distance between your current location and C . Next move toward tree D , covering one-fourth the distance between where you are and D . Finally move toward tree E , covering one-fifth the distance between you and E , stop, and dig. (a) Assume you have correctly determined the order in which the pirate labeled the trees as A , B , C , D , and E as shown in the figure. What are the coordinates of the point where his treasure is buried? (b) **What If?** What if you do not really know the way the pirate labeled the trees? What would happen to the answer if you rearranged the order of the trees, for instance, to B $(30\text{ m}, -20\text{ m})$, A $(60\text{ m}, 80\text{ m})$, E $(-10\text{ m}, -10\text{ m})$, C $(40\text{ m}, -30\text{ m})$, and D $(-70\text{ m}, 60\text{ m})$? State reasoning to show that the answer does not depend on the order in which the trees are labeled.

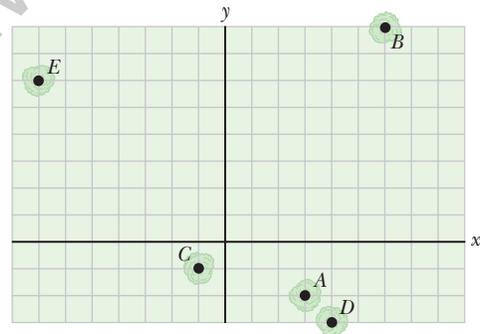


Figure P3.67

Motion in Two Dimensions

- 4.1 The Position, Velocity, and Acceleration Vectors
- 4.2 Two-Dimensional Motion with Constant Acceleration
- 4.3 Projectile Motion
- 4.4 Analysis Model: Particle in Uniform Circular Motion
- 4.5 Tangential and Radial Acceleration
- 4.6 Relative Velocity and Relative Acceleration



Fireworks erupt from the Sydney Harbour Bridge in New South Wales, Australia. Notice the parabolic paths of embers projected into the air. All projectiles follow a parabolic path in the absence of air resistance. (Graham Monro/Photolibrary/Jupiter Images)

In this chapter, we explore the kinematics of a particle moving in two dimensions.

Knowing the basics of two-dimensional motion will allow us—in future chapters—to examine a variety of situations, ranging from the motion of satellites in orbit to the motion of electrons in a uniform electric field. We begin by studying in greater detail the vector nature of position, velocity, and acceleration. We then treat projectile motion and uniform circular motion as special cases of motion in two dimensions. We also discuss the concept of relative motion, which shows why observers in different frames of reference may measure different positions and velocities for a given particle.

4.1 The Position, Velocity, and Acceleration Vectors

In Chapter 2, we found that the motion of a particle along a straight line such as the x axis is completely known if its position is known as a function of time. Let us now extend this idea to two-dimensional motion of a particle in the xy plane. We begin by describing the position of the particle. In one dimension, a single numerical value describes a particle's position, but in two dimensions, we indicate its position by its **position vector** \vec{r} , drawn from the origin of some coordinate system to the location of the particle in the xy plane as in Figure 4.1. At time t_i , the particle is at point **A**, described by position vector \vec{r}_i . At some later time t_f , it is at point **B**, described by position vector \vec{r}_f . The path followed by the particle from

Ⓐ to Ⓑ is not necessarily a straight line. As the particle moves from Ⓐ to Ⓑ in the time interval $\Delta t = t_f - t_i$, its position vector changes from \vec{r}_i to \vec{r}_f . As we learned in Chapter 2, displacement is a vector, and the displacement of the particle is the difference between its final position and its initial position. We now define the **displacement vector** $\Delta\vec{r}$ for a particle such as the one in Figure 4.1 as being the difference between its final position vector and its initial position vector:

$$\Delta\vec{r} \equiv \vec{r}_f - \vec{r}_i \quad (4.1)$$

◀ Displacement vector

The direction of $\Delta\vec{r}$ is indicated in Figure 4.1. As we see from the figure, the magnitude of $\Delta\vec{r}$ is *less* than the distance traveled along the curved path followed by the particle.

As we saw in Chapter 2, it is often useful to quantify motion by looking at the displacement divided by the time interval during which that displacement occurs, which gives the rate of change of position. Two-dimensional (or three-dimensional) kinematics is similar to one-dimensional kinematics, but we must now use full vector notation rather than positive and negative signs to indicate the direction of motion.

We define the **average velocity** \vec{v}_{avg} of a particle during the time interval Δt as the displacement of the particle divided by the time interval:

$$\vec{v}_{\text{avg}} \equiv \frac{\Delta\vec{r}}{\Delta t} \quad (4.2)$$

◀ Average velocity

Multiplying or dividing a vector quantity by a positive scalar quantity such as Δt changes only the magnitude of the vector, not its direction. Because displacement is a vector quantity and the time interval is a positive scalar quantity, we conclude that the average velocity is a vector quantity directed along $\Delta\vec{r}$. Compare Equation 4.2 with its one-dimensional counterpart, Equation 2.2.

The average velocity between points is *independent of the path* taken. That is because average velocity is proportional to displacement, which depends only on the initial and final position vectors and not on the path taken. As with one-dimensional motion, we conclude that if a particle starts its motion at some point and returns to this point via any path, its average velocity is zero for this trip because its displacement is zero. Consider again our basketball players on the court in Figure 2.2 (page 23). We previously considered only their one-dimensional motion back and forth between the baskets. In reality, however, they move over a two-dimensional surface, running back and forth between the baskets as well as left and right across the width of the court. Starting from one basket, a given player may follow a very complicated two-dimensional path. Upon returning to the original basket, however, a player's average velocity is zero because the player's displacement for the whole trip is zero.

Consider again the motion of a particle between two points in the xy plane as shown in Figure 4.2 (page 80). The dashed curve shows the path of the particle. As the time interval over which we observe the motion becomes smaller and smaller—that is, as Ⓑ is moved to Ⓑ' and then to Ⓑ'' and so on—the direction of the displacement approaches that of the line tangent to the path at Ⓐ. The **instantaneous velocity** \vec{v} is defined as the limit of the average velocity $\Delta\vec{r}/\Delta t$ as Δt approaches zero:

$$\vec{v} \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta\vec{r}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} \quad (4.3)$$

◀ Instantaneous velocity

That is, the instantaneous velocity equals the derivative of the position vector with respect to time. The direction of the instantaneous velocity vector at any point in a particle's path is along a line tangent to the path at that point and in the direction of motion. Compare Equation 4.3 with the corresponding one-dimensional version, Equation 2.5.

The magnitude of the instantaneous velocity vector $v = |\vec{v}|$ of a particle is called the *speed* of the particle, which is a scalar quantity.

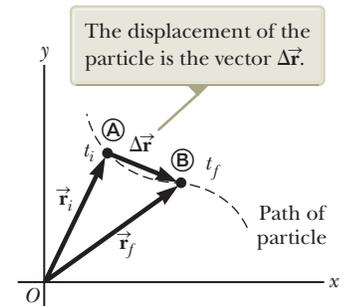
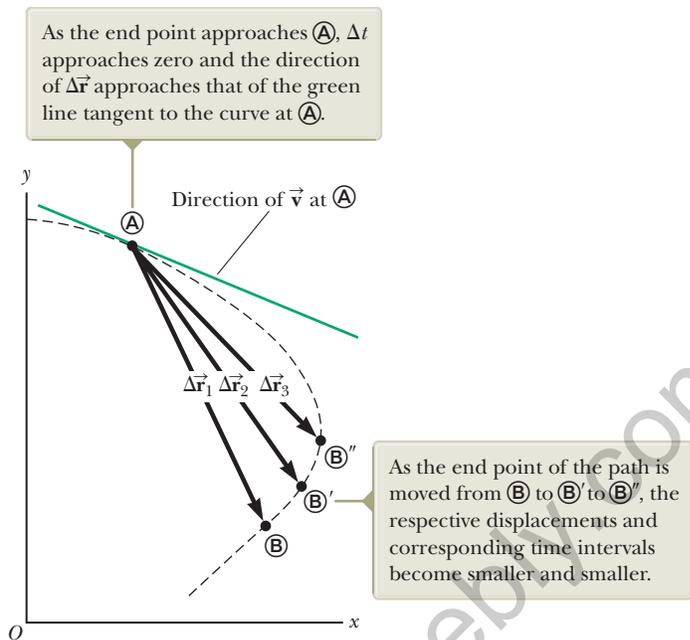


Figure 4.1 A particle moving in the xy plane is located with the position vector \vec{r} drawn from the origin to the particle. The displacement of the particle as it moves from Ⓐ to Ⓑ in the time interval $\Delta t = t_f - t_i$ is equal to the vector $\Delta\vec{r} = \vec{r}_f - \vec{r}_i$.

Figure 4.2 As a particle moves between two points, its average velocity is in the direction of the displacement vector $\Delta\vec{r}$. By definition, the instantaneous velocity at \textcircled{A} is directed along the line tangent to the curve at \textcircled{A} .



As a particle moves from one point to another along some path, its instantaneous velocity vector changes from \vec{v}_i at time t_i to \vec{v}_f at time t_f . Knowing the velocity at these points allows us to determine the average acceleration of the particle. The **average acceleration** \vec{a}_{avg} of a particle is defined as the change in its instantaneous velocity vector $\Delta\vec{v}$ divided by the time interval Δt during which that change occurs:

Average acceleration ►

$$\vec{a}_{\text{avg}} \equiv \frac{\Delta\vec{v}}{\Delta t} = \frac{\vec{v}_f - \vec{v}_i}{t_f - t_i} \quad (4.4)$$

Because \vec{a}_{avg} is the ratio of a vector quantity $\Delta\vec{v}$ and a positive scalar quantity Δt , we conclude that average acceleration is a vector quantity directed along $\Delta\vec{v}$. As indicated in Figure 4.3, the direction of $\Delta\vec{v}$ is found by adding the vector $-\vec{v}_i$ (the negative of \vec{v}_i) to the vector \vec{v}_f because, by definition, $\Delta\vec{v} = \vec{v}_f - \vec{v}_i$. Compare Equation 4.4 with Equation 2.9.

When the average acceleration of a particle changes during different time intervals, it is useful to define its instantaneous acceleration. The **instantaneous acceleration** \vec{a} is defined as the limiting value of the ratio $\Delta\vec{v}/\Delta t$ as Δt approaches zero:

Instantaneous acceleration ►

$$\vec{a} \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta\vec{v}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \quad (4.5)$$

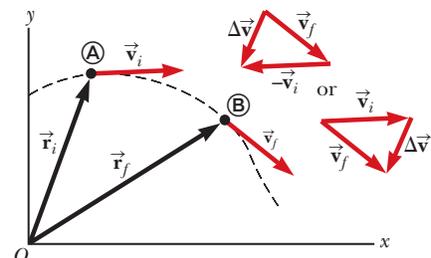
In other words, the instantaneous acceleration equals the derivative of the velocity vector with respect to time. Compare Equation 4.5 with Equation 2.10.

Various changes can occur when a particle accelerates. First, the magnitude of the velocity vector (the speed) may change with time as in straight-line (one-

Pitfall Prevention 4.1

Vector Addition Although the vector addition discussed in Chapter 3 involves *displacement* vectors, vector addition can be applied to *any* type of vector quantity. Figure 4.3, for example, shows the addition of *velocity* vectors using the graphical approach.

Figure 4.3 A particle moves from position \textcircled{A} to position \textcircled{B} . Its velocity vector changes from \vec{v}_i to \vec{v}_f . The vector diagrams at the upper right show two ways of determining the vector $\Delta\vec{v}$ from the initial and final velocities.



dimensional) motion. Second, the direction of the velocity vector may change with time even if its magnitude (speed) remains constant as in two-dimensional motion along a curved path. Finally, both the magnitude and the direction of the velocity vector may change simultaneously.

- Quick Quiz 4.1** Consider the following controls in an automobile in motion: gas pedal, brake, steering wheel. What are the controls in this list that cause an acceleration of the car? (a) all three controls (b) the gas pedal and the brake (c) only the brake (d) only the gas pedal (e) only the steering wheel

4.2 Two-Dimensional Motion with Constant Acceleration

In Section 2.5, we investigated one-dimensional motion of a particle under constant acceleration and developed the particle under constant acceleration model. Let us now consider two-dimensional motion during which the acceleration of a particle remains constant in both magnitude and direction. As we shall see, this approach is useful for analyzing some common types of motion.

Before embarking on this investigation, we need to emphasize an important point regarding two-dimensional motion. Imagine an air hockey puck moving in a straight line along a perfectly level, friction-free surface of an air hockey table. Figure 4.4a shows a motion diagram from an overhead point of view of this puck. Recall that in Section 2.4 we related the acceleration of an object to a force on the object. Because there are no forces on the puck in the horizontal plane, it moves with constant velocity in the x direction. Now suppose you blow a puff of air on the puck as it passes your position, with the force from your puff of air *exactly* in the y direction. Because the force from this puff of air has no component in the x direction, it causes no acceleration in the x direction. It only causes a momentary acceleration in the y direction, causing the puck to have a constant y component of velocity once the force from the puff of air is removed. After your puff of air on the puck, its velocity component in the x direction is unchanged as shown in Figure 4.4b. The generalization of this simple experiment is that **motion in two dimensions can be modeled as two independent motions in each of the two perpendicular directions associated with the x and y axes. That is, any influence in the y direction does not affect the motion in the x direction and vice versa.**

The position vector for a particle moving in the xy plane can be written

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} \quad (4.6)$$

where x , y , and \vec{r} change with time as the particle moves while the unit vectors \hat{i} and \hat{j} remain constant. If the position vector is known, the velocity of the particle can be obtained from Equations 4.3 and 4.6, which give

$$\vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} = \frac{dx}{dt}\hat{i} + \frac{dy}{dt}\hat{j} = v_x\hat{i} + v_y\hat{j} \quad (4.7)$$

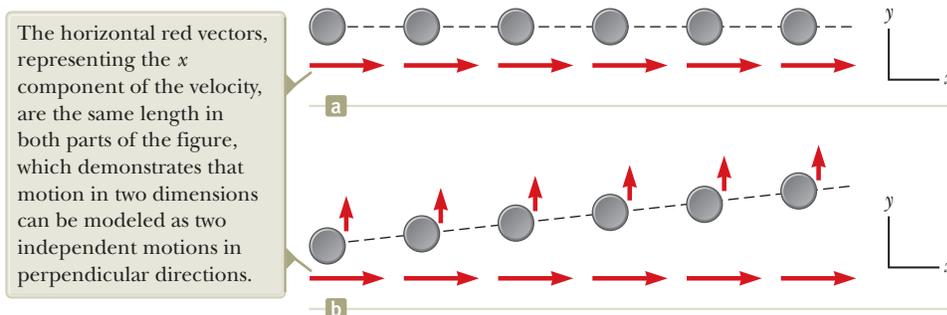


Figure 4.4 (a) A puck moves across a horizontal air hockey table at constant velocity in the x direction. (b) After a puff of air in the y direction is applied to the puck, the puck has gained a y component of velocity, but the x component is unaffected by the force in the perpendicular direction.

Because the acceleration \vec{a} of the particle is assumed constant in this discussion, its components a_x and a_y also are constants. Therefore, we can model the particle as a particle under constant acceleration independently in each of the two directions and apply the equations of kinematics separately to the x and y components of the velocity vector. Substituting, from Equation 2.13, $v_{xf} = v_{xi} + a_x t$ and $v_{yf} = v_{yi} + a_y t$ into Equation 4.7 to determine the final velocity at any time t , we obtain

$$\vec{v}_f = (v_{xi} + a_x t)\hat{i} + (v_{yi} + a_y t)\hat{j} = (v_{xi}\hat{i} + v_{yi}\hat{j}) + (a_x\hat{i} + a_y\hat{j})t$$

Velocity vector as a function of time for a particle under constant acceleration in two dimensions

$$\vec{v}_f = \vec{v}_i + \vec{a}t$$

(4.8)

This result states that the velocity of a particle at some time t equals the vector sum of its initial velocity \vec{v}_i at time $t = 0$ and the additional velocity $\vec{a}t$ acquired at time t as a result of constant acceleration. Equation 4.8 is the vector version of Equation 2.13.

Similarly, from Equation 2.16 we know that the x and y coordinates of a particle under constant acceleration are

$$x_f = x_i + v_{xi}t + \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2 \quad y_f = y_i + v_{yi}t + \frac{1}{2}a_y t^2$$

Substituting these expressions into Equation 4.6 (and labeling the final position vector \vec{r}_f) gives

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r}_f &= (x_i + v_{xi}t + \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2)\hat{i} + (y_i + v_{yi}t + \frac{1}{2}a_y t^2)\hat{j} \\ &= (x_i\hat{i} + y_i\hat{j}) + (v_{xi}\hat{i} + v_{yi}\hat{j})t + \frac{1}{2}(a_x\hat{i} + a_y\hat{j})t^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\vec{r}_f = \vec{r}_i + \vec{v}_i t + \frac{1}{2}\vec{a}t^2$$

(4.9)

Position vector as a function of time for a particle under constant acceleration in two dimensions

which is the vector version of Equation 2.16. Equation 4.9 tells us that the position vector \vec{r}_f of a particle is the vector sum of the original position \vec{r}_i , a displacement $\vec{v}_i t$ arising from the initial velocity of the particle, and a displacement $\frac{1}{2}\vec{a}t^2$ resulting from the constant acceleration of the particle.

We can consider Equations 4.8 and 4.9 to be the mathematical representation of a two-dimensional version of the particle under constant acceleration model. Graphical representations of Equations 4.8 and 4.9 are shown in Figure 4.5. The components of the position and velocity vectors are also illustrated in the figure. Notice from Figure 4.5a that \vec{v}_f is generally not along the direction of either \vec{v}_i or \vec{a} because the relationship between these quantities is a vector expression. For the same reason, from Figure 4.5b we see that \vec{r}_f is generally not along the direction of \vec{r}_i , \vec{v}_i , or \vec{a} . Finally, notice that \vec{v}_f and \vec{r}_f are generally not in the same direction.

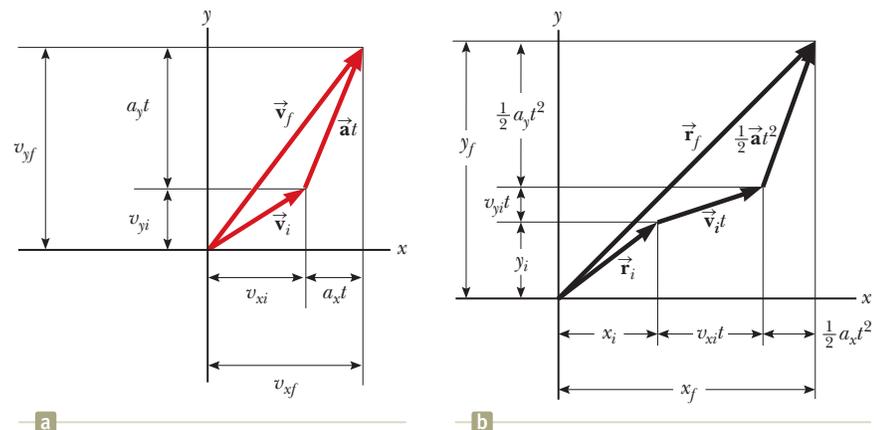


Figure 4.5 Vector representations and components of (a) the velocity and (b) the position of a particle under constant acceleration in two dimensions.

Example 4.1 Motion in a Plane **AM**

A particle moves in the xy plane, starting from the origin at $t = 0$ with an initial velocity having an x component of 20 m/s and a y component of -15 m/s. The particle experiences an acceleration in the x direction, given by $a_x = 4.0$ m/s².

(A) Determine the total velocity vector at any time.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize The components of the initial velocity tell us that the particle starts by moving toward the right and downward. The x component of velocity starts at 20 m/s and increases by 4.0 m/s every second. The y component of velocity never changes from its initial value of -15 m/s. We sketch a motion diagram of the situation in Figure 4.6. Because the particle is accelerating in the $+x$ direction, its velocity component in this direction increases and the path curves as shown in the diagram. Notice that the spacing between successive images increases as time goes on because the speed is increasing. The placement of the acceleration and velocity vectors in Figure 4.6 helps us further conceptualize the situation.

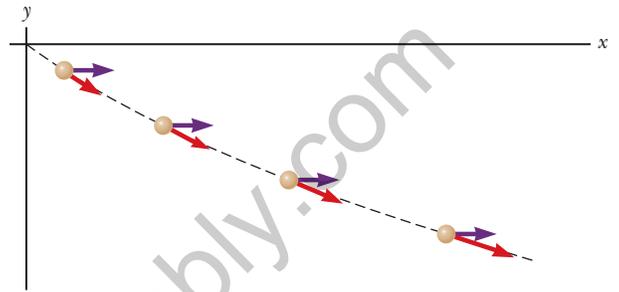


Figure 4.6 (Example 4.1) Motion diagram for the particle.

Categorize Because the initial velocity has components in both the x and y directions, we categorize this problem as one involving a particle moving in two dimensions. Because the particle only has an x component of acceleration, we model it as a *particle under constant acceleration* in the x direction and a *particle under constant velocity* in the y direction.

Analyze To begin the mathematical analysis, we set $v_{xi} = 20$ m/s, $v_{yi} = -15$ m/s, $a_x = 4.0$ m/s², and $a_y = 0$.

Use Equation 4.8 for the velocity vector:

$$\vec{v}_f = \vec{v}_i + \vec{a}t = (v_{xi} + a_x t)\hat{i} + (v_{yi} + a_y t)\hat{j}$$

Substitute numerical values with the velocity in meters per second and the time in seconds:

$$\vec{v}_f = [20 + (4.0)t]\hat{i} + [-15 + (0)t]\hat{j}$$

$$(1) \quad \vec{v}_f = [(20 + 4.0t)\hat{i} - 15\hat{j}]$$

Finalize Notice that the x component of velocity increases in time while the y component remains constant; this result is consistent with our prediction.

(B) Calculate the velocity and speed of the particle at $t = 5.0$ s and the angle the velocity vector makes with the x axis.

SOLUTION**Analyze**

Evaluate the result from Equation (1) at $t = 5.0$ s:

$$\vec{v}_f = [(20 + 4.0(5.0))\hat{i} - 15\hat{j}] = (40\hat{i} - 15\hat{j}) \text{ m/s}$$

Determine the angle θ that \vec{v}_f makes with the x axis at $t = 5.0$ s:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{v_{yf}}{v_{xf}}\right) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{-15 \text{ m/s}}{40 \text{ m/s}}\right) = -21^\circ$$

Evaluate the speed of the particle as the magnitude of \vec{v}_f :

$$v_f = |\vec{v}_f| = \sqrt{v_{xf}^2 + v_{yf}^2} = \sqrt{(40)^2 + (-15)^2} \text{ m/s} = 43 \text{ m/s}$$

Finalize The negative sign for the angle θ indicates that the velocity vector is directed at an angle of 21° below the positive x axis. Notice that if we calculate v_f from the x and y components of \vec{v}_f , we find that $v_f > v_i$. Is that consistent with our prediction?

(C) Determine the x and y coordinates of the particle at any time t and its position vector at this time.

continued

4.1 continued

SOLUTION

Analyze

Use the components of Equation 4.9 with $x_i = y_i = 0$ at $t = 0$ and with x and y in meters and t in seconds:

$$x_f = v_{x_i}t + \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2 = 20t + 2.0t^2$$

$$y_f = v_{y_i}t = -15t$$

Express the position vector of the particle at any time t :

$$\vec{r}_f = x_f\hat{i} + y_f\hat{j} = (20t + 2.0t^2)\hat{i} - 15t\hat{j}$$

Finalize Let us now consider a limiting case for very large values of t .

WHAT IF? What if we wait a very long time and then observe the motion of the particle? How would we describe the motion of the particle for large values of the time?

Answer Looking at Figure 4.6, we see the path of the particle curving toward the x axis. There is no reason to assume this tendency will change, which suggests that the path will become more and more parallel to the x axis as time grows large. Mathematically, Equation (1) shows that the y component of the velocity remains constant while the x component grows linearly with t . Therefore, when t is very large, the x component of the velocity will be much larger than the y component, suggesting that the velocity vector becomes more and more parallel to the x axis. The magnitudes of both x_f and y_f continue to grow with time, although x_f grows much faster.

Pitfall Prevention 4.2

Acceleration at the Highest Point

As discussed in Pitfall Prevention 2.8, many people claim that the acceleration of a projectile at the topmost point of its trajectory is zero. This mistake arises from confusion between zero vertical velocity and zero acceleration. If the projectile were to experience zero acceleration at the highest point, its velocity at that point would not change; rather, the projectile would move horizontally at constant speed from then on! That does not happen, however, because the acceleration is *not* zero anywhere along the trajectory.



Lester Leifkowitz/Icon/Getty Images

A welder cuts holes through a heavy metal construction beam with a hot torch. The sparks generated in the process follow parabolic paths.

4.3 Projectile Motion

Anyone who has observed a baseball in motion has observed projectile motion. The ball moves in a curved path and returns to the ground. **Projectile motion** of an object is simple to analyze if we make two assumptions: (1) the free-fall acceleration is constant over the range of motion and is directed downward,¹ and (2) the effect of air resistance is negligible.² With these assumptions, we find that the path of a projectile, which we call its *trajectory*, is *always* a parabola as shown in Figure 4.7.

We use these assumptions throughout this chapter.

The expression for the position vector of the projectile as a function of time follows directly from Equation 4.9, with its acceleration being that due to gravity, $\vec{a} = \vec{g}$:

$$\vec{r}_f = \vec{r}_i + \vec{v}_i t + \frac{1}{2}\vec{g}t^2 \quad (4.10)$$

where the initial x and y components of the velocity of the projectile are

$$v_{xi} = v_i \cos \theta_i \quad v_{yi} = v_i \sin \theta_i \quad (4.11)$$

The expression in Equation 4.10 is plotted in Figure 4.8 for a projectile launched from the origin, so that $\vec{r}_i = 0$. The final position of a particle can be considered to be the superposition of its initial position \vec{r}_i ; the term $\vec{v}_i t$, which is its displacement if no acceleration were present; and the term $\frac{1}{2}\vec{g}t^2$ that arises from its acceleration due to gravity. In other words, if there were no gravitational acceleration, the particle would continue to move along a straight path in the direction of \vec{v}_i . Therefore, the vertical distance $\frac{1}{2}\vec{g}t^2$ through which the particle “falls” off the straight-line path is the same distance that an object dropped from rest would fall during the same time interval.

¹This assumption is reasonable as long as the range of motion is small compared with the radius of the Earth (6.4×10^6 m). In effect, this assumption is equivalent to assuming the Earth is flat over the range of motion considered.

²This assumption is often *not* justified, especially at high velocities. In addition, any spin imparted to a projectile, such as that applied when a pitcher throws a curve ball, can give rise to some very interesting effects associated with aerodynamic forces, which will be discussed in Chapter 14.

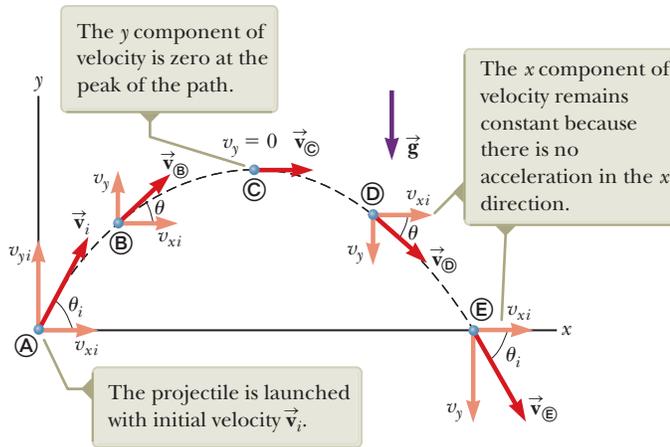


Figure 4.7 The parabolic path of a projectile that leaves the origin with a velocity \vec{v}_i . The velocity vector \vec{v} changes with time in both magnitude and direction. This change is the result of acceleration $\vec{a} = \vec{g}$ in the negative y direction.

In Section 4.2, we stated that two-dimensional motion with constant acceleration can be analyzed as a combination of two independent motions in the x and y directions, with accelerations a_x and a_y . Projectile motion can also be handled in this way, with acceleration $a_x = 0$ in the x direction and a constant acceleration $a_y = -g$ in the y direction. Therefore, when solving projectile motion problems, use two analysis models: (1) the particle under constant velocity in the horizontal direction (Eq. 2.7):

$$x_f = x_i + v_{xi}t$$

and (2) the particle under constant acceleration in the vertical direction (Eqs. 2.13–2.17 with x changed to y and $a_y = -g$):

$$v_{yf} = v_{yi} - gt$$

$$v_{y,\text{avg}} = \frac{v_{yi} + v_{yf}}{2}$$

$$y_f = y_i + \frac{1}{2}(v_{yi} + v_{yf})t$$

$$y_f = y_i + v_{yi}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

$$v_{yf}^2 = v_{yi}^2 - 2g(y_f - y_i)$$

The horizontal and vertical components of a projectile's motion are completely independent of each other and can be handled separately, with time t as the common variable for both components.

- Quick Quiz 4.2** (i) As a projectile thrown upward moves in its parabolic path (such as in Fig. 4.8), at what point along its path are the velocity and acceleration vectors for the projectile perpendicular to each other? (a) nowhere (b) the highest point (c) the launch point (ii) From the same choices, at what point are the velocity and acceleration vectors for the projectile parallel to each other?

Horizontal Range and Maximum Height of a Projectile

Before embarking on some examples, let us consider a special case of projectile motion that occurs often. Assume a projectile is launched from the origin at $t_i = 0$ with a positive v_{yi} component as shown in Figure 4.9 and returns to the same horizontal level. This situation is common in sports, where baseballs, footballs, and golf balls often land at the same level from which they were launched.

Two points in this motion are especially interesting to analyze: the peak point **A**, which has Cartesian coordinates $(R/2, h)$, and the point **B**, which has coordinates $(R, 0)$. The distance R is called the *horizontal range* of the projectile, and the distance h is its *maximum height*. Let us find h and R mathematically in terms of v_i , θ_i , and g .

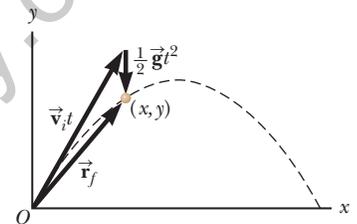


Figure 4.8 The position vector \vec{r}_f of a projectile launched from the origin whose initial velocity at the origin is \vec{v}_i . The vector $\vec{v}_i t$ would be the displacement of the projectile if gravity were absent, and the vector $\frac{1}{2}\vec{g}t^2$ is its vertical displacement from a straight-line path due to its downward gravitational acceleration.

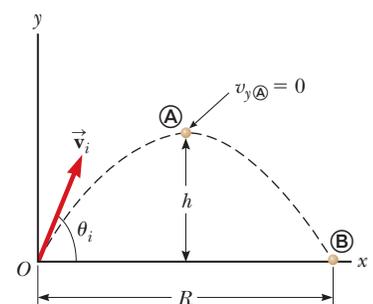


Figure 4.9 A projectile launched over a flat surface from the origin at $t_i = 0$ with an initial velocity \vec{v}_i . The maximum height of the projectile is h , and the horizontal range is R . At **A**, the peak of the trajectory, the particle has coordinates $(R/2, h)$.

We can determine h by noting that at the peak $v_{y\textcircled{A}} = 0$. Therefore, from the particle under constant acceleration model, we can use the y direction version of Equation 2.13 to determine the time $t_{\textcircled{A}}$ at which the projectile reaches the peak:

$$v_{yf} = v_{yi} - gt \rightarrow 0 = v_i \sin \theta_i - gt_{\textcircled{A}}$$

$$t_{\textcircled{A}} = \frac{v_i \sin \theta_i}{g}$$

Substituting this expression for $t_{\textcircled{A}}$ into the y direction version of Equation 2.16 and replacing $y_f = y_{\textcircled{A}}$ with h , we obtain an expression for h in terms of the magnitude and direction of the initial velocity vector:

$$y_f = y_i + v_{yi}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 \rightarrow h = (v_i \sin \theta_i) \frac{v_i \sin \theta_i}{g} - \frac{1}{2}g \left(\frac{v_i \sin \theta_i}{g} \right)^2$$

$$h = \frac{v_i^2 \sin^2 \theta_i}{2g} \quad (4.12)$$

The range R is the horizontal position of the projectile at a time that is twice the time at which it reaches its peak, that is, at time $t_{\textcircled{B}} = 2t_{\textcircled{A}}$. Using the particle under constant velocity model, noting that $v_{xi} = v_{x\textcircled{B}} = v_i \cos \theta_i$, and setting $x_{\textcircled{B}} = R$ at $t = 2t_{\textcircled{A}}$, we find that

$$x_f = x_i + v_{xi}t \rightarrow R = v_{xi}t_{\textcircled{B}} = (v_i \cos \theta_i)2t_{\textcircled{A}}$$

$$= (v_i \cos \theta_i) \frac{2v_i \sin \theta_i}{g} = \frac{2v_i^2 \sin \theta_i \cos \theta_i}{g}$$

Using the identity $\sin 2\theta = 2 \sin \theta \cos \theta$ (see Appendix B.4), we can write R in the more compact form

$$R = \frac{v_i^2 \sin 2\theta_i}{g} \quad (4.13)$$

The maximum value of R from Equation 4.13 is $R_{\text{max}} = v_i^2/g$. This result makes sense because the maximum value of $\sin 2\theta_i$ is 1, which occurs when $2\theta_i = 90^\circ$. Therefore, R is a maximum when $\theta_i = 45^\circ$.

Figure 4.10 illustrates various trajectories for a projectile having a given initial speed but launched at different angles. As you can see, the range is a maximum for $\theta_i = 45^\circ$. In addition, for any θ_i other than 45° , a point having Cartesian coordinates $(R, 0)$ can be reached by using either one of two complementary values of θ_i , such as 75° and 15° . Of course, the maximum height and time of flight for one of these values of θ_i are different from the maximum height and time of flight for the complementary value.

Quick Quiz 4.3 Rank the launch angles for the five paths in Figure 4.10 with respect to time of flight from the shortest time of flight to the longest.

Pitfall Prevention 4.3

The Range Equation Equation 4.13 is useful for calculating R only for a symmetric path as shown in Figure 4.10. If the path is not symmetric, *do not use this equation*. The particle under constant velocity and particle under constant acceleration models are the important starting points because they give the position and velocity components of *any* projectile moving with constant acceleration in two dimensions at *any* time t .

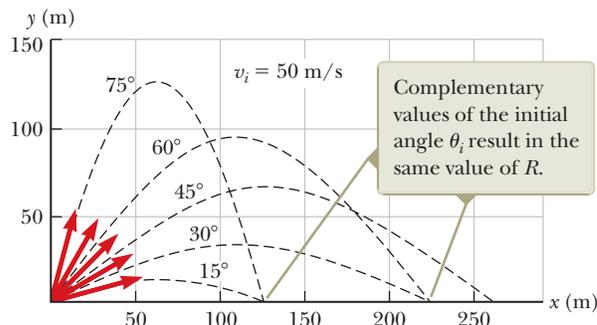


Figure 4.10 A projectile launched over a flat surface from the origin with an initial speed of 50 m/s at various angles of projection.

Problem-Solving Strategy Projectile Motion

We suggest you use the following approach when solving projectile motion problems.

- 1. Conceptualize.** Think about what is going on physically in the problem. Establish the mental representation by imagining the projectile moving along its trajectory.
- 2. Categorize.** Confirm that the problem involves a particle in free fall and that air resistance is neglected. Select a coordinate system with x in the horizontal direction and y in the vertical direction. Use the particle under constant velocity model for the x component of the motion. Use the particle under constant acceleration model for the y direction. In the special case of the projectile returning to the same level from which it was launched, use Equations 4.12 and 4.13.
- 3. Analyze.** If the initial velocity vector is given, resolve it into x and y components. Select the appropriate equation(s) from the particle under constant acceleration model for the vertical motion and use these along with Equation 2.7 for the horizontal motion to solve for the unknown(s).
- 4. Finalize.** Once you have determined your result, check to see if your answers are consistent with the mental and pictorial representations and your results are realistic.

Example 4.2 The Long Jump

A long jumper (Fig. 4.11) leaves the ground at an angle of 20.0° above the horizontal and at a speed of 11.0 m/s .

(A) How far does he jump in the horizontal direction?

SOLUTION

Conceptualize The arms and legs of a long jumper move in a complicated way, but we will ignore this motion. We conceptualize the motion of the long jumper as equivalent to that of a simple projectile.

Categorize We categorize this example as a projectile motion problem. Because the initial speed and launch angle are given and because the final height is the same as the initial height, we further categorize this problem as satisfying the conditions for which Equations 4.12 and 4.13 can be used. This approach is the most direct way to analyze this problem, although the general methods that have been described will always give the correct answer.

Analyze

Use Equation 4.13 to find the range of the jumper:

$$R = \frac{v_i^2 \sin 2\theta_i}{g} = \frac{(11.0 \text{ m/s})^2 \sin 2(20.0^\circ)}{9.80 \text{ m/s}^2} = 7.94 \text{ m}$$

(B) What is the maximum height reached?

SOLUTION

Analyze

Find the maximum height reached by using Equation 4.12:

$$h = \frac{v_i^2 \sin^2 \theta_i}{2g} = \frac{(11.0 \text{ m/s})^2 (\sin 20.0^\circ)^2}{2(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)} = 0.722 \text{ m}$$

Finalize Find the answers to parts (A) and (B) using the general method. The results should agree. Treating the long jumper as a particle is an oversimplification. Nevertheless, the values obtained are consistent with experience in sports. We can model a complicated system such as a long jumper as a particle and still obtain reasonable results.



Figure 4.11 (Example 4.2) Romain Barras of France competes in the men's decathlon long jump at the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games.

Sipa via AP Images

Example 4.3 A Bull's-Eye Every Time AM

In a popular lecture demonstration, a projectile is fired at a target in such a way that the projectile leaves the gun at the same time the target is dropped from rest. Show that if the gun is initially aimed at the stationary target, the projectile hits the falling target as shown in Figure 4.12a.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize We conceptualize the problem by studying Figure 4.12a. Notice that the problem does not ask for numerical values. The expected result must involve an algebraic argument.

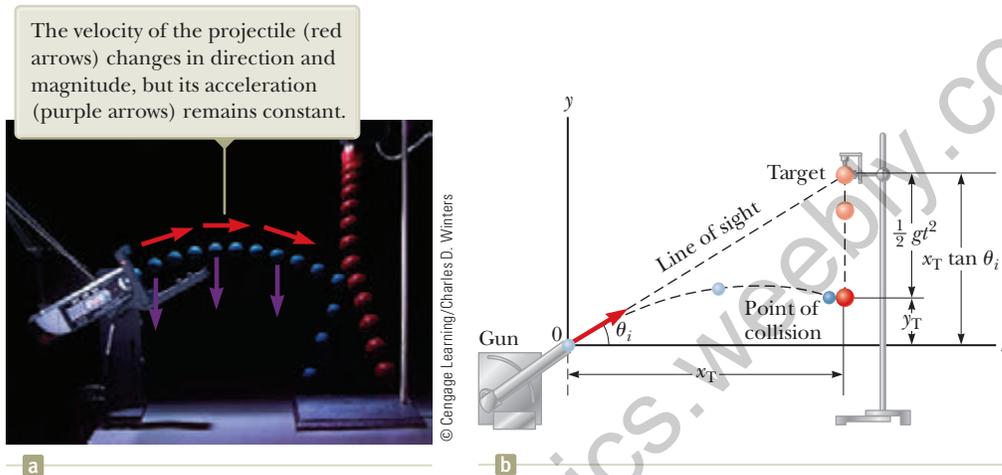


Figure 4.12 (Example 4.3) (a) Multiflash photograph of the projectile–target demonstration. If the gun is aimed directly at the target and is fired at the same instant the target begins to fall, the projectile will hit the target. (b) Schematic diagram of the projectile–target demonstration.

Categorize Because both objects are subject only to gravity, we categorize this problem as one involving two objects in free fall, the target moving in one dimension and the projectile moving in two. The target T is modeled as a *particle under constant acceleration* in one dimension. The projectile P is modeled as a *particle under constant acceleration* in the y direction and a *particle under constant velocity* in the x direction.

Analyze Figure 4.12b shows that the initial y coordinate y_{iT} of the target is $x_T \tan \theta_i$ and its initial velocity is zero. It falls with acceleration $a_y = -g$.

Write an expression for the y coordinate of the target at any moment after release, noting that its initial velocity is zero:

$$(1) \quad y_T = y_{iT} + (0)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 = x_T \tan \theta_i - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

Write an expression for the y coordinate of the projectile at any moment:

$$(2) \quad y_P = y_{iP} + v_{yiP}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 = 0 + (v_{iP} \sin \theta_i)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 = (v_{iP} \sin \theta_i)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

Write an expression for the x coordinate of the projectile at any moment:

$$x_P = x_{iP} + v_{xiP}t = 0 + (v_{iP} \cos \theta_i)t = (v_{iP} \cos \theta_i)t$$

Solve this expression for time as a function of the horizontal position of the projectile:

$$t = \frac{x_P}{v_{iP} \cos \theta_i}$$

Substitute this expression into Equation (2):

$$(3) \quad y_P = (v_{iP} \sin \theta_i) \left(\frac{x_P}{v_{iP} \cos \theta_i} \right) - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 = x_P \tan \theta_i - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

Finalize Compare Equations (1) and (3). We see that when the x coordinates of the projectile and target are the same—that is, when $x_T = x_P$ —their y coordinates given by Equations (1) and (3) are the same and a collision results.

Example 4.4 That's Quite an Arm! **AM**

A stone is thrown from the top of a building upward at an angle of 30.0° to the horizontal with an initial speed of 20.0 m/s as shown in Figure 4.13. The height from which the stone is thrown is 45.0 m above the ground.

(A) How long does it take the stone to reach the ground?

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Study Figure 4.13, in which we have indicated the trajectory and various parameters of the motion of the stone.

Categorize We categorize this problem as a projectile motion problem. The stone is modeled as a *particle under constant acceleration* in the y direction and a *particle under constant velocity* in the x direction.

Analyze We have the information $x_i = y_i = 0$, $y_f = -45.0\text{ m}$, $a_y = -g$, and $v_i = 20.0\text{ m/s}$ (the numerical value of y_f is negative because we have chosen the point of the throw as the origin).

Find the initial x and y components of the stone's velocity:

Express the vertical position of the stone from the particle under constant acceleration model:

Substitute numerical values:

Solve the quadratic equation for t :

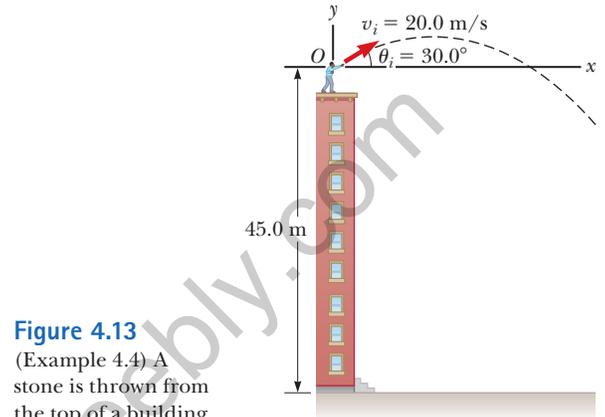


Figure 4.13
(Example 4.4) A stone is thrown from the top of a building.

$$v_{xi} = v_i \cos \theta_i = (20.0\text{ m/s}) \cos 30.0^\circ = 17.3\text{ m/s}$$

$$v_{yi} = v_i \sin \theta_i = (20.0\text{ m/s}) \sin 30.0^\circ = 10.0\text{ m/s}$$

$$y_f = y_i + v_{yi}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

$$-45.0\text{ m} = 0 + (10.0\text{ m/s})t + \frac{1}{2}(-9.80\text{ m/s}^2)t^2$$

$$t = 4.22\text{ s}$$

(B) What is the speed of the stone just before it strikes the ground?

SOLUTION

Analyze Use the velocity equation in the particle under constant acceleration model to obtain the y component of the velocity of the stone just before it strikes the ground:

Substitute numerical values, using $t = 4.22\text{ s}$:

Use this component with the horizontal component $v_{xf} = v_{xi} = 17.3\text{ m/s}$ to find the speed of the stone at $t = 4.22\text{ s}$:

$$v_{yf} = v_{yi} - gt$$

$$v_{yf} = 10.0\text{ m/s} + (-9.80\text{ m/s}^2)(4.22\text{ s}) = -31.3\text{ m/s}$$

$$v_f = \sqrt{v_{xf}^2 + v_{yf}^2} = \sqrt{(17.3\text{ m/s})^2 + (-31.3\text{ m/s})^2} = 35.8\text{ m/s}$$

Finalize Is it reasonable that the y component of the final velocity is negative? Is it reasonable that the final speed is larger than the initial speed of 20.0 m/s ?

WHAT IF? What if a horizontal wind is blowing in the same direction as the stone is thrown and it causes the stone to have a horizontal acceleration component $a_x = 0.500\text{ m/s}^2$? Which part of this example, (A) or (B), will have a different answer?

Answer Recall that the motions in the x and y directions are independent. Therefore, the horizontal wind cannot affect the vertical motion. The vertical motion determines the time of the projectile in the air, so the answer to part (A) does not change. The wind causes the horizontal velocity component to increase with time, so the final speed will be larger in part (B). Taking $a_x = 0.500\text{ m/s}^2$, we find $v_{xf} = 19.4\text{ m/s}$ and $v_f = 36.9\text{ m/s}$.

Example 4.5 The End of the Ski Jump AM

A ski jumper leaves the ski track moving in the horizontal direction with a speed of 25.0 m/s as shown in Figure 4.14. The landing incline below her falls off with a slope of 35.0° . Where does she land on the incline?

SOLUTION

Conceptualize We can conceptualize this problem based on memories of observing winter Olympic ski competitions. We estimate the skier to be airborne for perhaps 4 s and to travel a distance of about 100 m horizontally. We should expect the value of d , the distance traveled along the incline, to be of the same order of magnitude.

Categorize We categorize the problem as one of a particle in projectile motion. As with other projectile motion problems, we use the *particle under constant velocity* model for the horizontal motion and the *particle under constant acceleration* model for the vertical motion.

Analyze It is convenient to select the beginning of the jump as the origin. The initial velocity components are $v_{xi} = 25.0$ m/s and $v_{yi} = 0$. From the right triangle in Figure 4.14, we see that the jumper's x and y coordinates at the landing point are given by $x_f = d \cos \phi$ and $y_f = -d \sin \phi$.

Express the coordinates of the jumper as a function of time, using the particle under constant velocity model for x and the position equation from the particle under constant acceleration model for y :

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \quad x_f &= v_{xi} t \\ (2) \quad y_f &= v_{yi} t - \frac{1}{2} g t^2 \\ (3) \quad d \cos \phi &= v_{xi} t \\ (4) \quad -d \sin \phi &= -\frac{1}{2} g t^2 \end{aligned}$$

Solve Equation (3) for t and substitute the result into Equation (4):

$$-d \sin \phi = -\frac{1}{2} g \left(\frac{d \cos \phi}{v_{xi}} \right)^2$$

Solve for d and substitute numerical values:

$$d = \frac{2v_{xi}^2 \sin \phi}{g \cos^2 \phi} = \frac{2(25.0 \text{ m/s})^2 \sin 35.0^\circ}{(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \cos^2 35.0^\circ} = 109 \text{ m}$$

Evaluate the x and y coordinates of the point at which the skier lands:

$$\begin{aligned} x_f &= d \cos \phi = (109 \text{ m}) \cos 35.0^\circ = 89.3 \text{ m} \\ y_f &= -d \sin \phi = -(109 \text{ m}) \sin 35.0^\circ = -62.5 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

Finalize Let us compare these results with our expectations. We expected the horizontal distance to be on the order of 100 m, and our result of 89.3 m is indeed on this order of magnitude. It might be useful to calculate the time interval that the jumper is in the air and compare it with our estimate of about 4 s.

WHAT IF? Suppose everything in this example is the same except the ski jump is curved so that the jumper is projected upward at an angle from the end of the track. Is this design better in terms of maximizing the length of the jump?

Answer If the initial velocity has an upward component, the skier will be in the air longer and should therefore travel farther. Tilting the initial velocity vector upward, however, will reduce the horizontal component of the initial velocity. Therefore, angling the end of the ski track upward at a *large* angle may actually *reduce* the distance. Consider the extreme case: the skier is projected at 90° to the horizontal and simply goes up and comes back down at the end of the ski track! This argument suggests that there must be an optimal angle between 0° and 90° that represents a balance between making the flight time longer and the horizontal velocity component smaller.

Let us find this optimal angle mathematically. We modify Equations (1) through (4) in the following way, assuming the skier is projected at an angle θ with respect to the horizontal over a landing incline sloped with an arbitrary angle ϕ :

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \text{ and } (3) &\rightarrow x_f = (v_i \cos \theta) t = d \cos \phi \\ (2) \text{ and } (4) &\rightarrow y_f = (v_i \sin \theta) t - \frac{1}{2} g t^2 = -d \sin \phi \end{aligned}$$

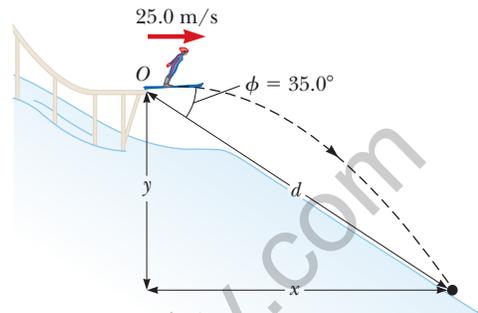


Figure 4.14 (Example 4.5) A ski jumper leaves the track moving in a horizontal direction.

4.5 continued

By eliminating the time t between these equations and using differentiation to maximize d in terms of θ , we arrive (after several steps; see Problem 88) at the following equation for the angle θ that gives the maximum value of d :

$$\theta = 45^\circ - \frac{\phi}{2}$$

For the slope angle in Figure 4.14, $\phi = 35.0^\circ$; this equation results in an optimal launch angle of $\theta = 27.5^\circ$. For a slope angle of $\phi = 0^\circ$, which represents a horizontal plane, this equation gives an optimal launch angle of $\theta = 45^\circ$, as we would expect (see Figure 4.10).

4.4 Analysis Model: Particle in Uniform Circular Motion

Figure 4.15a shows a car moving in a circular path; we describe this motion by calling it **circular motion**. If the car is moving on this path with *constant speed* v , we call it **uniform circular motion**. Because it occurs so often, this type of motion is recognized as an analysis model called the **particle in uniform circular motion**. We discuss this model in this section.

It is often surprising to students to find that even though an object moves at a constant speed in a circular path, *it still has an acceleration*. To see why, consider the defining equation for acceleration, $\vec{a} = d\vec{v}/dt$ (Eq. 4.5). Notice that the acceleration depends on the change in the *velocity*. Because velocity is a vector quantity, an acceleration can occur in two ways as mentioned in Section 4.1: by a change in the *magnitude* of the velocity and by a change in the *direction* of the velocity. The latter situation occurs for an object moving with constant speed in a circular path. The constant-magnitude velocity vector is always tangent to the path of the object and perpendicular to the radius of the circular path. Therefore, the direction of the velocity vector is always changing.

Let us first argue that the acceleration vector in uniform circular motion is always perpendicular to the path and always points toward the center of the circle. If that were not true, there would be a component of the acceleration parallel to the path and therefore parallel to the velocity vector. Such an acceleration component would lead to a change in the speed of the particle along the path. This situation, however, is inconsistent with our setup of the situation: the particle moves with constant speed along the path. Therefore, for *uniform* circular motion, the acceleration vector can only have a component perpendicular to the path, which is toward the center of the circle.

Let us now find the magnitude of the acceleration of the particle. Consider the diagram of the position and velocity vectors in Figure 4.15b. The figure also shows the vector representing the change in position $\Delta\vec{r}$ for an arbitrary time interval. The particle follows a circular path of radius r , part of which is shown by the dashed

Pitfall Prevention 4.4

Acceleration of a Particle in Uniform Circular Motion

Remember that acceleration in physics is defined as a change in the *velocity*, not a change in the *speed* (contrary to the everyday interpretation). In circular motion, the velocity vector is always changing in direction, so there is indeed an acceleration.

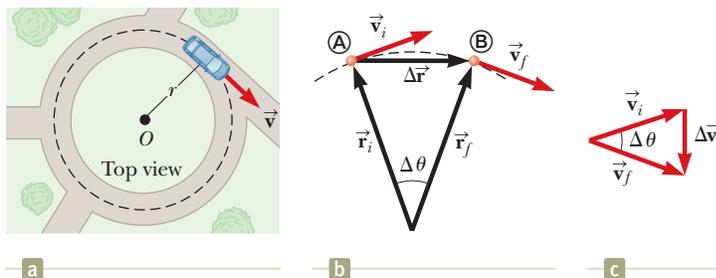


Figure 4.15 (a) A car moving along a circular path at constant speed experiences uniform circular motion. (b) As a particle moves along a portion of a circular path from Ⓐ to Ⓑ, its velocity vector changes from \vec{v}_i to \vec{v}_f . (c) The construction for determining the direction of the change in velocity $\Delta\vec{v}$, which is toward the center of the circle for small $\Delta\vec{r}$.

curve. The particle is at \textcircled{A} at time t_i , and its velocity at that time is \vec{v}_i ; it is at \textcircled{B} at some later time t_f , and its velocity at that time is \vec{v}_f . Let us also assume \vec{v}_i and \vec{v}_f differ only in direction; their magnitudes are the same (that is, $v_i = v_f = v$ because it is *uniform* circular motion).

In Figure 4.15c, the velocity vectors in Figure 4.15b have been redrawn tail to tail. The vector $\Delta\vec{v}$ connects the tips of the vectors, representing the vector addition $\vec{v}_f = \vec{v}_i + \Delta\vec{v}$. In both Figures 4.15b and 4.15c, we can identify triangles that help us analyze the motion. The angle $\Delta\theta$ between the two position vectors in Figure 4.15b is the same as the angle between the velocity vectors in Figure 4.15c because the velocity vector \vec{v} is always perpendicular to the position vector \vec{r} . Therefore, the two triangles are *similar*. (Two triangles are similar if the angle between any two sides is the same for both triangles and if the ratio of the lengths of these sides is the same.) We can now write a relationship between the lengths of the sides for the two triangles in Figures 4.15b and 4.15c:

$$\frac{|\Delta\vec{v}|}{v} = \frac{|\Delta\vec{r}|}{r}$$

where $v = v_i = v_f$ and $r = r_i = r_f$. This equation can be solved for $|\Delta\vec{v}|$, and the expression obtained can be substituted into Equation 4.4, $\vec{a}_{\text{avg}} = \Delta\vec{v}/\Delta t$, to give the magnitude of the average acceleration over the time interval for the particle to move from \textcircled{A} to \textcircled{B} :

$$|\vec{a}_{\text{avg}}| = \frac{|\Delta\vec{v}|}{|\Delta t|} = \frac{v|\Delta\vec{r}|}{r\Delta t}$$

Now imagine that points \textcircled{A} and \textcircled{B} in Figure 4.15b become extremely close together. As \textcircled{A} and \textcircled{B} approach each other, Δt approaches zero, $|\Delta\vec{r}|$ approaches the distance traveled by the particle along the circular path, and the ratio $|\Delta\vec{r}|/\Delta t$ approaches the speed v . In addition, the average acceleration becomes the instantaneous acceleration at point \textcircled{A} . Hence, in the limit $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, the magnitude of the acceleration is

$$a_c = \frac{v^2}{r} \quad (4.14)$$

Centripetal acceleration
for a particle in uniform
circular motion

An acceleration of this nature is called a **centripetal acceleration** (*centripetal* means *center-seeking*). The subscript on the acceleration symbol reminds us that the acceleration is centripetal.

In many situations, it is convenient to describe the motion of a particle moving with constant speed in a circle of radius r in terms of the **period** T , which is defined as the time interval required for one complete revolution of the particle. In the time interval T , the particle moves a distance of $2\pi r$, which is equal to the circumference of the particle's circular path. Therefore, because its speed is equal to the circumference of the circular path divided by the period, or $v = 2\pi r/T$, it follows that

$$T = \frac{2\pi r}{v} \quad (4.15)$$

Period of circular motion
for a particle in uniform
circular motion

The period of a particle in uniform circular motion is a measure of the number of seconds for one revolution of the particle around the circle. The inverse of the period is the *rotation rate* and is measured in revolutions per second. Because one full revolution of the particle around the circle corresponds to an angle of 2π radians, the product of 2π and the rotation rate gives the **angular speed** ω of the particle, measured in radians/s or s^{-1} :

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T} \quad (4.16)$$

Combining this equation with Equation 4.15, we find a relationship between angular speed and the translational speed with which the particle travels in the circular path:

$$\omega = 2\pi \left(\frac{v}{2\pi r} \right) = \frac{v}{r} \rightarrow v = r\omega \quad (4.17)$$

Equation 4.17 demonstrates that, for a fixed angular speed, the translational speed becomes larger as the radial position becomes larger. Therefore, for example, if a merry-go-round rotates at a fixed angular speed ω , a rider at an outer position at large r will be traveling through space faster than a rider at an inner position at smaller r . We will investigate Equations 4.16 and 4.17 more deeply in Chapter 10.

We can express the centripetal acceleration of a particle in uniform circular motion in terms of angular speed by combining Equations 4.14 and 4.17:

$$\begin{aligned} a_c &= \frac{(r\omega)^2}{r} \\ a_c &= r\omega^2 \end{aligned} \quad (4.18)$$

Equations 4.14–4.18 are to be used when the particle in uniform circular motion model is identified as appropriate for a given situation.

- Quick Quiz 4.4** A particle moves in a circular path of radius r with speed v . It then increases its speed to $2v$ while traveling along the same circular path. (i) The centripetal acceleration of the particle has changed by what factor? Choose one: (a) 0.25 (b) 0.5 (c) 2 (d) 4 (e) impossible to determine (ii) From the same choices, by what factor has the period of the particle changed?

Pitfall Prevention 4.5

Centripetal Acceleration Is Not Constant

We derived the magnitude of the centripetal acceleration vector and found it to be constant for uniform circular motion, but the centripetal acceleration vector is not constant. It always points toward the center of the circle, but it continuously changes direction as the object moves around the circular path.

Analysis Model Particle in Uniform Circular Motion

Imagine a moving object that can be modeled as a particle. If it moves in a circular path of radius r at a constant speed v , the magnitude of its centripetal acceleration is

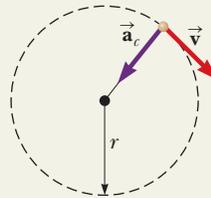
$$a_c = \frac{v^2}{r} \quad (4.14)$$

and the **period** of the particle's motion is given by

$$T = \frac{2\pi r}{v} \quad (4.15)$$

The **angular speed** of the particle is

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T} \quad (4.16)$$



Examples:

- a rock twirled in a circle on a string of constant length
- a planet traveling around a perfectly circular orbit (Chapter 13)
- a charged particle moving in a uniform magnetic field (Chapter 29)
- an electron in orbit around a nucleus in the Bohr model of the hydrogen atom (Chapter 42)

Example 4.6 The Centripetal Acceleration of the Earth AM

(A) What is the centripetal acceleration of the Earth as it moves in its orbit around the Sun?

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Think about a mental image of the Earth in a circular orbit around the Sun. We will model the Earth as a particle and approximate the Earth's orbit as circular (it's actually slightly elliptical, as we discuss in Chapter 13).

Categorize The Conceptualize step allows us to categorize this problem as one of a *particle in uniform circular motion*.

Analyze We do not know the orbital speed of the Earth to substitute into Equation 4.14. With the help of Equation 4.15, however, we can recast Equation 4.14 in terms of the period of the Earth's orbit, which we know is one year, and the radius of the Earth's orbit around the Sun, which is 1.496×10^{11} m.

continued

▶ 4.6 continued

Combine Equations 4.14 and 4.15:

$$a_c = \frac{v^2}{r} = \frac{\left(\frac{2\pi r}{T}\right)^2}{r} = \frac{4\pi^2 r}{T^2}$$

Substitute numerical values:

$$a_c = \frac{4\pi^2(1.496 \times 10^{11} \text{ m})}{(1 \text{ yr})^2} \left(\frac{1 \text{ yr}}{3.156 \times 10^7 \text{ s}}\right)^2 = 5.93 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m/s}^2$$

(B) What is the angular speed of the Earth in its orbit around the Sun?

SOLUTION**Analyze**

Substitute numerical values into Equation 4.16:

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi}{1 \text{ yr}} \left(\frac{1 \text{ yr}}{3.156 \times 10^7 \text{ s}}\right) = 1.99 \times 10^{-7} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

Finalize The acceleration in part (A) is much smaller than the free-fall acceleration on the surface of the Earth. An important technique we learned here is replacing the speed v in Equation 4.14 in terms of the period T of the motion. In many problems, it is more likely that T is known rather than v . In part (B), we see that the angular speed of the Earth is very small, which is to be expected because the Earth takes an entire year to go around the circular path once.

4.5 Tangential and Radial Acceleration

Let us consider a more general motion than that presented in Section 4.4. A particle moves to the right along a curved path, and its velocity changes *both* in direction and in magnitude as described in Figure 4.16. In this situation, the velocity vector is always tangent to the path; the acceleration vector \vec{a} , however, is at some angle to the path. At each of three points **A**, **B**, and **C** in Figure 4.16, the dashed blue circles represent the curvature of the actual path at each point. The radius of each circle is equal to the path's radius of curvature at each point.

As the particle moves along the curved path in Figure 4.16, the direction of the total acceleration vector \vec{a} changes from point to point. At any instant, this vector can be resolved into two components based on an origin at the center of the dashed circle corresponding to that instant: a radial component a_r along the radius of the circle and a tangential component a_t perpendicular to this radius. The *total* acceleration vector \vec{a} can be written as the vector sum of the component vectors:

Total acceleration ▶

$$\vec{a} = \vec{a}_r + \vec{a}_t \quad (4.19)$$

The tangential acceleration component causes a change in the speed v of the particle. This component is parallel to the instantaneous velocity, and its magnitude is given by

Tangential acceleration ▶

$$a_t = \left| \frac{dv}{dt} \right| \quad (4.20)$$

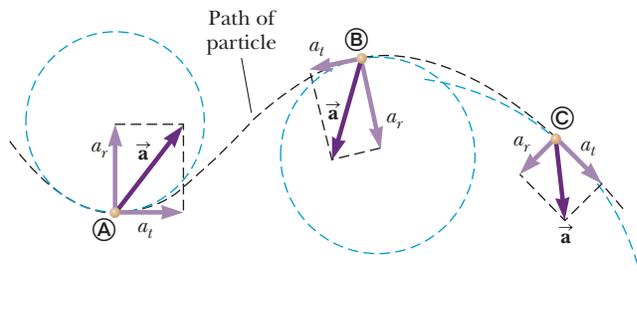


Figure 4.16 The motion of a particle along an arbitrary curved path lying in the xy plane. If the velocity vector \vec{v} (always tangent to the path) changes in direction and magnitude, the components of the acceleration \vec{a} are a tangential component a_t and a radial component a_r .

The radial acceleration component arises from a change in direction of the velocity vector and is given by

$$a_r = -a_c = -\frac{v^2}{r} \quad (4.21) \quad \leftarrow \text{Radial acceleration}$$

where r is the radius of curvature of the path at the point in question. We recognize the magnitude of the radial component of the acceleration as the centripetal acceleration discussed in Section 4.4 with regard to the particle in uniform circular motion model. Even in situations in which a particle moves along a curved path with a varying speed, however, Equation 4.14 can be used for the centripetal acceleration. In this situation, the equation gives the *instantaneous* centripetal acceleration at any time. The negative sign in Equation 4.21 indicates that the direction of the centripetal acceleration is toward the center of the circle representing the radius of curvature. The direction is opposite that of the radial unit vector \hat{r} , which always points away from the origin at the center of the circle.

Because \vec{a}_r and \vec{a}_t are perpendicular component vectors of \vec{a} , it follows that the magnitude of \vec{a} is $a = \sqrt{a_r^2 + a_t^2}$. At a given speed, a_r is large when the radius of curvature is small (as at points **A** and **B** in Fig. 4.16) and small when r is large (as at point **C**). The direction of \vec{a}_t is either in the same direction as \vec{v} (if v is increasing) or opposite \vec{v} (if v is decreasing, as at point **B**).

In uniform circular motion, where v is constant, $a_t = 0$ and the acceleration is always completely radial as described in Section 4.4. In other words, uniform circular motion is a special case of motion along a general curved path. Furthermore, if the direction of \vec{v} does not change, there is no radial acceleration and the motion is one dimensional (in this case, $a_r = 0$, but a_t may not be zero).

Quick Quiz 4.5 A particle moves along a path, and its speed increases with time.

- (i) In which of the following cases are its acceleration and velocity vectors parallel? (a) when the path is circular (b) when the path is straight (c) when the path is a parabola (d) never (ii) From the same choices, in which case are its acceleration and velocity vectors perpendicular everywhere along the path?

Example 4.7 Over the Rise

A car leaves a stop sign and exhibits a constant acceleration of 0.300 m/s^2 parallel to the roadway. The car passes over a rise in the roadway such that the top of the rise is shaped like an arc of a circle of radius 500 m . At the moment the car is at the top of the rise, its velocity vector is horizontal and has a magnitude of 6.00 m/s . What are the magnitude and direction of the total acceleration vector for the car at this instant?

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Conceptualize the situation using Figure 4.17a and any experiences you have had in driving over rises on a roadway.

Categorize Because the accelerating car is moving along a curved path, we categorize this problem as one involving a particle experiencing both tangential and radial acceleration. We recognize that it is a relatively simple substitution problem.

The tangential acceleration vector has magnitude 0.300 m/s^2 and is horizontal. The radial acceleration is given by Equation 4.21, with $v = 6.00 \text{ m/s}$ and $r = 500 \text{ m}$. The radial acceleration vector is directed straight downward.

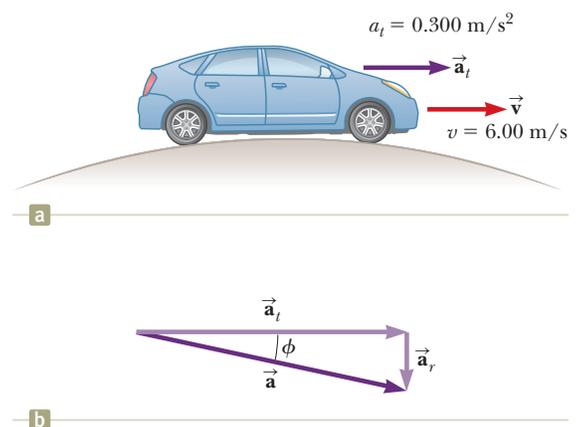


Figure 4.17 (Example 4.7) (a) A car passes over a rise that is shaped like an arc of a circle. (b) The total acceleration vector \vec{a} is the sum of the tangential and radial acceleration vectors \vec{a}_t and \vec{a}_r .

continued

4.7 continued

Evaluate the radial acceleration:

Find the magnitude of \vec{a} :

Find the angle ϕ (see Fig. 4.17b) between \vec{a} and the horizontal:

$$a_r = -\frac{v^2}{r} = -\frac{(6.00 \text{ m/s})^2}{500 \text{ m}} = -0.0720 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{a_r^2 + a_t^2} &= \sqrt{(-0.0720 \text{ m/s}^2)^2 + (0.300 \text{ m/s}^2)^2} \\ &= 0.309 \text{ m/s}^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{a_r}{a_t} = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{-0.0720 \text{ m/s}^2}{0.300 \text{ m/s}^2} \right) = -13.5^\circ$$

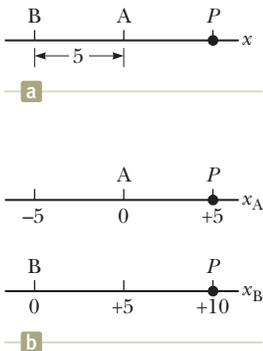


Figure 4.18 Different observers make different measurements. (a) Observer A is located 5 units to the right of Observer B. Both observers measure the position of a particle at P . (b) If both observers see themselves at the origin of their own coordinate system, they disagree on the value of the position of the particle at P .

4.6 Relative Velocity and Relative Acceleration

In this section, we describe how observations made by different observers in different frames of reference are related to one another. A frame of reference can be described by a Cartesian coordinate system for which an observer is at rest with respect to the origin.

Let us conceptualize a sample situation in which there will be different observations for different observers. Consider the two observers A and B along the number line in Figure 4.18a. Observer A is located 5 units to the right of observer B. Both observers measure the position of point P , which is located 5 units to the right of observer A. Suppose each observer decides that he is located at the origin of an x axis as in Figure 4.18b. Notice that the two observers disagree on the value of the position of point P . Observer A claims point P is located at a position with a value of $x_A = +5$, whereas observer B claims it is located at a position with a value of $x_B = +10$. Both observers are correct, even though they make different measurements. Their measurements differ because they are making the measurement from different frames of reference.

Imagine now that observer B in Figure 4.18b is moving to the right along the x_B axis. Now the two measurements are even more different. Observer A claims point P remains at rest at a position with a value of $+5$, whereas observer B claims the position of P continuously changes with time, even passing him and moving behind him! Again, both observers are correct, with the difference in their measurements arising from their different frames of reference.

We explore this phenomenon further by considering two observers watching a man walking on a moving beltway at an airport in Figure 4.19. The woman standing on the moving beltway sees the man moving at a normal walking speed. The woman observing from the stationary floor sees the man moving with a higher speed because the beltway speed combines with his walking speed. Both observers look at the same man and arrive at different values for his speed. Both are correct; the difference in their measurements results from the relative velocity of their frames of reference.

In a more general situation, consider a particle located at point P in Figure 4.20. Imagine that the motion of this particle is being described by two observers, observer A in a reference frame S_A fixed relative to the Earth and a second observer B in a reference frame S_B moving to the right relative to S_A (and therefore relative to the Earth) with a constant velocity \vec{v}_{BA} . In this discussion of relative velocity, we use a double-subscript notation; the first subscript represents what is being observed, and the second represents who is doing the observing. Therefore, the notation \vec{v}_{BA} means the velocity of observer B (and the attached frame S_B) as measured by observer A. With this notation, observer B measures A to be moving to the left with a velocity $\vec{v}_{AB} = -\vec{v}_{BA}$. For purposes of this discussion, let us place each observer at her or his respective origin.

We define the time $t = 0$ as the instant at which the origins of the two reference frames coincide in space. Therefore, at time t , the origins of the reference frames

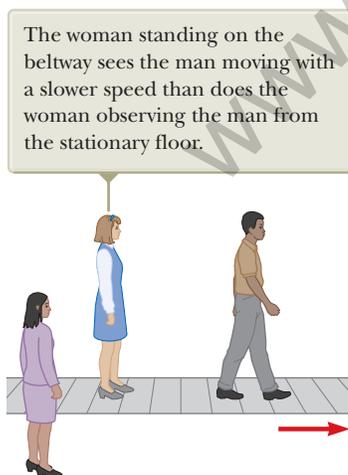


Figure 4.19 Two observers measure the speed of a man walking on a moving beltway.

The woman standing on the beltway sees the man moving with a slower speed than does the woman observing the man from the stationary floor.

will be separated by a distance $v_{BA}t$. We label the position P of the particle relative to observer A with the position vector \vec{r}_{PA} and that relative to observer B with the position vector \vec{r}_{PB} , both at time t . From Figure 4.20, we see that the vectors \vec{r}_{PA} and \vec{r}_{PB} are related to each other through the expression

$$\vec{r}_{PA} = \vec{r}_{PB} + \vec{v}_{BA}t \quad (4.22)$$

By differentiating Equation 4.22 with respect to time, noting that \vec{v}_{BA} is constant, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\vec{r}_{PA}}{dt} &= \frac{d\vec{r}_{PB}}{dt} + \vec{v}_{BA} \\ \vec{u}_{PA} &= \vec{u}_{PB} + \vec{v}_{BA} \end{aligned} \quad (4.23)$$

where \vec{u}_{PA} is the velocity of the particle at P measured by observer A and \vec{u}_{PB} is its velocity measured by B. (We use the symbol \vec{u} for particle velocity rather than \vec{v} , which we have already used for the relative velocity of two reference frames.) Equations 4.22 and 4.23 are known as **Galilean transformation equations**. They relate the position and velocity of a particle as measured by observers in relative motion. Notice the pattern of the subscripts in Equation 4.23. When relative velocities are added, the inner subscripts (B) are the same and the outer ones (P, A) match the subscripts on the velocity on the left of the equation.

Although observers in two frames measure different velocities for the particle, they measure the *same acceleration* when \vec{v}_{BA} is constant. We can verify that by taking the time derivative of Equation 4.23:

$$\frac{d\vec{u}_{PA}}{dt} = \frac{d\vec{u}_{PB}}{dt} + \frac{d\vec{v}_{BA}}{dt}$$

Because \vec{v}_{BA} is constant, $d\vec{v}_{BA}/dt = 0$. Therefore, we conclude that $\vec{a}_{PA} = \vec{a}_{PB}$ because $\vec{a}_{PA} = d\vec{u}_{PA}/dt$ and $\vec{a}_{PB} = d\vec{u}_{PB}/dt$. That is, the acceleration of the particle measured by an observer in one frame of reference is the same as that measured by any other observer moving with constant velocity relative to the first frame.

Galilean velocity transformation

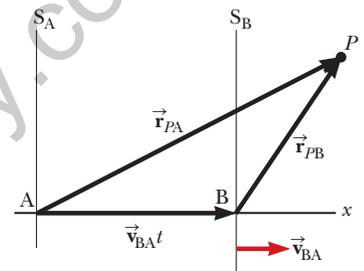


Figure 4.20 A particle located at P is described by two observers, one in the fixed frame of reference S_A and the other in the frame S_B , which moves to the right with a constant velocity \vec{v}_{BA} . The vector \vec{r}_{PA} is the particle's position vector relative to S_A , and \vec{r}_{PB} is its position vector relative to S_B .

Example 4.8 A Boat Crossing a River

A boat crossing a wide river moves with a speed of 10.0 km/h relative to the water. The water in the river has a uniform speed of 5.00 km/h due east relative to the Earth.

(A) If the boat heads due north, determine the velocity of the boat relative to an observer standing on either bank.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Imagine moving in a boat across a river while the current pushes you down the river. You will not be able to move directly across the river, but will end up downstream as suggested in Figure 4.21a.

Categorize Because of the combined velocities of you relative to the river and the river relative to the Earth, we can categorize this problem as one involving relative velocities.

Analyze We know \vec{v}_{br} , the velocity of the *boat* relative to the *river*, and \vec{v}_{re} , the velocity of the *river* relative to the *Earth*. What we must find is \vec{v}_{be} , the velocity of the *boat* relative to the *Earth*. The relationship between these three quantities is $\vec{v}_{be} = \vec{v}_{br} + \vec{v}_{re}$. The terms in the equation must be manipulated as vector quantities; the vectors are shown in Figure 4.21a. The quantity \vec{v}_{br} is due north; \vec{v}_{re} is due east; and the vector sum of the two, \vec{v}_{be} , is at an angle θ as defined in Figure 4.21a.

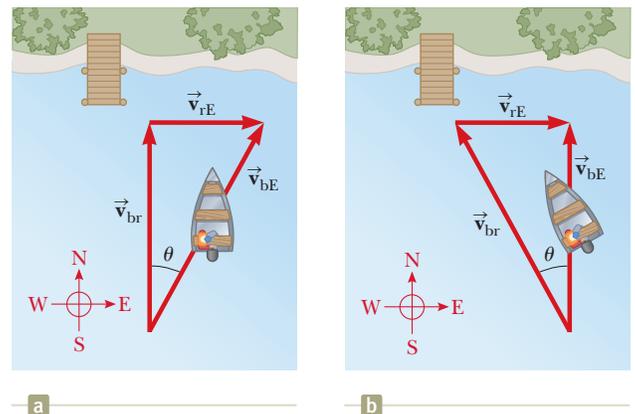


Figure 4.21 (Example 4.8) (a) A boat aims directly across a river and ends up downstream. (b) To move directly across the river, the boat must aim upstream.

continued

4.8 continued

Find the speed v_{bE} of the boat relative to the Earth using the Pythagorean theorem:

$$v_{bE} = \sqrt{v_{br}^2 + v_{rE}^2} = \sqrt{(10.0 \text{ km/h})^2 + (5.00 \text{ km/h})^2} \\ = 11.2 \text{ km/h}$$

Find the direction of \vec{v}_{bE} :

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{v_{rE}}{v_{br}}\right) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{5.00}{10.0}\right) = 26.6^\circ$$

Finalize The boat is moving at a speed of 11.2 km/h in the direction 26.6° east of north relative to the Earth. Notice that the speed of 11.2 km/h is faster than your boat speed of 10.0 km/h. The current velocity adds to yours to give you a higher speed. Notice in Figure 4.21a that your resultant velocity is at an angle to the direction straight across the river, so you will end up downstream, as we predicted.

(B) If the boat travels with the same speed of 10.0 km/h relative to the river and is to travel due north as shown in Figure 4.21b, what should its heading be?

SOLUTION

Conceptualize/Categorize This question is an extension of part (A), so we have already conceptualized and categorized the problem. In this case, however, we must aim the boat upstream so as to go straight across the river.

Analyze The analysis now involves the new triangle shown in Figure 4.21b. As in part (A), we know \vec{v}_{rE} and the magnitude of the vector \vec{v}_{br} , and we want \vec{v}_{bE} to be directed across the river. Notice the difference between the triangle in Figure 4.21a and the one in Figure 4.21b: the hypotenuse in Figure 4.21b is no longer \vec{v}_{bE} .

Use the Pythagorean theorem to find v_{bE} :

$$v_{bE} = \sqrt{v_{br}^2 - v_{rE}^2} = \sqrt{(10.0 \text{ km/h})^2 - (5.00 \text{ km/h})^2} = 8.66 \text{ km/h}$$

Find the direction in which the boat is heading:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{v_{rE}}{v_{bE}}\right) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{5.00}{8.66}\right) = 30.0^\circ$$

Finalize The boat must head upstream so as to travel directly northward across the river. For the given situation, the boat must steer a course 30.0° west of north. For faster currents, the boat must be aimed upstream at larger angles.

WHAT IF? Imagine that the two boats in parts (A) and (B) are racing across the river. Which boat arrives at the opposite bank first?

Answer In part (A), the velocity of 10 km/h is aimed directly across the river. In part (B), the velocity that is directed across the river has a magnitude of only 8.66 km/h. Therefore, the boat in part (A) has a larger velocity component directly across the river and arrives first.

Summary

Definitions

The **displacement vector** $\Delta\vec{r}$ for a particle is the difference between its final position vector and its initial position vector:

$$\Delta\vec{r} \equiv \vec{r}_f - \vec{r}_i \quad (4.1)$$

The **average velocity** of a particle during the time interval Δt is defined as the displacement of the particle divided by the time interval:

$$\vec{v}_{\text{avg}} \equiv \frac{\Delta\vec{r}}{\Delta t} \quad (4.2)$$

The **instantaneous velocity** of a particle is defined as the limit of the average velocity as Δt approaches zero:

$$\vec{v} \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta\vec{r}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} \quad (4.3)$$

The **average acceleration** of a particle is defined as the change in its instantaneous velocity vector divided by the time interval Δt during which that change occurs:

$$\vec{a}_{\text{avg}} \equiv \frac{\Delta \vec{v}}{\Delta t} = \frac{\vec{v}_f - \vec{v}_i}{t_f - t_i} \quad (4.4)$$

The **instantaneous acceleration** of a particle is defined as the limiting value of the average acceleration as Δt approaches zero:

$$\vec{a} \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{v}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \quad (4.5)$$

Projectile motion is one type of two-dimensional motion, exhibited by an object launched into the air near the Earth's surface and experiencing free fall. This common motion can be analyzed by applying the particle under constant velocity model to the motion of the projectile in the x direction and the particle under constant acceleration model ($a_y = -g$) in the y direction.

A particle moving in a circular path with constant speed is exhibiting **uniform circular motion**.

Concepts and Principles

If a particle moves with *constant* acceleration \vec{a} and has velocity \vec{v}_i and position \vec{r}_i at $t = 0$, its velocity and position vectors at some later time t are

$$\vec{v}_f = \vec{v}_i + \vec{a}t \quad (4.8)$$

$$\vec{r}_f = \vec{r}_i + \vec{v}_i t + \frac{1}{2} \vec{a}t^2 \quad (4.9)$$

For two-dimensional motion in the xy plane under constant acceleration, each of these vector expressions is equivalent to two component expressions: one for the motion in the x direction and one for the motion in the y direction.

It is useful to think of projectile motion in terms of a combination of two analysis models: (1) the particle under constant velocity model in the x direction and (2) the particle under constant acceleration model in the vertical direction with a constant downward acceleration of magnitude $g = 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$.

A particle in uniform circular motion undergoes a radial acceleration \vec{a}_r because the direction of \vec{v} changes in time. This acceleration is called **centripetal acceleration**, and its direction is always toward the center of the circle.

If a particle moves along a curved path in such a way that both the magnitude and the direction of \vec{v} change in time, the particle has an acceleration vector that can be described by two component vectors: (1) a radial component vector \vec{a}_r that causes the change in direction of \vec{v} and (2) a tangential component vector \vec{a}_t that causes the change in magnitude of \vec{v} . The magnitude of \vec{a}_r is v^2/r , and the magnitude of \vec{a}_t is $|dv/dt|$.

The velocity \vec{u}_{PA} of a particle measured in a fixed frame of reference S_A can be related to the velocity \vec{u}_{PB} of the same particle measured in a moving frame of reference S_B by

$$\vec{u}_{PA} = \vec{u}_{PB} + \vec{v}_{BA} \quad (4.23)$$

where \vec{v}_{BA} is the velocity of S_B relative to S_A .

Analysis Model for Problem Solving

Particle in Uniform Circular Motion If a particle moves in a circular path of radius r with a constant speed v , the magnitude of its centripetal acceleration is given by

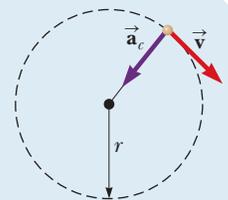
$$a_c = \frac{v^2}{r} \quad (4.14)$$

and the **period** of the particle's motion is given by

$$T = \frac{2\pi r}{v} \quad (4.15)$$

The **angular speed** of the particle is

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T} \quad (4.16)$$



Objective Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

1. Figure OQ4.1 shows a bird's-eye view of a car going around a highway curve. As the car moves from point 1 to point 2, its speed doubles. Which of the vectors (a) through (e) shows the direction of the car's average acceleration between these two points?

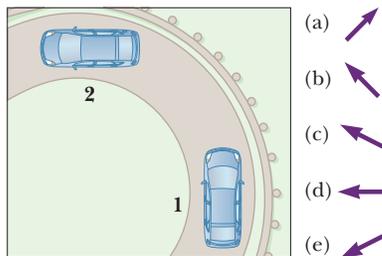


Figure OQ4.1

2. Entering his dorm room, a student tosses his book bag to the right and upward at an angle of 45° with the horizontal (Fig. OQ4.2). Air resistance does not affect the bag. The bag moves through point A immediately after it leaves the student's hand, through point B at the top of its flight, and through point C immediately before it lands on the top bunk bed. (i) Rank the following horizontal and vertical velocity components from the largest to the smallest. (a) v_{Ax} (b) v_{Ay} (c) v_{Bx} (d) v_{By} (e) v_{Cy} . Note that zero is larger than a negative number. If two quantities are equal, show them as equal in your list. (ii) Similarly, rank the following acceleration components. (a) a_{Ax} (b) a_{Ay} (c) a_{Bx} (d) a_{By} (e) a_{Cy} .

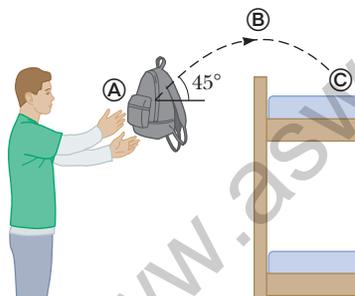


Figure OQ4.2

3. A student throws a heavy red ball horizontally from a balcony of a tall building with an initial speed v_i . At the same time, a second student drops a lighter blue ball from the balcony. Neglecting air resistance, which statement is true? (a) The blue ball reaches the ground first. (b) The balls reach the ground at the same instant. (c) The red ball reaches the ground first. (d) Both balls hit the ground with the same speed. (e) None of statements (a) through (d) is true.
4. A projectile is launched on the Earth with a certain initial velocity and moves without air resistance. Another projectile is launched with the same initial velocity on the Moon, where the acceleration due to gravity is one-sixth as large. How does the maximum altitude of the projectile on the Moon compare with that of the projectile on the Earth? (a) It is one-sixth as large. (b) It is the same. (c) It is $\sqrt{6}$ times larger. (d) It is 6 times larger. (e) It is 36 times larger.
5. Does a car moving around a circular track with constant speed have (a) zero acceleration, (b) an acceleration in the direction of its velocity, (c) an acceleration directed away from the center of its path, (d) an acceleration directed toward the center of its path, or (e) an acceleration with a direction that cannot be determined from the given information?
6. An astronaut hits a golf ball on the Moon. Which of the following quantities, if any, remain constant as a ball travels through the vacuum there? (a) speed (b) acceleration (c) horizontal component of velocity (d) vertical component of velocity (e) velocity
7. A projectile is launched on the Earth with a certain initial velocity and moves without air resistance. Another projectile is launched with the same initial velocity on the Moon, where the acceleration due to gravity is one-sixth as large. How does the range of the projectile on the Moon compare with that of the projectile on the Earth? (a) It is one-sixth as large. (b) It is the same. (c) It is $\sqrt{6}$ times larger. (d) It is 6 times larger. (e) It is 36 times larger.
8. A girl, moving at 8 m/s on in-line skates, is overtaking a boy moving at 5 m/s as they both skate on a straight path. The boy tosses a ball backward toward the girl, giving it speed 12 m/s relative to him. What is the speed of the ball relative to the girl, who catches it? (a) $(8 + 5 + 12)$ m/s (b) $(8 - 5 - 12)$ m/s (c) $(8 + 5 - 12)$ m/s (d) $(8 - 5 + 12)$ m/s (e) $(-8 + 5 + 12)$ m/s
9. A sailor drops a wrench from the top of a sailboat's vertical mast while the boat is moving rapidly and steadily straight forward. Where will the wrench hit the deck? (a) ahead of the base of the mast (b) at the base of the mast (c) behind the base of the mast (d) on the windward side of the base of the mast (e) None of the choices (a) through (d) is true.
10. A baseball is thrown from the outfield toward the catcher. When the ball reaches its highest point, which statement is true? (a) Its velocity and its acceleration are both zero. (b) Its velocity is not zero, but its acceleration is zero. (c) Its velocity is perpendicular to its acceleration. (d) Its acceleration depends on the angle at which the ball was thrown. (e) None of statements (a) through (d) is true.
11. A set of keys on the end of a string is swung steadily in a horizontal circle. In one trial, it moves at speed v in a circle of radius r . In a second trial, it moves at a higher speed $4v$ in a circle of radius $4r$. In the second trial, how does the period of its motion compare with its period in the first trial? (a) It is the same as in the first trial. (b) It is 4 times larger. (c) It is one-fourth as large. (d) It is 16 times larger. (e) It is one-sixteenth as large.

12. A rubber stopper on the end of a string is swung steadily in a horizontal circle. In one trial, it moves at speed v in a circle of radius r . In a second trial, it moves at a higher speed $3v$ in a circle of radius $3r$. In this second trial, is its acceleration (a) the same as in the first trial, (b) three times larger, (c) one-third as large, (d) nine times larger, or (e) one-ninth as large?
13. In which of the following situations is the moving object appropriately modeled as a projectile? Choose all correct answers. (a) A shoe is tossed in an arbitrary direction. (b) A jet airplane crosses the sky with its engines thrusting the plane forward. (c) A rocket leaves the launch pad. (d) A rocket moves through the sky, at much less than the speed of sound, after its fuel has been used up. (e) A diver throws a stone under water.
14. A certain light truck can go around a curve having a radius of 150 m with a maximum speed of 32.0 m/s. To have the same acceleration, at what maximum speed can it go around a curve having a radius of 75.0 m? (a) 64 m/s (b) 45 m/s (c) 32 m/s (d) 23 m/s (e) 16 m/s

Conceptual Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

1. A spacecraft drifts through space at a constant velocity. Suddenly, a gas leak in the side of the spacecraft gives it a constant acceleration in a direction perpendicular to the initial velocity. The orientation of the spacecraft does not change, so the acceleration remains perpendicular to the original direction of the velocity. What is the shape of the path followed by the spacecraft in this situation?
2. An ice skater is executing a figure eight, consisting of two identically shaped, tangent circular paths. Throughout the first loop she increases her speed uniformly, and during the second loop she moves at a constant speed. Draw a motion diagram showing her velocity and acceleration vectors at several points along the path of motion.
3. If you know the position vectors of a particle at two points along its path and also know the time interval during which it moved from one point to the other, can you determine the particle's instantaneous velocity? Its average velocity? Explain.
4. Describe how a driver can steer a car traveling at constant speed so that (a) the acceleration is zero or (b) the magnitude of the acceleration remains constant.
5. A projectile is launched at some angle to the horizontal with some initial speed v_i , and air resistance is negligible. (a) Is the projectile a freely falling body? (b) What is its acceleration in the vertical direction? (c) What is its acceleration in the horizontal direction?
6. Construct motion diagrams showing the velocity and acceleration of a projectile at several points along its path, assuming (a) the projectile is launched horizontally and (b) the projectile is launched at an angle θ with the horizontal.
7. Explain whether or not the following particles have an acceleration: (a) a particle moving in a straight line with constant speed and (b) a particle moving around a curve with constant speed.

Problems

ENHANCED

WebAssign

The problems found in this chapter may be assigned

online in Enhanced WebAssign

1. straightforward; 2. intermediate;
3. challenging

1. full solution available in the *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

AMT

Analysis Model tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

GP

Guided Problem

M

Master It tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

W

Watch It video solution available in Enhanced WebAssign

Section 4.1 The Position, Velocity, and Acceleration Vectors

1. A motorist drives south at 20.0 m/s for 3.00 min, then turns west and travels at 25.0 m/s for 2.00 min, and finally travels northwest at 30.0 m/s for 1.00 min. For this 6.00-min trip, find (a) the total vector displacement, (b) the average speed, and (c) the average velocity. Let the positive x axis point east.
2. When the Sun is directly overhead, a hawk dives toward the ground with a constant velocity of 5.00 m/s at 60.0° below the horizontal. Calculate the speed of its shadow on the level ground.
3. Suppose the position vector for a particle is given as a function of time by $\vec{r}(t) = x(t)\hat{i} + y(t)\hat{j}$, with $x(t) = at + b$ and $y(t) = ct^2 + d$, where $a = 1.00$ m/s, $b = 1.00$ m, $c = 0.125$ m/s², and $d = 1.00$ m. (a) Calculate the average velocity during the time interval from $t = 2.00$ s to $t = 4.00$ s. (b) Determine the velocity and the speed at $t = 2.00$ s.
4. The coordinates of an object moving in the xy plane vary with time according to the equations $x = -5.00 \sin \omega t$ and $y = 4.00 - 5.00 \cos \omega t$, where ω is a constant, x and y are in meters, and t is in seconds. (a) Determine the components of velocity of the object at $t = 0$. (b) Determine the components of acceleration of the object at $t = 0$. (c) Write expressions for the position vector, the velocity vector, and the acceleration vector of the object at any time $t > 0$. (d) Describe the path of the object in an xy plot.

5. A golf ball is hit off a tee at the edge of a cliff. Its x and y coordinates as functions of time are given by $x = 18.0t$ and $y = 4.00t - 4.90t^2$, where x and y are in meters and t is in seconds. (a) Write a vector expression for the ball's position as a function of time, using the unit vectors \hat{i} and \hat{j} . By taking derivatives, obtain expressions for (b) the velocity vector \vec{v} as a function of time and (c) the acceleration vector \vec{a} as a function of time. (d) Next use unit-vector notation to write expressions for the position, the velocity, and the acceleration of the golf ball at $t = 3.00$ s.

Section 4.2 Two-Dimensional Motion with Constant Acceleration

- 6.** A particle initially located at the origin has an acceleration of $\vec{a} = 3.00\hat{j}$ m/s² and an initial velocity of $\vec{v}_i = 5.00\hat{i}$ m/s. Find (a) the vector position of the particle at any time t , (b) the velocity of the particle at any time t , (c) the coordinates of the particle at $t = 2.00$ s, and (d) the speed of the particle at $t = 2.00$ s.
- 7.** The vector position of a particle varies in time according to the expression $\vec{r} = 3.00\hat{i} - 6.00t^2\hat{j}$, where \vec{r} is in meters and t is in seconds. (a) Find an expression for the velocity of the particle as a function of time. (b) Determine the acceleration of the particle as a function of time. (c) Calculate the particle's position and velocity at $t = 1.00$ s.
8. It is not possible to see very small objects, such as viruses, using an ordinary light microscope. An electron microscope, however, can view such objects using an electron beam instead of a light beam. Electron microscopy has proved invaluable for investigations of viruses, cell membranes and subcellular structures, bacterial surfaces, visual receptors, chloroplasts, and the contractile properties of muscles. The "lenses" of an electron microscope consist of electric and magnetic fields that control the electron beam. As an example of the manipulation of an electron beam, consider an electron traveling away from the origin along the x axis in the xy plane with initial velocity $\vec{v}_i = v_i\hat{i}$. As it passes through the region $x = 0$ to $x = d$, the electron experiences acceleration $\vec{a} = a_x\hat{i} + a_y\hat{j}$, where a_x and a_y are constants. For the case $v_i = 1.80 \times 10^7$ m/s, $a_x = 8.00 \times 10^{14}$ m/s², and $a_y = 1.60 \times 10^{15}$ m/s², determine at $x = d = 0.0100$ m (a) the position of the electron, (b) the velocity of the electron, (c) the speed of the electron, and (d) the direction of travel of the electron (i.e., the angle between its velocity and the x axis).
- 9.** A fish swimming in a horizontal plane has velocity $\vec{v}_i = (4.00\hat{i} + 1.00\hat{j})$ m/s at a point in the ocean where the position relative to a certain rock is $\vec{r}_i = (10.0\hat{i} - 4.00\hat{j})$ m. After the fish swims with constant acceleration for 20.0 s, its velocity is $\vec{v} = (20.0\hat{i} - 5.00\hat{j})$ m/s. (a) What are the components of the acceleration of the fish? (b) What is the direction of its acceleration with respect to unit vector \hat{i} ? (c) If the fish maintains constant acceleration, where is it at $t = 25.0$ s and in what direction is it moving?
- 10. Review.** A snowmobile is originally at the point with position vector 29.0 m at 95.0° counterclockwise from

the x axis, moving with velocity 4.50 m/s at 40.0°. It moves with constant acceleration 1.90 m/s² at 200°. After 5.00 s have elapsed, find (a) its velocity and (b) its position vector.

Section 4.3 Projectile Motion

Note: Ignore air resistance in all problems and take $g = 9.80$ m/s² at the Earth's surface.

- 11.** Mayan kings and many school sports teams are named for the puma, cougar, or mountain lion—*Felis concolor*—the best jumper among animals. It can jump to a height of 12.0 ft when leaving the ground at an angle of 45.0°. With what speed, in SI units, does it leave the ground to make this leap?
- 12.** An astronaut on a strange planet finds that she can jump a maximum horizontal distance of 15.0 m if her initial speed is 3.00 m/s. What is the free-fall acceleration on the planet?
- 13.** In a local bar, a customer slides an empty beer mug down the counter for a refill. The height of the counter is 1.22 m. The mug slides off the counter and strikes the floor 1.40 m from the base of the counter. (a) With what velocity did the mug leave the counter? (b) What was the direction of the mug's velocity just before it hit the floor?
- 14.** In a local bar, a customer slides an empty beer mug down the counter for a refill. The height of the counter is h . The mug slides off the counter and strikes the floor at distance d from the base of the counter. (a) With what velocity did the mug leave the counter? (b) What was the direction of the mug's velocity just before it hit the floor?
- 15.** A projectile is fired in such a way that its horizontal range is equal to three times its maximum height. What is the angle of projection?
- 16.** To start an avalanche on a mountain slope, an artillery shell is fired with an initial velocity of 300 m/s at 55.0° above the horizontal. It explodes on the mountainside 42.0 s after firing. What are the x and y coordinates of the shell where it explodes, relative to its firing point?
- 17.** Chinook salmon are able to move through water especially fast by jumping out of the water periodically. This behavior is called *porpoising*. Suppose a salmon swimming in still water jumps out of the water with velocity 6.26 m/s at 45.0° above the horizontal, sails through the air a distance L before returning to the water, and then swims the same distance L underwater in a straight, horizontal line with velocity 3.58 m/s before jumping out again. (a) Determine the average velocity of the fish for the entire process of jumping and swimming underwater. (b) Consider the time interval required to travel the entire distance of $2L$. By what percentage is this time interval reduced by the jumping/swimming process compared with simply swimming underwater at 3.58 m/s?
- 18.** A rock is thrown upward from level ground in such a way that the maximum height of its flight is equal to its horizontal range R . (a) At what angle θ is the rock thrown? (b) In terms of its original range R , what is the range R_{\max} the rock can attain if it is launched at

the same speed but at the optimal angle for maximum range? (c) **What If?** Would your answer to part (a) be different if the rock is thrown with the same speed on a different planet? Explain.

19. The speed of a projectile when it reaches its maximum height is one-half its speed when it is at half its maximum height. What is the initial projection angle of the projectile?
20. A ball is tossed from an upper-story window of a building. The ball is given an initial velocity of 8.00 m/s at an angle of 20.0° below the horizontal. It strikes the ground 3.00 s later. (a) How far horizontally from the base of the building does the ball strike the ground? (b) Find the height from which the ball was thrown. (c) How long does it take the ball to reach a point 10.0 m below the level of launching?
21. A firefighter, a distance d from a burning building, directs a stream of water from a fire hose at angle θ_i above the horizontal as shown in Figure P4.21. If the initial speed of the stream is v_i , at what height h does the water strike the building?

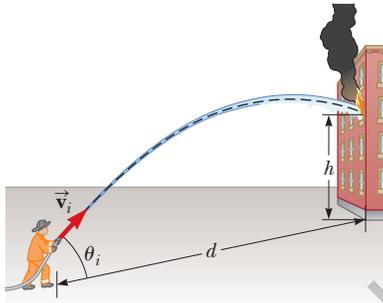


Figure P4.21

22. A landscape architect is planning an artificial waterfall in a city park. Water flowing at 1.70 m/s will leave the end of a horizontal channel at the top of a vertical wall $h = 2.35$ m high, and from there it will fall into a pool (Fig. P4.22). (a) Will the space behind the waterfall be wide enough for a pedestrian walkway? (b) To sell her plan to the city council, the architect wants to build a model to standard scale, which is one-twelfth actual size. How fast should the water flow in the channel in the model?

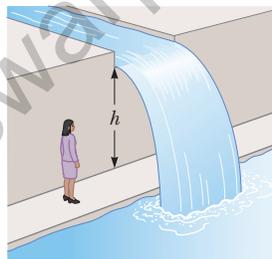


Figure P4.22

23. **AMT** A placekicker must kick a football from a point 36.0 m (about 40 yards) from the goal. Half the crowd hopes the ball will clear the crossbar, which is 3.05 m high. When kicked, the ball leaves the ground with a speed of 20.0 m/s at an angle of 53.0° to the horizontal. (a) By how much does the ball clear or fall short of clearing the crossbar? (b) Does the ball approach the crossbar while still rising or while falling?
24. A basketball star covers 2.80 m horizontally in a jump to dunk the ball (Fig. P4.24a). His motion through space can be modeled precisely as that of a particle at his *center*

of mass, which we will define in Chapter 9. His center of mass is at elevation 1.02 m when he leaves the floor. It reaches a maximum height of 1.85 m above the floor and is at elevation 0.900 m when he touches down again. Determine (a) his time of flight (his “hang time”), (b) his horizontal and (c) vertical velocity components at the instant of takeoff, and (d) his takeoff angle. (e) For comparison, determine the hang time of a whitetail deer making a jump (Fig. P4.24b) with center-of-mass elevations $y_i = 1.20$ m, $y_{\max} = 2.50$ m, and $y_f = 0.700$ m.



Figure P4.24

25. A playground is on the flat roof of a city school, 6.00 m above the street below (Fig. P4.25). The vertical wall of the building is $h = 7.00$ m high, forming a 1-m-high railing around the playground. A ball has fallen to the street below, and a passerby returns it by launching it at an angle of $\theta = 53.0^\circ$ above the horizontal at a point $d = 24.0$ m from the base of the building wall. The ball takes 2.20 s to reach a point vertically above the wall. (a) Find the speed at which the ball was launched. (b) Find the vertical distance by which the ball clears the wall. (c) Find the horizontal distance from the wall to the point on the roof where the ball lands.

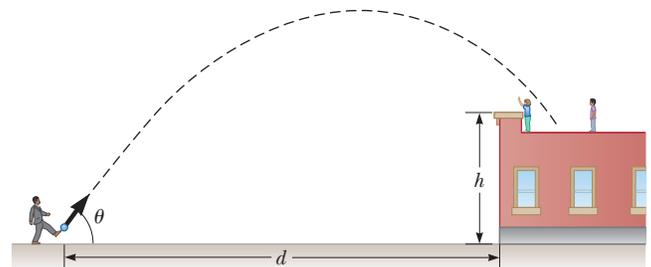


Figure P4.25

26. The motion of a human body through space can be modeled as the motion of a particle at the body’s center of mass as we will study in Chapter 9. The components of the displacement of an athlete’s center of mass from the beginning to the end of a certain jump are described by the equations

$$x_f = 0 + (11.2 \text{ m/s})(\cos 18.5^\circ)t$$

$$0.360 \text{ m} = 0.840 \text{ m} + (11.2 \text{ m/s})(\sin 18.5^\circ)t - \frac{1}{2}(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)t^2$$

where t is in seconds and is the time at which the athlete ends the jump. Identify (a) the athlete’s position and (b) his vector velocity at the takeoff point. (c) How far did he jump?

27. **W** A soccer player kicks a rock horizontally off a 40.0-m-high cliff into a pool of water. If the player

hears the sound of the splash 3.00 s later, what was the initial speed given to the rock? Assume the speed of sound in air is 343 m/s.

28. A projectile is fired from the top of a cliff of height h above the ocean below. The projectile is fired at an angle θ above the horizontal and with an initial speed v_i . (a) Find a symbolic expression in terms of the variables v_i , g , and θ for the time at which the projectile reaches its maximum height. (b) Using the result of part (a), find an expression for the maximum height h_{\max} above the ocean attained by the projectile in terms of h , v_i , g , and θ .

29. **GP** A student stands at the edge of a cliff and throws a stone horizontally over the edge with a speed of $v_i = 18.0$ m/s. The cliff is $h = 50.0$ m above a body of water as shown in Figure P4.29. (a) What are the coordinates of the initial position of the stone? (b) What are the components of the initial velocity of the stone? (c) What is the appropriate analysis model for the vertical motion of the stone? (d) What is the appropriate analysis model for the horizontal motion of the stone? (e) Write symbolic equations for the x and y components of the velocity of the stone as a function of time. (f) Write symbolic equations for the position of the stone as a function of time. (g) How long after being released does the stone strike the water below the cliff? (h) With what speed and angle of impact does the stone land?

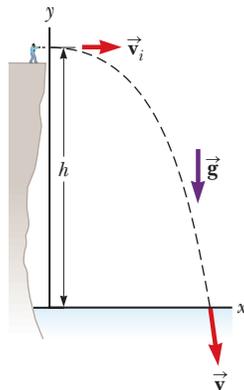


Figure P4.29

30. The record distance in the sport of throwing cowpats is 81.1 m. This record toss was set by Steve Urner of the United States in 1981. Assuming the initial launch angle was 45° and neglecting air resistance, determine (a) the initial speed of the projectile and (b) the total time interval the projectile was in flight. (c) How would the answers change if the range were the same but the launch angle were greater than 45° ? Explain.
31. A boy stands on a diving board and tosses a stone into a swimming pool. The stone is thrown from a height of 2.50 m above the water surface with a velocity of 4.00 m/s at an angle of 60.0° above the horizontal. As the stone strikes the water surface, it immediately slows down to exactly half the speed it had when it struck the water and maintains that speed while in the water. After the stone enters the water, it moves in a straight line in the direction of the velocity it had when it struck the water. If the pool is 3.00 m deep, how much time elapses between when the stone is thrown and when it strikes the bottom of the pool?

32. **M** A home run is hit in such a way that the baseball just clears a wall 21.0 m high, located 130 m from home plate. The ball is hit at an angle of 35.0° to the horizontal, and air resistance is negligible. Find (a) the

initial speed of the ball, (b) the time it takes the ball to reach the wall, and (c) the velocity components and the speed of the ball when it reaches the wall. (Assume the ball is hit at a height of 1.00 m above the ground.)

Section 4.4 Analysis Model: Particle in Uniform Circular Motion

Note: Problems 6 and 13 in Chapter 6 can also be assigned with this section.

33. The athlete shown in Figure P4.33 rotates a 1.00-kg discus along a circular path of radius 1.06 m. The maximum speed of the discus is 20.0 m/s. Determine the magnitude of the maximum radial acceleration of the discus.



Adrian Dennis/AFP/Getty Images

Figure P4.33

34. In Example 4.6, we found the centripetal acceleration of the Earth as it revolves around the Sun. From information on the endpapers of this book, compute the centripetal acceleration of a point on the surface of the Earth at the equator caused by the rotation of the Earth about its axis.
35. Casting molten metal is important in many industrial processes. *Centrifugal casting* is used for manufacturing pipes, bearings, and many other structures. A variety of sophisticated techniques have been invented, but the basic idea is as illustrated in Figure P4.35. A cylindrical enclosure is rotated rapidly and steadily about a horizontal axis. Molten metal is poured into the rotating cylinder and then cooled, forming the finished product. Turning the cylinder at a high rotation rate forces the solidifying metal strongly to the outside. Any bubbles are displaced toward the axis, so unwanted voids will not be present in the casting. Sometimes it is desirable to form a composite casting, such as for a bearing. Here a strong steel outer surface is poured and then inside it a lining of special low-friction metal. In some applications, a very strong metal is given a coating of corrosion-resistant metal. Centrifugal casting results in strong bonding between the layers.

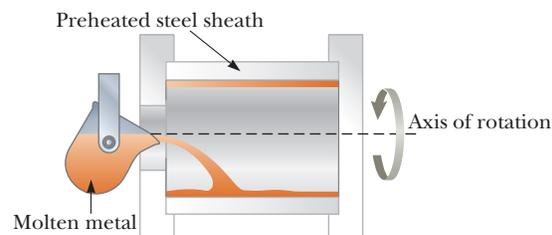


Figure P4.35

Suppose a copper sleeve of inner radius 2.10 cm and outer radius 2.20 cm is to be cast. To eliminate bubbles and give high structural integrity, the centripetal acceleration of each bit of metal should be at least $100g$. What rate of rotation is required? State the answer in revolutions per minute.

36. A tire 0.500 m in radius rotates at a constant rate of 200 rev/min. Find the speed and acceleration of a small stone lodged in the tread of the tire (on its outer edge).
37. **Review.** The 20- g centrifuge at NASA's Ames Research Center in Mountain View, California, is a horizontal, cylindrical tube 58.0 ft long and is represented in Figure P4.37. Assume an astronaut in training sits in a seat at one end, facing the axis of rotation 29.0 ft away. Determine the rotation rate, in revolutions per second, required to give the astronaut a centripetal acceleration of $20.0g$.

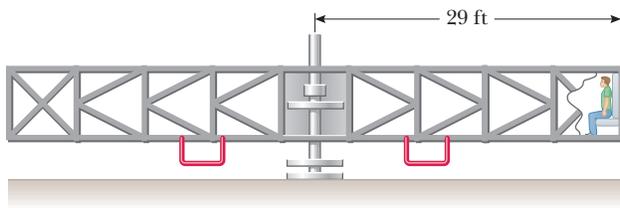


Figure P4.37

38. An athlete swings a ball, connected to the end of a chain, in a horizontal circle. The athlete is able to rotate the ball at the rate of 8.00 rev/s when the length of the chain is 0.600 m. When he increases the length to 0.900 m, he is able to rotate the ball only 6.00 rev/s. (a) Which rate of rotation gives the greater speed for the ball? (b) What is the centripetal acceleration of the ball at 8.00 rev/s? (c) What is the centripetal acceleration at 6.00 rev/s?
39. The astronaut orbiting the Earth in Figure P4.39 is preparing to dock with a Westar VI satellite. The satellite is in a circular orbit 600 km above the Earth's surface, where the free-fall acceleration is 8.21 m/s^2 . Take the radius of the Earth as 6400 km. Determine the speed of the satellite and the time interval required to complete one orbit around the Earth, which is the period of the satellite.



Figure P4.39

Section 4.5 Tangential and Radial Acceleration

40. **W** Figure P4.40 represents the total acceleration of a particle moving clockwise in a circle of radius 2.50 m at a certain instant of time. For that instant, find (a) the radial acceleration of the particle, (b) the speed of the particle, and (c) its tangential acceleration.

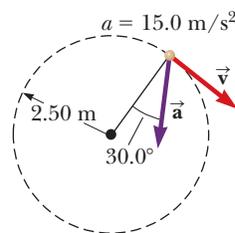


Figure P4.40

41. **M** A train slows down as it rounds a sharp horizontal turn, going from 90.0 km/h to 50.0 km/h in the 15.0 s it takes to round the bend. The radius of the curve is 150 m. Compute the acceleration at the moment the train speed reaches 50.0 km/h. Assume the train continues to slow down at this time at the same rate.
42. A ball swings counterclockwise in a vertical circle at the end of a rope 1.50 m long. When the ball is 36.9° past the lowest point on its way up, its total acceleration is $(-22.5\hat{i} + 20.2\hat{j}) \text{ m/s}^2$. For that instant, (a) sketch a vector diagram showing the components of its acceleration, (b) determine the magnitude of its radial acceleration, and (c) determine the speed and velocity of the ball.
43. (a) Can a particle moving with instantaneous speed 3.00 m/s on a path with radius of curvature 2.00 m have an acceleration of magnitude 6.00 m/s^2 ? (b) Can it have an acceleration of magnitude 4.00 m/s^2 ? In each case, if the answer is yes, explain how it can happen; if the answer is no, explain why not.

Section 4.6 Relative Velocity and Relative Acceleration

44. The pilot of an airplane notes that the compass indicates a heading due west. The airplane's speed relative to the air is 150 km/h. The air is moving in a wind at 30.0 km/h toward the north. Find the velocity of the airplane relative to the ground.
45. An airplane maintains a speed of 630 km/h relative to the air it is flying through as it makes a trip to a city 750 km away to the north. (a) What time interval is required for the trip if the plane flies through a headwind blowing at 35.0 km/h toward the south? (b) What time interval is required if there is a tailwind with the same speed? (c) What time interval is required if there is a crosswind blowing at 35.0 km/h to the east relative to the ground?
46. A moving beltway at an airport has a speed v_1 and a length L . A woman stands on the beltway as it moves from one end to the other, while a man in a hurry to reach his flight walks on the beltway with a speed of v_2 relative to the moving beltway. (a) What time interval is required for the woman to travel the distance L ? (b) What time interval is required for the man to travel this distance? (c) A second beltway is located next to the first one. It is identical to the first one but moves in the opposite direction at speed v_1 . Just as the man steps onto the beginning of the beltway and begins to walk at speed v_2 relative to his beltway, a child steps on the other end of the adjacent beltway. The child stands at rest relative to this second beltway. How long after stepping on the beltway does the man pass the child?
47. A police car traveling at 95.0 km/h is traveling west, chasing a motorist traveling at 80.0 km/h. (a) What is the velocity of the motorist relative to the police car? (b) What is the velocity of the police car relative to the motorist? (c) If they are originally 250 m apart, in what time interval will the police car overtake the motorist?
48. **M** A car travels due east with a speed of 50.0 km/h. Raindrops are falling at a constant speed vertically with

respect to the Earth. The traces of the rain on the side windows of the car make an angle of 60.0° with the vertical. Find the velocity of the rain with respect to (a) the car and (b) the Earth.

49. A bolt drops from the ceiling of a moving train car that is accelerating northward at a rate of 2.50 m/s^2 . (a) What is the acceleration of the bolt relative to the train car? (b) What is the acceleration of the bolt relative to the Earth? (c) Describe the trajectory of the bolt as seen by an observer inside the train car. (d) Describe the trajectory of the bolt as seen by an observer fixed on the Earth.

50. A river has a steady speed of 0.500 m/s . A student swims upstream a distance of 1.00 km and swims back to the starting point. (a) If the student can swim at a speed of 1.20 m/s in still water, how long does the trip take? (b) How much time is required in still water for the same length swim? (c) Intuitively, why does the swim take longer when there is a current?

51. A river flows with a steady speed v . A student swims upstream a distance d and then back to the starting point. The student can swim at speed c in still water. (a) In terms of d , v , and c , what time interval is required for the round trip? (b) What time interval would be required if the water were still? (c) Which time interval is larger? Explain whether it is always larger.

52. A Coast Guard cutter detects an unidentified ship at a distance of 20.0 km in the direction 15.0° east of north. The ship is traveling at 26.0 km/h on a course at 40.0° east of north. The Coast Guard wishes to send a speedboat to intercept and investigate the vessel. If the speedboat travels at 50.0 km/h , in what direction should it head? Express the direction as a compass bearing with respect to due north.

53. A science student is riding on a flatcar of a train traveling along a straight, horizontal track at a constant speed of 10.0 m/s . The student throws a ball into the air along a path that he judges to make an initial angle of 60.0° with the horizontal and to be in line with the track. The student's professor, who is standing on the ground nearby, observes the ball to rise vertically. How high does she see the ball rise?

54. A farm truck moves due east with a constant velocity of 9.50 m/s on a limitless, horizontal stretch of road. A boy riding on the back of the truck throws a can of soda upward (Fig. P4.54) and catches the projectile at the same location on the truck bed, but 16.0 m farther down the road. (a) In the frame of reference of the truck, at what angle to the vertical does the boy throw the can? (b) What is the initial speed of the can relative to the truck? (c) What is the shape of the can's trajectory as seen by the boy? An observer on the ground watches the boy throw the

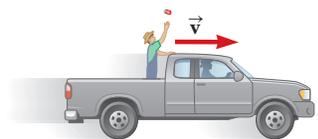


Figure P4.54

can and catch it. In this observer's frame of reference, (d) describe the shape of the can's path and (e) determine the initial velocity of the can.

Additional Problems

55. A ball on the end of a string is whirled around in a horizontal circle of radius 0.300 m . The plane of the circle is 1.20 m above the ground. The string breaks and the ball lands 2.00 m (horizontally) away from the point on the ground directly beneath the ball's location when the string breaks. Find the radial acceleration of the ball during its circular motion.
56. A ball is thrown with an initial speed v_i at an angle θ_i with the horizontal. The horizontal range of the ball is R , and the ball reaches a maximum height $R/6$. In terms of R and g , find (a) the time interval during which the ball is in motion, (b) the ball's speed at the peak of its path, (c) the initial vertical component of its velocity, (d) its initial speed, and (e) the angle θ_i . (f) Suppose the ball is thrown at the same initial speed found in (d) but at the angle appropriate for reaching the greatest height that it can. Find this height. (g) Suppose the ball is thrown at the same initial speed but at the angle for greatest possible range. Find this maximum horizontal range.
57. Why is the following situation impossible? A normally proportioned adult walks briskly along a straight line in the $+x$ direction, standing straight up and holding his right arm vertical and next to his body so that the arm does not swing. His right hand holds a ball at his side a distance h above the floor. When the ball passes above a point marked as $x = 0$ on the horizontal floor, he opens his fingers to release the ball from rest relative to his hand. The ball strikes the ground for the first time at position $x = 7.00h$.
58. A particle starts from the origin with velocity $5\hat{i} \text{ m/s}$ at $t = 0$ and moves in the xy plane with a varying acceleration given by $\vec{a} = (6\sqrt{t})\hat{j}$, where \vec{a} is in meters per second squared and t is in seconds. (a) Determine the velocity of the particle as a function of time. (b) Determine the position of the particle as a function of time.
59. The "Vomit Comet." In microgravity astronaut training and equipment testing, NASA flies a KC135A aircraft along a parabolic flight path. As shown in Figure P4.59, the aircraft climbs from $24\,000 \text{ ft}$ to $31\,000 \text{ ft}$, where

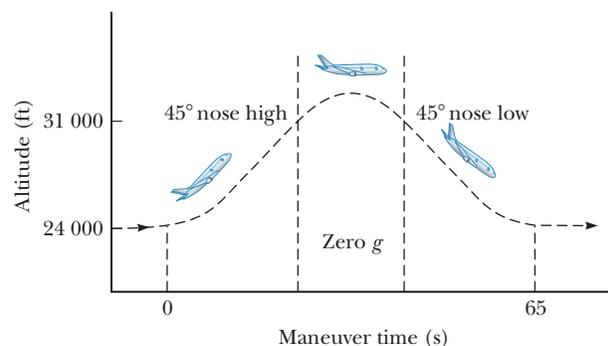


Figure P4.59

it enters a parabolic path with a velocity of 143 m/s nose high at 45.0° and exits with velocity 143 m/s at 45.0° nose low. During this portion of the flight, the aircraft and objects inside its padded cabin are in free fall; astronauts and equipment float freely as if there were no gravity. What are the aircraft's (a) speed and (b) altitude at the top of the maneuver? (c) What is the time interval spent in microgravity?

60. A basketball player is standing on the floor 10.0 m from the basket as in Figure P4.60. The height of the basket is 3.05 m, and he shoots the ball at a 40.0° angle with the horizontal from a height of 2.00 m. (a) What is the acceleration of the basketball at the highest point in its trajectory? (b) At what speed must the player throw the basketball so that the ball goes through the hoop without striking the backboard?

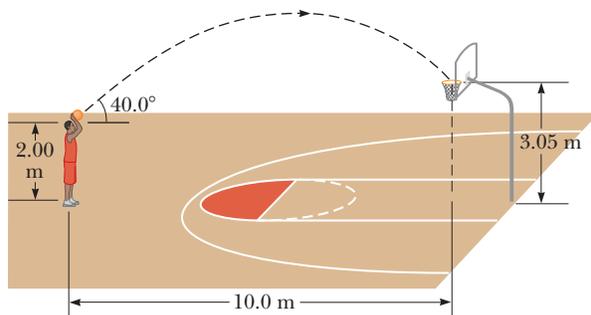


Figure P4.60

61. Lisa in her Lamborghini accelerates at the rate of $(3.00\hat{i} - 2.00\hat{j})$ m/s², while Jill in her Jaguar accelerates at $(1.00\hat{i} + 3.00\hat{j})$ m/s². They both start from rest at the origin of an xy coordinate system. After 5.00 s, (a) what is Lisa's speed with respect to Jill, (b) how far apart are they, and (c) what is Lisa's acceleration relative to Jill?
62. A boy throws a stone horizontally from the top of a cliff of height h toward the ocean below. The stone strikes the ocean at distance d from the base of the cliff. In terms of h , d , and g , find expressions for (a) the time t at which the stone lands in the ocean, (b) the initial speed of the stone, (c) the speed of the stone immediately before it reaches the ocean, and (d) the direction of the stone's velocity immediately before it reaches the ocean.
63. A flea is at point \textcircled{A} on a horizontal turntable, 10.0 cm from the center. The turntable is rotating at 33.3 rev/min in the clockwise direction. The flea jumps straight up to a height of 5.00 cm. At takeoff, it gives itself no horizontal velocity relative to the turntable. The flea lands on the turntable at point \textcircled{B} . Choose the origin of coordinates to be at the center of the turntable and the positive x axis passing through \textcircled{A} at the moment of takeoff. Then the original position of the flea is $10.0\hat{i}$ cm. (a) Find the position of point \textcircled{A} when the flea lands. (b) Find the position of point \textcircled{B} when the flea lands.
64. **M** Towns A and B in Figure P4.64 are 80.0 km apart. A couple arranges to drive from town A and meet a couple driving from town B at the lake, L. The two couples

leave simultaneously and drive for 2.50 h in the directions shown. Car 1 has a speed of 90.0 km/h. If the cars arrive simultaneously at the lake, what is the speed of car 2?

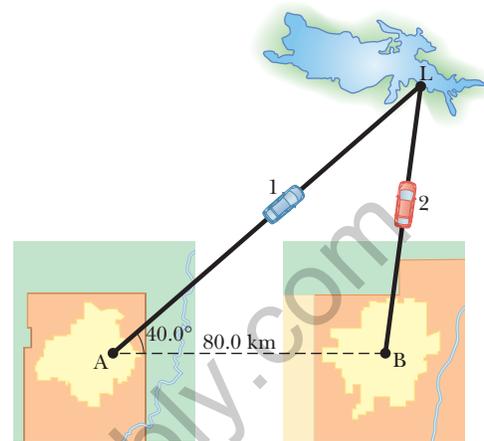


Figure P4.64

65. A catapult launches a rocket at an angle of 53.0° above the horizontal with an initial speed of 100 m/s. The rocket engine immediately starts a burn, and for 3.00 s the rocket moves along its initial line of motion with an acceleration of 30.0 m/s². Then its engine fails, and the rocket proceeds to move in free fall. Find (a) the maximum altitude reached by the rocket, (b) its total time of flight, and (c) its horizontal range.
66. A cannon with a muzzle speed of 1 000 m/s is used to start an avalanche on a mountain slope. The target is 2 000 m from the cannon horizontally and 800 m above the cannon. At what angle, above the horizontal, should the cannon be fired?
67. **Why is the following situation impossible?** Albert Pujols hits a home run so that the baseball just clears the top row of bleachers, 24.0 m high, located 130 m from home plate. The ball is hit at 41.7 m/s at an angle of 35.0° to the horizontal, and air resistance is negligible.
68. As some molten metal splashes, one droplet flies off to the east with initial velocity v_i at angle θ_i above the horizontal, and another droplet flies off to the west with the same speed at the same angle above the horizontal as shown in Figure P4.68. In terms of v_i and θ_i , find the distance between the two droplets as a function of time.

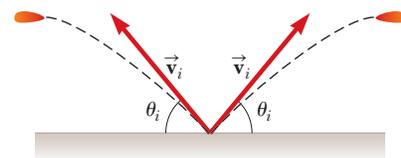


Figure P4.68

69. An astronaut on the surface of the Moon fires a cannon to launch an experiment package, which leaves the barrel moving horizontally. Assume the free-fall acceleration on the Moon is one-sixth of that on the

Earth. (a) What must the muzzle speed of the package be so that it travels completely around the Moon and returns to its original location? (b) What time interval does this trip around the Moon require?

70. A pendulum with a cord of length $r = 1.00$ m swings in a vertical plane (Fig. P4.70). When the pendulum is in the two horizontal positions $\theta = 90.0^\circ$ and $\theta = 270^\circ$, its speed is 5.00 m/s. Find the magnitude of (a) the radial acceleration and (b) the tangential acceleration for these positions. (c) Draw vector diagrams to determine the direction of the total acceleration for these two positions. (d) Calculate the magnitude and direction of the total acceleration at these two positions.

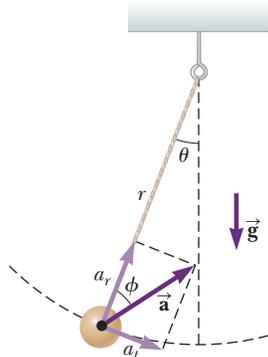


Figure P4.70

71. **M** A hawk is flying horizontally at 10.0 m/s in a straight line, 200 m above the ground. A mouse it has been carrying struggles free from its talons. The hawk continues on its path at the same speed for 2.00 s before attempting to retrieve its prey. To accomplish the retrieval, it dives in a straight line at constant speed and recaptures the mouse 3.00 m above the ground. (a) Assuming no air resistance acts on the mouse, find the diving speed of the hawk. (b) What angle did the hawk make with the horizontal during its descent? (c) For what time interval did the mouse experience free fall?

72. A projectile is launched from the point $(x = 0, y = 0)$, with velocity $(12.0\hat{i} + 49.0\hat{j})$ m/s, at $t = 0$. (a) Make a table listing the projectile's distance $|\vec{r}|$ from the origin at the end of each second thereafter, for $0 \leq t \leq 10$ s. Tabulating the x and y coordinates and the components of velocity v_x and v_y will also be useful. (b) Notice that the projectile's distance from its starting point increases with time, goes through a maximum, and starts to decrease. Prove that the distance is a maximum when the position vector is perpendicular to the velocity. *Suggestion:* Argue that if \vec{v} is not perpendicular to \vec{r} , then $|\vec{r}|$ must be increasing or decreasing. (c) Determine the magnitude of the maximum displacement. (d) Explain your method for solving part (c).

73. A spring cannon is located at the edge of a table that is 1.20 m above the floor. A steel ball is launched from the cannon with speed v_i at 35.0° above the horizontal. (a) Find the horizontal position of the ball as a function of v_i at the instant it lands on the floor. We write this function as $x(v_i)$. Evaluate x for (b) $v_i = 0.100$ m/s and for (c) $v_i = 100$ m/s. (d) Assume v_i is close to but not equal to zero. Show that one term in the answer to part (a) dominates so that the function $x(v_i)$ reduces to a simpler form. (e) If v_i is very large, what is the approximate form of $x(v_i)$? (f) Describe the overall shape of the graph of the function $x(v_i)$.

74. An outfielder throws a baseball to his catcher in an attempt to throw out a runner at home plate. The ball bounces once before reaching the catcher. Assume the angle at which the bounced ball leaves the ground is the same as the angle at which the outfielder threw it as shown in Figure P4.74, but that the ball's speed after the bounce is one-half of what it was before the bounce. (a) Assume the ball is always thrown with the same initial speed and ignore air resistance. At what angle θ should the fielder throw the ball to make it go the same distance D with one bounce (blue path) as a ball thrown upward at 45.0° with no bounce (green path)? (b) Determine the ratio of the time interval for the one-bounce throw to the flight time for the no-bounce throw.

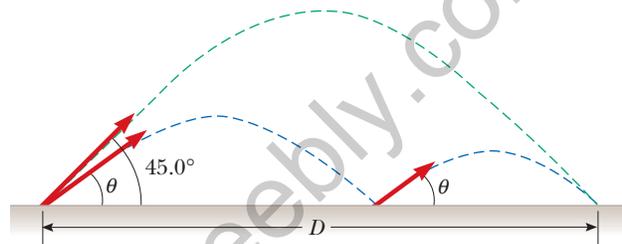


Figure P4.74

75. A World War II bomber flies horizontally over level terrain with a speed of 275 m/s relative to the ground and at an altitude of 3.00 km. The bombardier releases one bomb. (a) How far does the bomb travel horizontally between its release and its impact on the ground? Ignore the effects of air resistance. (b) The pilot maintains the plane's original course, altitude, and speed through a storm of flak. Where is the plane when the bomb hits the ground? (c) The bomb hits the target seen in the telescopic bombsight at the moment of the bomb's release. At what angle from the vertical was the bombsight set?
76. A truck loaded with cannonball watermelons stops suddenly to avoid running over the edge of a washed-out bridge (Fig. P4.76). The quick stop causes a number of melons to fly off the truck. One melon leaves the hood of the truck with an initial speed $v_i = 10.0$ m/s in the horizontal direction. A cross section of the bank has the shape of the bottom half of a parabola, with its vertex at the initial location of the projected watermelon and with the equation $y^2 = 16x$, where x and y are mea-

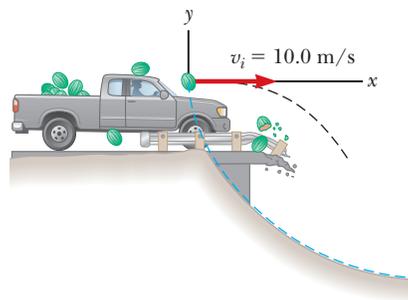


Figure P4.76 The blue dashed curve shows the parabolic shape of the bank.

sured in meters. What are the x and y coordinates of the melon when it splatters on the bank?

- 77.** A car is parked on a steep incline, making an angle of 37.0° below the horizontal and overlooking the ocean, when its brakes fail and it begins to roll. Starting from rest at $t = 0$, the car rolls down the incline with a constant acceleration of 4.00 m/s^2 , traveling 50.0 m to the edge of a vertical cliff. The cliff is 30.0 m above the ocean. Find (a) the speed of the car when it reaches the edge of the cliff, (b) the time interval elapsed when it arrives there, (c) the velocity of the car when it lands in the ocean, (d) the total time interval the car is in motion, and (e) the position of the car when it lands in the ocean, relative to the base of the cliff.

- 78.** An aging coyote cannot run fast enough to catch a roadrunner. He purchases on eBay a set of jet-powered roller skates, which provide a constant horizontal acceleration of 15.0 m/s^2 (Fig. P4.78). The coyote starts at rest 70.0 m from the edge of a cliff at the instant the roadrunner zips past in the direction of the cliff. (a) Determine the minimum constant speed the roadrunner must have to reach the cliff before the coyote. At the edge of the cliff, the roadrunner escapes by making a sudden turn, while the coyote continues straight ahead. The coyote's skates remain horizontal and continue to operate while he is in flight, so his acceleration while in the air is $(15.0\hat{i} - 9.80\hat{j}) \text{ m/s}^2$. (b) The cliff is 100 m above the flat floor of the desert. Determine how far from the base of the vertical cliff the coyote lands. (c) Determine the components of the coyote's impact velocity.

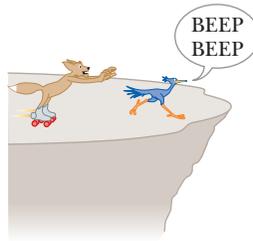


Figure P4.78

- 79.** A fisherman sets out upstream on a river. His small boat, powered by an outboard motor, travels at a constant speed v in still water. The water flows at a lower constant speed v_w . The fisherman has traveled upstream for 2.00 km when his ice chest falls out of the boat. He notices that the chest is missing only after he has gone upstream for another 15.0 min . At that point, he turns around and heads back downstream, all the time traveling at the same speed relative to the water. He catches up with the floating ice chest just as he returns to his starting point. How fast is the river flowing? Solve this problem in two ways. (a) First, use the Earth as a reference frame. With respect to the Earth, the boat travels upstream at speed $v - v_w$ and downstream at $v + v_w$. (b) A second much simpler and more elegant solution is obtained by using the water as the reference frame. This approach has important applications in many more complicated problems; examples are calculating the motion of rockets and satellites and analyzing the scattering of subatomic particles from massive targets.
- 80.** Do not hurt yourself; do not strike your hand against anything. Within these limitations, describe what you do to give your hand a large acceleration. Compute an

order-of-magnitude estimate of this acceleration, stating the quantities you measure or estimate and their values.

Challenge Problems

- 81.** A skier leaves the ramp of a ski jump with a velocity of $v = 10.0 \text{ m/s}$ at $\theta = 15.0^\circ$ above the horizontal as shown in Figure P4.81. The slope where she will land is inclined downward at $\phi = 50.0^\circ$, and air resistance is negligible. Find (a) the distance from the end of the ramp to where the jumper lands and (b) her velocity components just before the landing. (c) Explain how you think the results might be affected if air resistance were included.

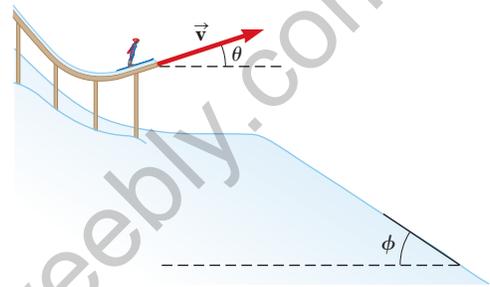


Figure P4.81

- 82.** Two swimmers, Chris and Sarah, start together at the same point on the bank of a wide stream that flows with a speed v . Both move at the same speed c (where $c > v$) relative to the water. Chris swims downstream a distance L and then upstream the same distance. Sarah swims so that her motion relative to the Earth is perpendicular to the banks of the stream. She swims the distance L and then back the same distance, with both swimmers returning to the starting point. In terms of L , c , and v , find the time intervals required (a) for Chris's round trip and (b) for Sarah's round trip. (c) Explain which swimmer returns first.
- 83.** The water in a river flows uniformly at a constant speed of 2.50 m/s between parallel banks 80.0 m apart. You are to deliver a package across the river, but you can swim only at 1.50 m/s . (a) If you choose to minimize the time you spend in the water, in what direction should you head? (b) How far downstream will you be carried? (c) If you choose to minimize the distance downstream that the river carries you, in what direction should you head? (d) How far downstream will you be carried?
- 84.** A person standing at the top of a hemispherical rock of radius R kicks a ball (initially at rest on the top of the rock) to give it horizontal velocity \vec{v}_i as shown in Figure P4.84. (a) What must be its minimum initial speed

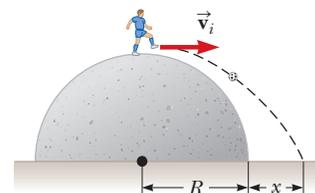


Figure P4.84

if the ball is never to hit the rock after it is kicked?
 (b) With this initial speed, how far from the base of the rock does the ball hit the ground?

85. A dive-bomber has a velocity of 280 m/s at an angle θ below the horizontal. When the altitude of the aircraft is 2.15 km, it releases a bomb, which subsequently hits a target on the ground. The magnitude of the displacement from the point of release of the bomb to the target is 3.25 km. Find the angle θ .
86. A projectile is fired up an incline (incline angle ϕ) with an initial speed v_i at an angle θ_i with respect to the horizontal ($\theta_i > \phi$) as shown in Figure P4.86. (a) Show that the projectile travels a distance d up the incline, where

$$d = \frac{2v_i^2 \cos\theta_i \sin(\theta_i - \phi)}{g \cos^2 \phi}$$

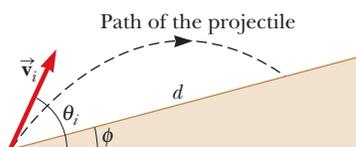


Figure P4.86

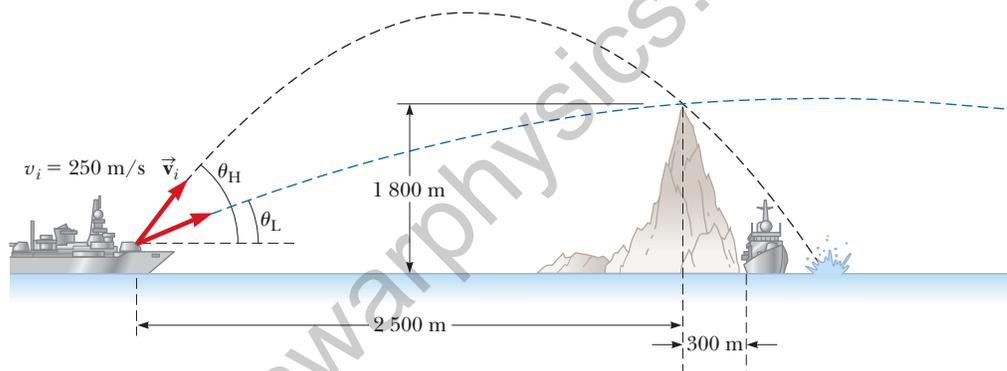


Figure P4.89

(b) For what value of θ_i is d a maximum, and what is that maximum value?

87. A fireworks rocket explodes at height h , the peak of its vertical trajectory. It throws out burning fragments in all directions, but all at the same speed v . Pellets of solidified metal fall to the ground without air resistance. Find the smallest angle that the final velocity of an impacting fragment makes with the horizontal.
88. In the What If? section of Example 4.5, it was claimed that the maximum range of a ski jumper occurs for a launch angle θ given by

$$\theta = 45^\circ - \frac{\phi}{2}$$

where ϕ is the angle the hill makes with the horizontal in Figure 4.14. Prove this claim by deriving the equation above.

89. An enemy ship is on the east side of a mountain island as shown in Figure P4.89. The enemy ship has maneuvered to within 2500 m of the 1800-m-high mountain peak and can shoot projectiles with an initial speed of 250 m/s. If the western shoreline is horizontally 300 m from the peak, what are the distances from the western shore at which a ship can be safe from the bombardment of the enemy ship?

The Laws of Motion

CHAPTER

5



- 5.1 The Concept of Force
- 5.2 Newton's First Law and Inertial Frames
- 5.3 Mass
- 5.4 Newton's Second Law
- 5.5 The Gravitational Force and Weight
- 5.6 Newton's Third Law
- 5.7 Analysis Models Using Newton's Second Law
- 5.8 Forces of Friction

In Chapters 2 and 4, we *described* the motion of an object in terms of its position, velocity, and acceleration without considering what might *influence* that motion. Now we consider that influence: Why does the motion of an object change? What might cause one object to remain at rest and another object to accelerate? Why is it generally easier to move a small object than a large object? The two main factors we need to consider are the *forces* acting on an object and the *mass* of the object. In this chapter, we begin our study of *dynamics* by discussing the three basic laws of motion, which deal with forces and masses and were formulated more than three centuries ago by Isaac Newton.

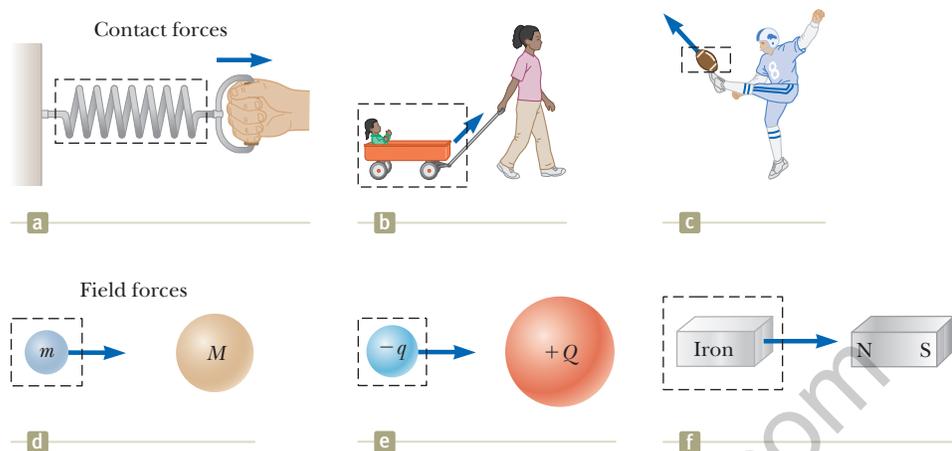
A person sculls on a calm waterway. The water exerts forces on the oars to accelerate the boat. (Tetra Images/Getty Images)

5.1 The Concept of Force

Everyone has a basic understanding of the concept of force from everyday experience. When you push your empty dinner plate away, you exert a force on it. Similarly, you exert a force on a ball when you throw or kick it. In these examples, the word *force* refers to an interaction with an object by means of muscular activity and some change in the object's velocity. Forces do not always cause motion, however. For example, when you are sitting, a gravitational force acts on your body and yet you remain stationary. As a second example, you can push (in other words, exert a force) on a large boulder and not be able to move it.

What force (if any) causes the Moon to orbit the Earth? Newton answered this and related questions by stating that forces are what cause any change in the velocity of an object. The Moon's velocity changes in direction as it moves in a nearly circular

Figure 5.1 Some examples of applied forces. In each case, a force is exerted on the object within the boxed area. Some agent in the environment external to the boxed area exerts a force on the object.



orbit around the Earth. This change in velocity is caused by the gravitational force exerted by the Earth on the Moon.

When a coiled spring is pulled, as in Figure 5.1a, the spring stretches. When a stationary cart is pulled, as in Figure 5.1b, the cart moves. When a football is kicked, as in Figure 5.1c, it is both deformed and set in motion. These situations are all examples of a class of forces called *contact forces*. That is, they involve physical contact between two objects. Other examples of contact forces are the force exerted by gas molecules on the walls of a container and the force exerted by your feet on the floor.

Another class of forces, known as *field forces*, does not involve physical contact between two objects. These forces act through empty space. The gravitational force of attraction between two objects with mass, illustrated in Figure 5.1d, is an example of this class of force. The gravitational force keeps objects bound to the Earth and the planets in orbit around the Sun. Another common field force is the electric force that one electric charge exerts on another (Fig. 5.1e), such as the attractive electric force between an electron and a proton that form a hydrogen atom. A third example of a field force is the force a bar magnet exerts on a piece of iron (Fig. 5.1f).

The distinction between contact forces and field forces is not as sharp as you may have been led to believe by the previous discussion. When examined at the atomic level, all the forces we classify as contact forces turn out to be caused by electric (field) forces of the type illustrated in Figure 5.1e. Nevertheless, in developing models for macroscopic phenomena, it is convenient to use both classifications of forces. The only known *fundamental forces* in nature are all field forces: (1) *gravitational forces* between objects, (2) *electromagnetic forces* between electric charges, (3) *strong forces* between subatomic particles, and (4) *weak forces* that arise in certain radioactive decay processes. In classical physics, we are concerned only with gravitational and electromagnetic forces. We will discuss strong and weak forces in Chapter 46.



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Isaac Newton

English physicist and mathematician (1642–1727)

Isaac Newton was one of the most brilliant scientists in history. Before the age of 30, he formulated the basic concepts and laws of mechanics, discovered the law of universal gravitation, and invented the mathematical methods of calculus. As a consequence of his theories, Newton was able to explain the motions of the planets, the ebb and flow of the tides, and many special features of the motions of the Moon and the Earth. He also interpreted many fundamental observations concerning the nature of light. His contributions to physical theories dominated scientific thought for two centuries and remain important today.

The Vector Nature of Force

It is possible to use the deformation of a spring to measure force. Suppose a vertical force is applied to a spring scale that has a fixed upper end as shown in Figure 5.2a. The spring elongates when the force is applied, and a pointer on the scale reads the extension of the spring. We can calibrate the spring by defining a reference force \vec{F}_1 as the force that produces a pointer reading of 1.00 cm. If we now apply a different downward force \vec{F}_2 whose magnitude is twice that of the reference force \vec{F}_1 as seen in Figure 5.2b, the pointer moves to 2.00 cm. Figure 5.2c shows that the combined effect of the two collinear forces is the sum of the effects of the individual forces.

Now suppose the two forces are applied simultaneously with \vec{F}_1 downward and \vec{F}_2 horizontal as illustrated in Figure 5.2d. In this case, the pointer reads 2.24 cm. The single force \vec{F} that would produce this same reading is the sum of the two vectors \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 as described in Figure 5.2d. That is, $|\vec{F}| = \sqrt{F_1^2 + F_2^2} = 2.24$ units,

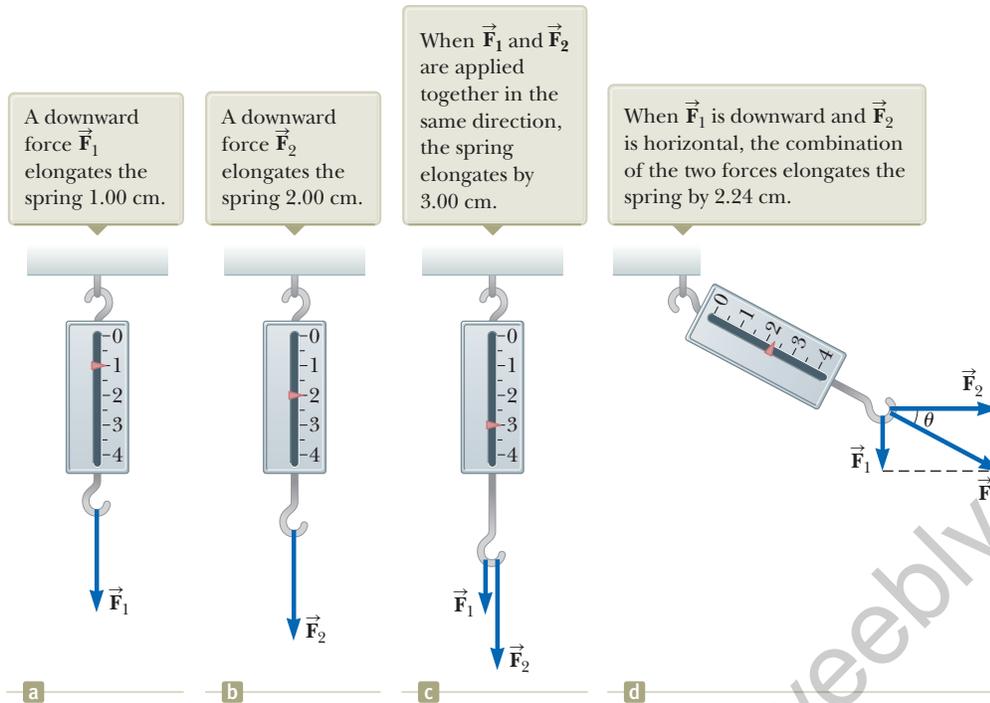


Figure 5.2 The vector nature of a force is tested with a spring scale.

and its direction is $\theta = \tan^{-1}(-0.500) = -26.6^\circ$. Because forces have been experimentally verified to behave as vectors, you *must* use the rules of vector addition to obtain the net force on an object.

5.2 Newton's First Law and Inertial Frames

We begin our study of forces by imagining some physical situations involving a puck on a perfectly level air hockey table (Fig. 5.3). You expect that the puck will remain stationary when it is placed gently at rest on the table. Now imagine your air hockey table is located on a train moving with constant velocity along a perfectly smooth track. If the puck is placed on the table, the puck again remains where it is placed. If the train were to accelerate, however, the puck would start moving along the table opposite the direction of the train's acceleration, just as a set of papers on your dashboard falls onto the floor of your car when you step on the accelerator.

As we saw in Section 4.6, a moving object can be observed from any number of reference frames. **Newton's first law of motion**, sometimes called the *law of inertia*, defines a special set of reference frames called *inertial frames*. This law can be stated as follows:

If an object does not interact with other objects, it is possible to identify a reference frame in which the object has zero acceleration.

Such a reference frame is called an **inertial frame of reference**. When the puck is on the air hockey table located on the ground, you are observing it from an inertial reference frame; there are no horizontal interactions of the puck with any other objects, and you observe it to have zero acceleration in that direction. When you are on the train moving at constant velocity, you are also observing the puck from an inertial reference frame. Any reference frame that moves with constant velocity relative to an inertial frame is itself an inertial frame. When you and the train accelerate, however, you are observing the puck from a **noninertial reference frame** because the train is accelerating relative to the inertial reference frame of the Earth's surface. While the puck appears to be accelerating according to your observations, a reference frame can be identified in which the puck has zero acceleration.

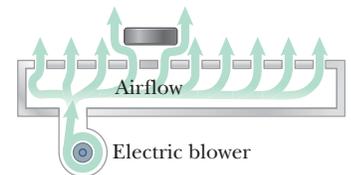


Figure 5.3 On an air hockey table, air blown through holes in the surface allows the puck to move almost without friction. If the table is not accelerating, a puck placed on the table will remain at rest.

◀ **Newton's first law**

◀ **Inertial frame of reference**

For example, an observer standing outside the train on the ground sees the puck sliding relative to the table but always moving with the same velocity with respect to the ground as the train had before it started to accelerate (because there is almost no friction to “tie” the puck and the train together). Therefore, Newton’s first law is still satisfied even though your observations as a rider on the train show an apparent acceleration relative to you.

A reference frame that moves with constant velocity relative to the distant stars is the best approximation of an inertial frame, and for our purposes we can consider the Earth as being such a frame. The Earth is not really an inertial frame because of its orbital motion around the Sun and its rotational motion about its own axis, both of which involve centripetal accelerations. These accelerations are small compared with g , however, and can often be neglected. For this reason, we model the Earth as an inertial frame, along with any other frame attached to it.

Let us assume we are observing an object from an inertial reference frame. (We will return to observations made in noninertial reference frames in Section 6.3.) Before about 1600, scientists believed that the natural state of matter was the state of rest. Observations showed that moving objects eventually stopped moving. Galileo was the first to take a different approach to motion and the natural state of matter. He devised thought experiments and concluded that it is not the nature of an object to stop once set in motion: rather, it is its nature to *resist changes in its motion*. In his words, “Any velocity once imparted to a moving body will be rigidly maintained as long as the external causes of retardation are removed.” For example, a spacecraft drifting through empty space with its engine turned off will keep moving forever. It would *not* seek a “natural state” of rest.

Given our discussion of observations made from inertial reference frames, we can pose a more practical statement of Newton’s first law of motion:

In the absence of external forces and when viewed from an inertial reference frame, an object at rest remains at rest and an object in motion continues in motion with a constant velocity (that is, with a constant speed in a straight line).

In other words, **when no force acts on an object, the acceleration of the object is zero.** From the first law, we conclude that any *isolated object* (one that does not interact with its environment) is either at rest or moving with constant velocity. The tendency of an object to resist any attempt to change its velocity is called **inertia**. Given the statement of the first law above, we can conclude that an object that is accelerating must be experiencing a force. In turn, from the first law, we can define **force as that which causes a change in motion of an object.**

Quick Quiz 5.1 Which of the following statements is correct? (a) It is possible for an object to have motion in the absence of forces on the object. (b) It is possible to have forces on an object in the absence of motion of the object. (c) Neither statement (a) nor statement (b) is correct. (d) Both statements (a) and (b) are correct.

5.3 Mass

Imagine playing catch with either a basketball or a bowling ball. Which ball is more likely to keep moving when you try to catch it? Which ball requires more effort to throw it? The bowling ball requires more effort. In the language of physics, we say that the bowling ball is more resistant to changes in its velocity than the basketball. How can we quantify this concept?

Mass is that property of an object that specifies how much resistance an object exhibits to changes in its velocity, and as we learned in Section 1.1, the SI unit of mass is the kilogram. Experiments show that the greater the mass of an object, the less that object accelerates under the action of a given applied force.

To describe mass quantitatively, we conduct experiments in which we compare the accelerations a given force produces on different objects. Suppose a force act-

Pitfall Prevention 5.1

Newton’s First Law Newton’s first law does *not* say what happens for an object with *zero net force*, that is, multiple forces that cancel; it says what happens *in the absence of external forces*. This subtle but important difference allows us to define force as that which causes a change in the motion. The description of an object under the effect of forces that balance is covered by Newton’s second law.

Another statement of Newton’s first law

Definition of force

Pitfall Prevention 5.2

Force Is the Cause of Changes in Motion An object can have motion in the absence of forces as described in Newton’s first law. Therefore, don’t interpret force as the cause of *motion*. Force is the cause of *changes in motion*.

Definition of mass

ing on an object of mass m_1 produces a change in motion of the object that we can quantify with the object's acceleration \vec{a}_1 , and the *same force* acting on an object of mass m_2 produces an acceleration \vec{a}_2 . The ratio of the two masses is defined as the *inverse* ratio of the magnitudes of the accelerations produced by the force:

$$\frac{m_1}{m_2} \equiv \frac{a_2}{a_1} \quad (5.1)$$

For example, if a given force acting on a 3-kg object produces an acceleration of 4 m/s^2 , the same force applied to a 6-kg object produces an acceleration of 2 m/s^2 . According to a huge number of similar observations, we conclude that the magnitude of the acceleration of an object is inversely proportional to its mass when acted on by a given force. If one object has a known mass, the mass of the other object can be obtained from acceleration measurements.

Mass is an inherent property of an object and is independent of the object's surroundings and of the method used to measure it. Also, mass is a scalar quantity and thus obeys the rules of ordinary arithmetic. For example, if you combine a 3-kg mass with a 5-kg mass, the total mass is 8 kg. This result can be verified experimentally by comparing the acceleration that a known force gives to several objects separately with the acceleration that the same force gives to the same objects combined as one unit.

Mass should not be confused with weight. Mass and weight are two different quantities. The weight of an object is equal to the magnitude of the gravitational force exerted on the object and varies with location (see Section 5.5). For example, a person weighing 180 lb on the Earth weighs only about 30 lb on the Moon. On the other hand, the mass of an object is the same everywhere: an object having a mass of 2 kg on the Earth also has a mass of 2 kg on the Moon.

◀ Mass and weight are different quantities

5.4 Newton's Second Law

Newton's first law explains what happens to an object when no forces act on it: it maintains its original motion; it either remains at rest or moves in a straight line with constant speed. Newton's second law answers the question of what happens to an object when one or more forces act on it.

Imagine performing an experiment in which you push a block of mass m across a frictionless, horizontal surface. When you exert some horizontal force \vec{F} on the block, it moves with some acceleration \vec{a} . If you apply a force twice as great on the same block, experimental results show that the acceleration of the block doubles; if you increase the applied force to $3\vec{F}$, the acceleration triples; and so on. From such observations, we conclude that the acceleration of an object is directly proportional to the force acting on it: $\vec{F} \propto \vec{a}$. This idea was first introduced in Section 2.4 when we discussed the direction of the acceleration of an object. We also know from the preceding section that the magnitude of the acceleration of an object is inversely proportional to its mass: $|\vec{a}| \propto 1/m$.

These experimental observations are summarized in **Newton's second law**:

When viewed from an inertial reference frame, the acceleration of an object is directly proportional to the net force acting on it and inversely proportional to its mass:

$$\vec{a} \propto \frac{\sum \vec{F}}{m}$$

If we choose a proportionality constant of 1, we can relate mass, acceleration, and force through the following mathematical statement of Newton's second law:¹

$$\sum \vec{F} = m\vec{a} \quad (5.2)$$

Pitfall Prevention 5.3

$m\vec{a}$ Is Not a Force Equation 5.2 does *not* say that the product $m\vec{a}$ is a force. All forces on an object are added vectorially to generate the net force on the left side of the equation. This net force is then equated to the product of the mass of the object and the acceleration that results from the net force. Do *not* include an " $m\vec{a}$ force" in your analysis of the forces on an object.

◀ Newton's second law

¹Equation 5.2 is valid only when the speed of the object is much less than the speed of light. We treat the relativistic situation in Chapter 39.

In both the textual and mathematical statements of Newton's second law, we have indicated that the acceleration is due to the *net force* $\Sigma \vec{F}$ acting on an object. The **net force** on an object is the vector sum of all forces acting on the object. (We sometimes refer to the net force as the *total force*, the *resultant force*, or the *unbalanced force*.) In solving a problem using Newton's second law, it is imperative to determine the correct net force on an object. Many forces may be acting on an object, but there is only one acceleration.

Equation 5.2 is a vector expression and hence is equivalent to three component equations:

Newton's second law: **component form**

$$\Sigma F_x = ma_x \quad \Sigma F_y = ma_y \quad \Sigma F_z = ma_z \quad (5.3)$$

Quick Quiz 5.2 An object experiences no acceleration. Which of the following *cannot* be true for the object? (a) A single force acts on the object. (b) No forces act on the object. (c) Forces act on the object, but the forces cancel.

Quick Quiz 5.3 You push an object, initially at rest, across a frictionless floor with a constant force for a time interval Δt , resulting in a final speed of v for the object. You then repeat the experiment, but with a force that is twice as large. What time interval is now required to reach the same final speed v ?
 (a) $4 \Delta t$ (b) $2 \Delta t$ (c) Δt (d) $\Delta t/2$ (e) $\Delta t/4$

The SI unit of force is the **newton** (N). A force of 1 N is the force that, when acting on an object of mass 1 kg, produces an acceleration of 1 m/s^2 . From this definition and Newton's second law, we see that the newton can be expressed in terms of the following fundamental units of mass, length, and time:

Definition of the newton

$$1 \text{ N} \equiv 1 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}^2 \quad (5.4)$$

In the U.S. customary system, the unit of force is the **pound** (lb). A force of 1 lb is the force that, when acting on a 1-slug mass,² produces an acceleration of 1 ft/s^2 :

$$1 \text{ lb} \equiv 1 \text{ slug} \cdot \text{ft/s}^2$$

A convenient approximation is $1 \text{ N} \approx \frac{1}{4} \text{ lb}$.

Example 5.1 An Accelerating Hockey Puck **AM**

A hockey puck having a mass of 0.30 kg slides on the frictionless, horizontal surface of an ice rink. Two hockey sticks strike the puck simultaneously, exerting the forces on the puck shown in Figure 5.4. The force \vec{F}_1 has a magnitude of 5.0 N, and is directed at $\theta = 20^\circ$ below the x axis. The force \vec{F}_2 has a magnitude of 8.0 N and its direction is $\phi = 60^\circ$ above the x axis. Determine both the magnitude and the direction of the puck's acceleration.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Study Figure 5.4. Using your expertise in vector addition from Chapter 3, predict the approximate direction of the net force vector on the puck. The acceleration of the puck will be in the same direction.

Categorize Because we can determine a net force and we want an acceleration, this problem is categorized as one that may be solved using Newton's second law. In Section 5.7, we will formally introduce the *particle under a net force* analysis model to describe a situation such as this one.

Analyze Find the component of the net force acting on the puck in the x direction:

$$\Sigma F_x = F_{1x} + F_{2x} = F_1 \cos \theta + F_2 \cos \phi$$

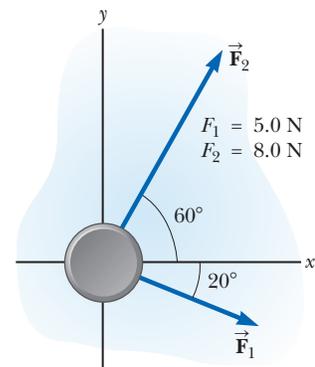


Figure 5.4 (Example 5.1) A hockey puck moving on a frictionless surface is subject to two forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 .

²The *slug* is the unit of mass in the U.S. customary system and is that system's counterpart of the SI unit the *kilogram*. Because most of the calculations in our study of classical mechanics are in SI units, the slug is seldom used in this text.

► 5.1 continued

Find the component of the net force acting on the puck in the y direction:

Use Newton's second law in component form (Eq. 5.3) to find the x and y components of the puck's acceleration:

Substitute numerical values:

Find the magnitude of the acceleration:

Find the direction of the acceleration relative to the positive x axis:

$$\sum F_y = F_{1y} + F_{2y} = F_1 \sin \theta + F_2 \sin \phi$$

$$a_x = \frac{\sum F_x}{m} = \frac{F_1 \cos \theta + F_2 \cos \phi}{m}$$

$$a_y = \frac{\sum F_y}{m} = \frac{F_1 \sin \theta + F_2 \sin \phi}{m}$$

$$a_x = \frac{(5.0 \text{ N}) \cos(-20^\circ) + (8.0 \text{ N}) \cos(60^\circ)}{0.30 \text{ kg}} = 29 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$a_y = \frac{(5.0 \text{ N}) \sin(-20^\circ) + (8.0 \text{ N}) \sin(60^\circ)}{0.30 \text{ kg}} = 17 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$a = \sqrt{(29 \text{ m/s}^2)^2 + (17 \text{ m/s}^2)^2} = 34 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{a_y}{a_x}\right) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{17}{29}\right) = 31^\circ$$

Finalize The vectors in Figure 5.4 can be added graphically to check the reasonableness of our answer. Because the acceleration vector is along the direction of the resultant force, a drawing showing the resultant force vector helps us check the validity of the answer. (Try it!)

WHAT IF? Suppose three hockey sticks strike the puck simultaneously, with two of them exerting the forces shown in Figure 5.4. The result of the three forces is that the hockey puck shows *no* acceleration. What must be the components of the third force?

Answer If there is zero acceleration, the net force acting on the puck must be zero. Therefore, the three forces must cancel. The components of the third force must be of equal magnitude and opposite sign compared to the components of the net force applied by the first two forces so that all the components add to zero. Therefore, $F_{3x} = -\sum F_x = -(0.30 \text{ kg})(29 \text{ m/s}^2) = -8.7 \text{ N}$ and $F_{3y} = -\sum F_y = -(0.30 \text{ kg})(17 \text{ m/s}^2) = -5.2 \text{ N}$.

5.5 The Gravitational Force and Weight

All objects are attracted to the Earth. The attractive force exerted by the Earth on an object is called the **gravitational force** \vec{F}_g . This force is directed toward the center of the Earth,³ and its magnitude is called the **weight** of the object.

We saw in Section 2.6 that a freely falling object experiences an acceleration \vec{g} acting toward the center of the Earth. Applying Newton's second law $\sum \vec{F} = m\vec{a}$ to a freely falling object of mass m , with $\vec{a} = \vec{g}$ and $\sum \vec{F} = \vec{F}_g$, gives

$$\vec{F}_g = m\vec{g} \quad (5.5)$$

Therefore, the weight of an object, being defined as the magnitude of \vec{F}_g , is given by

$$F_g = mg \quad (5.6)$$

Because it depends on g , weight varies with geographic location. Because g decreases with increasing distance from the center of the Earth, objects weigh less at higher altitudes than at sea level. For example, a 1 000-kg pallet of bricks used in the construction of the Empire State Building in New York City weighed 9 800 N at street level, but weighed about 1 N less by the time it was lifted from sidewalk level to the top of the building. As another example, suppose a student has a mass

Pitfall Prevention 5.4

"Weight of an Object" We are familiar with the everyday phrase, the "weight of an object." Weight, however, is not an inherent property of an object; rather, it is a measure of the gravitational force between the object and the Earth (or other planet). Therefore, weight is a property of a *system* of items: the object and the Earth.

Pitfall Prevention 5.5

Kilogram Is Not a Unit of Weight You may have seen the "conversion" $1 \text{ kg} = 2.2 \text{ lb}$. Despite popular statements of weights expressed in kilograms, the kilogram is not a unit of *weight*, it is a unit of *mass*. The conversion statement is not an equality; it is an *equivalence* that is valid only on the Earth's surface.

³This statement ignores that the mass distribution of the Earth is not perfectly spherical.



NASA/Eugene Cernan

The life-support unit strapped to the back of astronaut Harrison Schmitt weighed 300 lb on the Earth and had a mass of 136 kg. During his training, a 50-lb mock-up with a mass of 23 kg was used. Although this strategy effectively simulated the reduced weight the unit would have on the Moon, it did not correctly mimic the unchanging mass. It was more difficult to accelerate the 136-kg unit (perhaps by jumping or twisting suddenly) on the Moon than it was to accelerate the 23-kg unit on the Earth.

of 70.0 kg. The student's weight in a location where $g = 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$ is 686 N (about 150 lb). At the top of a mountain, however, where $g = 9.77 \text{ m/s}^2$, the student's weight is only 684 N. Therefore, if you want to lose weight without going on a diet, climb a mountain or weigh yourself at 30 000 ft during an airplane flight!

Equation 5.6 quantifies the gravitational force on the object, but notice that this equation does not require the object to be moving. Even for a stationary object or for an object on which several forces act, Equation 5.6 can be used to calculate the magnitude of the gravitational force. The result is a subtle shift in the interpretation of m in the equation. The mass m in Equation 5.6 determines the strength of the gravitational attraction between the object and the Earth. This role is completely different from that previously described for mass, that of measuring the resistance to changes in motion in response to an external force. In that role, mass is also called **inertial mass**. We call m in Equation 5.6 the **gravitational mass**. Even though this quantity is different in behavior from inertial mass, it is one of the experimental conclusions in Newtonian dynamics that gravitational mass and inertial mass have the same value.

Although this discussion has focused on the gravitational force on an object due to the Earth, the concept is generally valid on any planet. The value of g will vary from one planet to the next, but the magnitude of the gravitational force will always be given by the value of mg .

- Quick Quiz 5.4** Suppose you are talking by interplanetary telephone to a friend who lives on the Moon. He tells you that he has just won a newton of gold in a contest. Excitedly, you tell him that you entered the Earth version of the same contest and also won a newton of gold! Who is richer? (a) You are. (b) Your friend is. (c) You are equally rich.

Conceptual Example 5.2

How Much Do You Weigh in an Elevator?

You have most likely been in an elevator that accelerates upward as it moves toward a higher floor. In this case, you feel heavier. In fact, if you are standing on a bathroom scale at the time, the scale measures a force having a magnitude that is greater than your weight. Therefore, you have tactile and measured evidence that leads you to believe you are heavier in this situation. *Are you heavier?*

SOLUTION

No; your weight is unchanged. Your experiences are due to your being in a noninertial reference frame. To provide the acceleration upward, the floor or scale must exert on your feet an upward force that is greater in magnitude than your weight. It is this greater force you feel, which you interpret as feeling heavier. The scale reads this upward force, not your weight, and so its reading increases.

5.6 Newton's Third Law

If you press against a corner of this textbook with your fingertip, the book pushes back and makes a small dent in your skin. If you push harder, the book does the same and the dent in your skin is a little larger. This simple activity illustrates that forces are *interactions* between two objects: when your finger pushes on the book, the book pushes back on your finger. This important principle is known as **Newton's third law**:

Newton's third law ►

If two objects interact, the force \vec{F}_{12} exerted by object 1 on object 2 is equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to the force \vec{F}_{21} exerted by object 2 on object 1:

$$\vec{F}_{12} = -\vec{F}_{21} \quad (5.7)$$

When it is important to designate forces as interactions between two objects, we will use this subscript notation, where \vec{F}_{ab} means “the force exerted by a on b.” The third law is illustrated in Figure 5.5. The force that object 1 exerts on object 2 is popularly called the *action force*, and the force of object 2 on object 1 is called the *reaction force*. These italicized terms are not scientific terms; furthermore, either force can be labeled the action or reaction force. We will use these terms for convenience. In all cases, the action and reaction forces act on *different* objects and must be of the same type (gravitational, electrical, etc.). For example, the force acting on a freely falling projectile is the gravitational force exerted by the Earth on the projectile $\vec{F}_g = \vec{F}_{Ep}$ (E = Earth, p = projectile), and the magnitude of this force is mg . The reaction to this force is the gravitational force exerted by the projectile on the Earth $\vec{F}_{pE} = -\vec{F}_{Ep}$. The reaction force \vec{F}_{pE} must accelerate the Earth toward the projectile just as the action force \vec{F}_{Ep} accelerates the projectile toward the Earth. Because the Earth has such a large mass, however, its acceleration due to this reaction force is negligibly small.

Consider a computer monitor at rest on a table as in Figure 5.6a. The gravitational force on the monitor is $\vec{F}_g = \vec{F}_{Em}$. The reaction to this force is the force $\vec{F}_{mE} = -\vec{F}_{Em}$ exerted by the monitor on the Earth. The monitor does not accelerate because it is held up by the table. The table exerts on the monitor an upward force $\vec{n} = \vec{F}_{tm}$, called the **normal force**. (*Normal* in this context means *perpendicular*.) In general, whenever an object is in contact with a surface, the surface exerts a normal force on the object. The normal force on the monitor can have any value needed, up to the point of breaking the table. Because the monitor has zero acceleration, Newton's second law applied to the monitor gives us $\sum \vec{F} = \vec{n} + m\vec{g} = 0$, so $n\hat{j} - mg\hat{j} = 0$, or $n = mg$. The normal force balances the gravitational force on the monitor, so the net force on the monitor is zero. The reaction force to \vec{n} is the force exerted by the monitor downward on the table, $\vec{F}_{mt} = -\vec{F}_{tm} = -\vec{n}$.

Notice that the forces acting on the monitor are \vec{F}_g and \vec{n} as shown in Figure 5.6b. The two forces \vec{F}_{mE} and \vec{F}_{mt} are exerted on objects other than the monitor.

Figure 5.6 illustrates an extremely important step in solving problems involving forces. Figure 5.6a shows many of the forces in the situation: those acting on the monitor, one acting on the table, and one acting on the Earth. Figure 5.6b, by contrast, shows only the forces acting on *one object*, the monitor, and is called a **force diagram** or a *diagram showing the forces on the object*. The important pictorial representation in Figure 5.6c is called a **free-body diagram**. In a free-body diagram, the particle model is used by representing the object as a dot and showing the forces that act on the object as being applied to the dot. When analyzing an object subject to forces, we are interested in the net force acting on one object, which we will model as a particle. Therefore, a free-body diagram helps us isolate only those forces on the object and eliminate the other forces from our analysis.

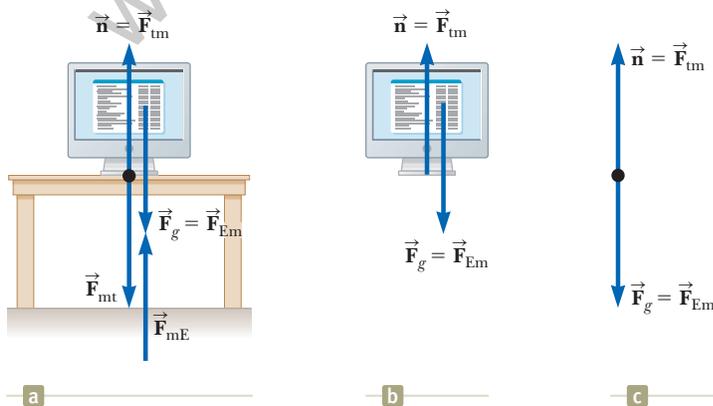


Figure 5.6 (a) When a computer monitor is at rest on a table, the forces acting on the monitor are the normal force \vec{n} and the gravitational force \vec{F}_g . The reaction to \vec{n} is the force \vec{F}_{mt} exerted by the monitor on the table. The reaction to \vec{F}_g is the force \vec{F}_{mE} exerted by the monitor on the Earth. (b) A *force diagram* shows the forces on the monitor. (c) A *free-body diagram* shows the monitor as a black dot with the forces acting on it.

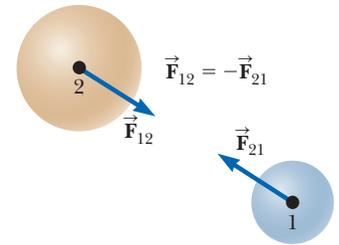


Figure 5.5 Newton's third law. The force \vec{F}_{12} exerted by object 1 on object 2 is equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to the force \vec{F}_{21} exerted by object 2 on object 1.

Pitfall Prevention 5.6

n Does Not Always Equal mg In the situation shown in Figure 5.6 and in many others, we find that $n = mg$ (the normal force has the same magnitude as the gravitational force). This result, however, is *not* generally true. If an object is on an incline, if there are applied forces with vertical components, or if there is a vertical acceleration of the system, then $n \neq mg$. *Always* apply Newton's second law to find the relationship between n and mg .

Pitfall Prevention 5.7

Newton's Third Law Remember that Newton's third-law action and reaction forces act on *different* objects. For example, in Figure 5.6, $\vec{n} = \vec{F}_{tm} = -m\vec{g} = -\vec{F}_{Em}$. The forces \vec{n} and $m\vec{g}$ are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction, but they do not represent an action–reaction pair because both forces act on the *same* object, the monitor.

Pitfall Prevention 5.8

Free-Body Diagrams The *most important* step in solving a problem using Newton's laws is to draw a proper sketch, the free-body diagram. Be sure to draw *only* those forces that act on the object you are isolating. Be sure to draw *all* forces acting on the object, including any field forces, such as the gravitational force.

- Quick Quiz 5.5** (i) If a fly collides with the windshield of a fast-moving bus, which experiences an impact force with a larger magnitude? (a) The fly. (b) The bus. (c) The same force is experienced by both. (ii) Which experiences the greater acceleration? (a) The fly. (b) The bus. (c) The same acceleration is experienced by both.

Conceptual Example 5.3

You Push Me and I'll Push You

A large man and a small boy stand facing each other on frictionless ice. They put their hands together and push against each other so that they move apart.

(A) Who moves away with the higher speed?

SOLUTION

This situation is similar to what we saw in Quick Quiz 5.5. According to Newton's third law, the force exerted by the man on the boy and the force exerted by the boy on the man are a third-law pair of forces, so they must be equal in magnitude. (A bathroom scale placed between their hands would read the same, regardless of which way it faced.) Therefore, the boy, having the smaller mass, experiences the greater acceleration. Both individuals accelerate for the same amount of time, but the greater acceleration of the boy over this time interval results in his moving away from the interaction with the higher speed.

(B) Who moves farther while their hands are in contact?

SOLUTION

Because the boy has the greater acceleration and therefore the greater average velocity, he moves farther than the man during the time interval during which their hands are in contact.

5.7 Analysis Models Using Newton's Second Law

In this section, we discuss two analysis models for solving problems in which objects are either in equilibrium ($\vec{a} = 0$) or accelerating under the action of constant external forces. Remember that when Newton's laws are applied to an object, we are interested only in external forces that act on the object. If the objects are modeled as particles, we need not worry about rotational motion. For now, we also neglect the effects of friction in those problems involving motion, which is equivalent to stating that the surfaces are *frictionless*. (The friction force is discussed in Section 5.8.)

We usually neglect the mass of any ropes, strings, or cables involved. In this approximation, the magnitude of the force exerted by any element of the rope on the adjacent element is the same for all elements along the rope. In problem statements, the synonymous terms *light* and *of negligible mass* are used to indicate that a mass is to be ignored when you work the problems. When a rope attached to an object is pulling on the object, the rope exerts a force on the object in a direction away from the object, parallel to the rope. The magnitude T of that force is called the **tension** in the rope. Because it is the magnitude of a vector quantity, tension is a scalar quantity.

Analysis Model: The Particle in Equilibrium

If the acceleration of an object modeled as a particle is zero, the object is treated with the **particle in equilibrium** model. In this model, the net force on the object is zero:

$$\sum \vec{F} = 0 \quad (5.8)$$

Consider a lamp suspended from a light chain fastened to the ceiling as in Figure 5.7a. The force diagram for the lamp (Fig. 5.7b) shows that the forces acting on the

lamp are the downward gravitational force \vec{F}_g and the upward force \vec{T} exerted by the chain. Because there are no forces in the x direction, $\Sigma F_x = 0$ provides no helpful information. The condition $\Sigma F_y = 0$ gives

$$\Sigma F_y = T - F_g = 0 \text{ or } T = F_g$$

Again, notice that \vec{T} and \vec{F}_g are *not* an action–reaction pair because they act on the same object, the lamp. The reaction force to \vec{T} is a downward force exerted by the lamp on the chain.

Example 5.4 (page 122) shows an application of the particle in equilibrium model.

Analysis Model: The Particle Under a Net Force

If an object experiences an acceleration, its motion can be analyzed with the **particle under a net force** model. The appropriate equation for this model is Newton's second law, Equation 5.2:

$$\Sigma \vec{F} = m\vec{a} \quad (5.2)$$

Consider a crate being pulled to the right on a frictionless, horizontal floor as in Figure 5.8a. Of course, the floor directly under the boy must have friction; otherwise, his feet would simply slip when he tries to pull on the crate! Suppose you wish to find the acceleration of the crate and the force the floor exerts on it. The forces acting on the crate are illustrated in the free-body diagram in Figure 5.8b. Notice that the horizontal force \vec{T} being applied to the crate acts through the rope. The magnitude of \vec{T} is equal to the tension in the rope. In addition to the force \vec{T} , the free-body diagram for the crate includes the gravitational force \vec{F}_g and the normal force \vec{n} exerted by the floor on the crate.

We can now apply Newton's second law in component form to the crate. The only force acting in the x direction is \vec{T} . Applying $\Sigma F_x = ma_x$ to the horizontal motion gives

$$\Sigma F_x = T = ma_x \text{ or } a_x = \frac{T}{m}$$

No acceleration occurs in the y direction because the crate moves only horizontally. Therefore, we use the particle in equilibrium model in the y direction. Applying the y component of Equation 5.8 yields

$$\Sigma F_y = n - F_g = 0 \text{ or } n = F_g$$

That is, the normal force has the same magnitude as the gravitational force but acts in the opposite direction.

If \vec{T} is a constant force, the acceleration $a_x = T/m$ also is constant. Hence, the crate is also modeled as a particle under constant acceleration in the x direction, and the equations of kinematics from Chapter 2 can be used to obtain the crate's position x and velocity v_x as functions of time.

Notice from this discussion two concepts that will be important in future problem solving: (1) *In a given problem, it is possible to have different analysis models applied in different directions.* The crate in Figure 5.8 is a particle in equilibrium in the vertical direction and a particle under a net force in the horizontal direction. (2) *It is possible to describe an object by multiple analysis models.* The crate is a particle under a net force in the horizontal direction and is also a particle under constant acceleration in the same direction.

In the situation just described, the magnitude of the normal force \vec{n} is equal to the magnitude of \vec{F}_g , but that is not always the case, as noted in Pitfall Prevention 5.6. For example, suppose a book is lying on a table and you push down on the book with a force \vec{F} as in Figure 5.9. Because the book is at rest and therefore not accelerating, $\Sigma F_y = 0$, which gives $n - F_g - F = 0$, or $n = F_g + F = mg + F$. In this situation, the normal force is *greater* than the gravitational force. Other examples in which $n \neq F_g$ are presented later.

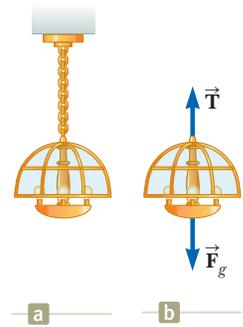


Figure 5.7 (a) A lamp suspended from a ceiling by a chain of negligible mass. (b) The forces acting on the lamp are the gravitational force \vec{F}_g and the force \vec{T} exerted by the chain.

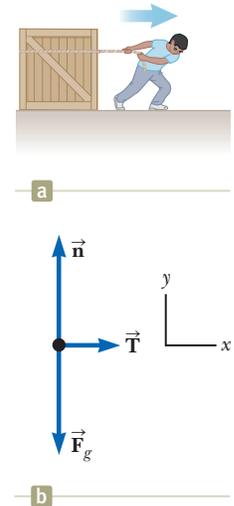


Figure 5.8 (a) A crate being pulled to the right on a frictionless floor. (b) The free-body diagram representing the external forces acting on the crate.

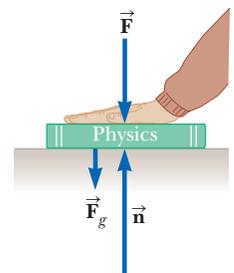


Figure 5.9 When a force \vec{F} pushes vertically downward on another object, the normal force \vec{n} on the object is greater than the gravitational force: $n = F_g + F$.

Several examples below demonstrate the use of the particle under a net force model.

Analysis Model Particle in Equilibrium

Imagine an object that can be modeled as a particle. If it has several forces acting on it so that the forces all cancel, giving a net force of zero, the object will have an acceleration of zero. This condition is mathematically described as

$$\sum \vec{\mathbf{F}} = 0 \quad (5.8)$$

$$\vec{\mathbf{a}} = 0$$

$$\Sigma \vec{\mathbf{F}} = 0$$

Examples

- a chandelier hanging over a dining room table
- an object moving at terminal speed through a viscous medium (Chapter 6)
- a steel beam in the frame of a building (Chapter 12)
- a boat floating on a body of water (Chapter 14)

Analysis Model Particle Under a Net Force

Imagine an object that can be modeled as a particle. If it has one or more forces acting on it so that there is a net force on the object, it will accelerate in the direction of the net force. The relationship between the net force and the acceleration is

$$\sum \vec{\mathbf{F}} = m \vec{\mathbf{a}} \quad (5.2)$$

$$\Sigma \vec{\mathbf{F}}$$

Examples

- a crate pushed across a factory floor
- a falling object acted upon by a gravitational force
- a piston in an automobile engine pushed by hot gases (Chapter 22)
- a charged particle in an electric field (Chapter 23)

Example 5.4 A Traffic Light at Rest **AM**

A traffic light weighing 122 N hangs from a cable tied to two other cables fastened to a support as in Figure 5.10a. The upper cables make angles of $\theta_1 = 37.0^\circ$ and $\theta_2 = 53.0^\circ$ with the horizontal. These upper cables are not as strong as the vertical cable and will break if the tension in them exceeds 100 N. Does the traffic light remain hanging in this situation, or will one of the cables break?

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Inspect the drawing in Figure 5.10a. Let us assume the cables do not break and nothing is moving.

Categorize If nothing is moving, no part of the system is accelerating. We can now model the light as a *particle in equilibrium* on which the net force is zero. Similarly, the net force on the knot (Fig. 5.10c) is zero, so it is also modeled as a *particle in equilibrium*.

Analyze We construct a diagram of the forces acting on the traffic light, shown in Figure 5.10b, and a free-body diagram for the knot that holds the three cables together, shown in Figure 5.10c. This knot is a convenient object to choose because all the forces of interest act along lines passing through the knot.

From the particle in equilibrium model, apply Equation 5.8 for the traffic light in the y direction:

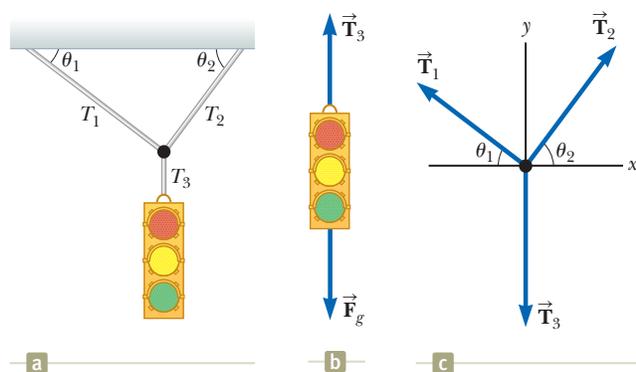


Figure 5.10 (Example 5.4) (a) A traffic light suspended by cables. (b) The forces acting on the traffic light. (c) The free-body diagram for the knot where the three cables are joined.

$$\sum F_y = 0 \rightarrow T_3 - F_g = 0$$

$$T_3 = F_g$$

5.4 continued

Choose the coordinate axes as shown in Figure 5.10c and resolve the forces acting on the knot into their components:

| Force | x Component | y Component |
|-------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| \vec{T}_1 | $-T_1 \cos \theta_1$ | $T_1 \sin \theta_1$ |
| \vec{T}_2 | $T_2 \cos \theta_2$ | $T_2 \sin \theta_2$ |
| \vec{T}_3 | 0 | $-F_g$ |

Apply the particle in equilibrium model to the knot:

$$(1) \quad \sum F_x = -T_1 \cos \theta_1 + T_2 \cos \theta_2 = 0$$

$$(2) \quad \sum F_y = T_1 \sin \theta_1 + T_2 \sin \theta_2 + (-F_g) = 0$$

Equation (1) shows that the horizontal components of \vec{T}_1 and \vec{T}_2 must be equal in magnitude, and Equation (2) shows that the sum of the vertical components of \vec{T}_1 and \vec{T}_2 must balance the downward force \vec{T}_3 , which is equal in magnitude to the weight of the light.

Solve Equation (1) for T_2 in terms of T_1 :

$$(3) \quad T_2 = T_1 \left(\frac{\cos \theta_1}{\cos \theta_2} \right)$$

Substitute this value for T_2 into Equation (2):

$$T_1 \sin \theta_1 + T_1 \left(\frac{\cos \theta_1}{\cos \theta_2} \right) (\sin \theta_2) - F_g = 0$$

Solve for T_1 :

$$T_1 = \frac{F_g}{\sin \theta_1 + \cos \theta_1 \tan \theta_2}$$

Substitute numerical values:

$$T_1 = \frac{122 \text{ N}}{\sin 37.0^\circ + \cos 37.0^\circ \tan 53.0^\circ} = 73.4 \text{ N}$$

Using Equation (3), solve for T_2 :

$$T_2 = (73.4 \text{ N}) \left(\frac{\cos 37.0^\circ}{\cos 53.0^\circ} \right) = 97.4 \text{ N}$$

Both values are less than 100 N (just barely for T_2), so the cables will not break.

Finalize Let us finalize this problem by imagining a change in the system, as in the following What If?

WHAT IF? Suppose the two angles in Figure 5.10a are equal. What would be the relationship between T_1 and T_2 ?

Answer We can argue from the symmetry of the problem that the two tensions T_1 and T_2 would be equal to each other. Mathematically, if the equal angles are called θ , Equation (3) becomes

$$T_2 = T_1 \left(\frac{\cos \theta}{\cos \theta} \right) = T_1$$

which also tells us that the tensions are equal. Without knowing the specific value of θ , we cannot find the values of T_1 and T_2 . The tensions will be equal to each other, however, regardless of the value of θ .

Conceptual Example 5.5

Forces Between Cars in a Train

Train cars are connected by *couplers*, which are under tension as the locomotive pulls the train. Imagine you are on a train speeding up with a constant acceleration. As you move through the train from the locomotive to the last car, measuring the tension in each set of couplers, does the tension increase, decrease, or stay the same? When the engineer applies the brakes, the couplers are under compression. How does this compression force vary from the locomotive to the last car? (Assume only the brakes on the wheels of the engine are applied.)

SOLUTION

While the train is speeding up, tension decreases from the front of the train to the back. The coupler between the locomotive and the first car must apply enough force to accelerate the rest of the cars. As you move back along the

continued

5.5 continued

train, each coupler is accelerating less mass behind it. The last coupler has to accelerate only the last car, and so it is under the least tension.

When the brakes are applied, the force again decreases from front to back. The coupler connecting the locomotive to the first car must apply a large force to slow down the rest of the cars, but the final coupler must apply a force large enough to slow down only the last car.

Example 5.6 The Runaway Car AM

A car of mass m is on an icy driveway inclined at an angle θ as in Figure 5.11a.

(A) Find the acceleration of the car, assuming the driveway is frictionless.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Use Figure 5.11a to conceptualize the situation. From everyday experience, we know that a car on an icy incline will accelerate down the incline. (The same thing happens to a car on a hill with its brakes not set.)

Categorize We categorize the car as a *particle under a net force* because it accelerates. Furthermore, this example belongs to a very common category of problems in which an object moves under the influence of gravity on an inclined plane.

Analyze Figure 5.11b shows the free-body diagram for the car. The only forces acting on the car are the normal force \vec{n} exerted by the inclined plane, which acts perpendicular to the plane, and the gravitational force $\vec{F}_g = m\vec{g}$, which acts vertically downward. For problems involving inclined planes, it is convenient to choose the coordinate axes with x along the incline and y perpendicular to it as in Figure 5.11b. With these axes, we represent the gravitational force by a component of magnitude $mg \sin \theta$ along the positive x axis and one of magnitude $mg \cos \theta$ along the negative y axis. Our choice of axes results in the car being modeled as a particle under a net force in the x direction and a particle in equilibrium in the y direction.

Apply these models to the car:

$$(1) \quad \sum F_x = mg \sin \theta = ma_x$$

$$(2) \quad \sum F_y = n - mg \cos \theta = 0$$

Solve Equation (1) for a_x :

$$(3) \quad a_x = g \sin \theta$$

Finalize Note that the acceleration component a_x is independent of the mass of the car! It depends only on the angle of inclination and on g .

From Equation (2), we conclude that the component of \vec{F}_g perpendicular to the incline is balanced by the normal force; that is, $n = mg \cos \theta$. This situation is a case in which the normal force is *not* equal in magnitude to the weight of the object (as discussed in Pitfall Prevention 5.6 on page 119).

It is possible, although inconvenient, to solve the problem with “standard” horizontal and vertical axes. You may want to try it, just for practice.

(B) Suppose the car is released from rest at the top of the incline and the distance from the car’s front bumper to the bottom of the incline is d . How long does it take the front bumper to reach the bottom of the hill, and what is the car’s speed as it arrives there?

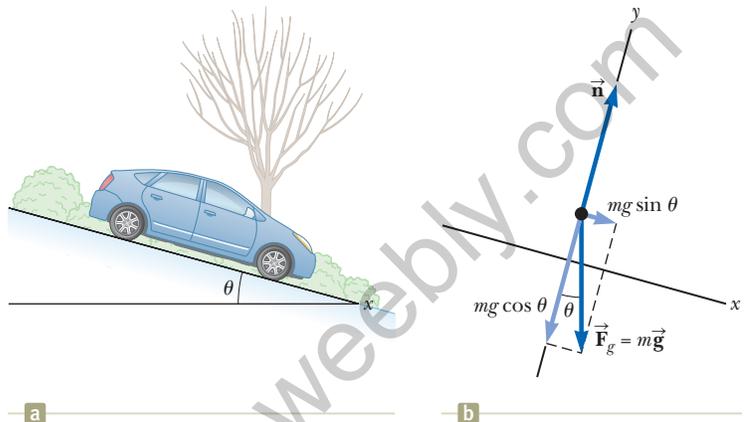


Figure 5.11 (Example 5.6) (a) A car on a frictionless incline. (b) The free-body diagram for the car. The black dot represents the position of the center of mass of the car. We will learn about center of mass in Chapter 9.

5.6 continued

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Imagine the car is sliding down the hill and you use a stopwatch to measure the entire time interval until it reaches the bottom.

Categorize This part of the problem belongs to kinematics rather than to dynamics, and Equation (3) shows that the acceleration a_x is constant. Therefore, you should categorize the car in this part of the problem as a particle under constant acceleration.

Analyze Defining the initial position of the front bumper as $x_i = 0$ and its final position as $x_f = d$, and recognizing that $v_{xi} = 0$, choose Equation 2.16 from the particle under constant acceleration model, $x_f = x_i + v_{xi}t + \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2$:

$$d = \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2$$

Solve for t :

$$(4) \quad t = \sqrt{\frac{2d}{a_x}} = \sqrt{\frac{2d}{g \sin \theta}}$$

Use Equation 2.17, with $v_{xi} = 0$, to find the final velocity of the car:

$$(5) \quad v_{xf}^2 = 2a_x d \quad v_{xf} = \sqrt{2a_x d} = \sqrt{2gd \sin \theta}$$

Finalize We see from Equations (4) and (5) that the time t at which the car reaches the bottom and its final speed v_{xf} are independent of the car's mass, as was its acceleration. Notice that we have combined techniques from Chapter 2 with new techniques from this chapter in this example. As we learn more techniques in later chapters, this process of combining analysis models and information from several parts of the book will occur more often. In these cases, use the General Problem-Solving Strategy to help you identify what analysis models you will need.

WHAT IF? What previously solved problem does this situation become if $\theta = 90^\circ$?

Answer Imagine θ going to 90° in Figure 5.11. The inclined plane becomes vertical, and the car is an object in free fall! Equation (3) becomes

$$a_x = g \sin \theta = g \sin 90^\circ = g$$

which is indeed the free-fall acceleration. (We find $a_x = g$ rather than $a_x = -g$ because we have chosen positive x to be downward in Fig. 5.11.) Notice also that the condition $n = mg \cos \theta$ gives us $n = mg \cos 90^\circ = 0$. That is consistent with the car falling downward *next to* the vertical plane, in which case there is no contact force between the car and the plane.

Example 5.7 One Block Pushes Another AM

Two blocks of masses m_1 and m_2 , with $m_1 > m_2$, are placed in contact with each other on a frictionless, horizontal surface as in Figure 5.12a. A constant horizontal force \vec{F} is applied to m_1 as shown.

(A) Find the magnitude of the acceleration of the system.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Conceptualize the situation by using Figure 5.12a and realize that both blocks must experience the *same* acceleration because they are in contact with each other and remain in contact throughout the motion.

Categorize We categorize this problem as one involving a *particle under a net force* because a force is applied to a system of blocks and we are looking for the acceleration of the system.

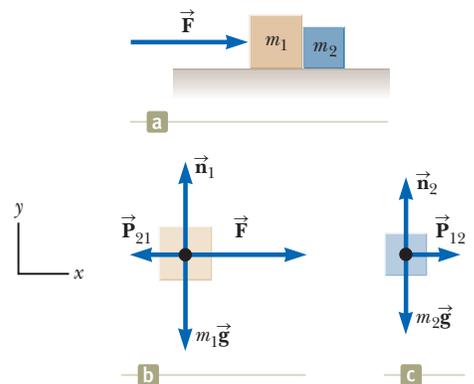


Figure 5.12 (Example 5.7) (a) A force is applied to a block of mass m_1 , which pushes on a second block of mass m_2 . (b) The forces acting on m_1 . (c) The forces acting on m_2 .

continued

5.7 continued

Analyze First model the combination of two blocks as a single particle under a net force. Apply Newton's second law to the combination in the x direction to find the acceleration:

$$\sum F_x = F = (m_1 + m_2)a_x$$

$$(1) \quad a_x = \frac{F}{m_1 + m_2}$$

Finalize The acceleration given by Equation (1) is the same as that of a single object of mass $m_1 + m_2$ and subject to the same force.

(B) Determine the magnitude of the contact force between the two blocks.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize The contact force is internal to the system of two blocks. Therefore, we cannot find this force by modeling the whole system (the two blocks) as a single particle.

Categorize Now consider each of the two blocks individually by categorizing each as a *particle under a net force*.

Analyze We construct a diagram of forces acting on the object for each block as shown in Figures 5.12b and 5.12c, where the contact force is denoted by \vec{P} . From Figure 5.12c, we see that the only horizontal force acting on m_2 is the contact force \vec{P}_{12} (the force exerted by m_1 on m_2), which is directed to the right.

Apply Newton's second law to m_2 :

$$(2) \quad \sum F_x = P_{12} = m_2 a_x$$

Substitute the value of the acceleration a_x given by Equation (1) into Equation (2):

$$(3) \quad P_{12} = m_2 a_x = \left(\frac{m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \right) F$$

Finalize This result shows that the contact force P_{12} is *less* than the applied force F . The force required to accelerate block 2 alone must be less than the force required to produce the same acceleration for the two-block system.

To finalize further, let us check this expression for P_{12} by considering the forces acting on m_1 , shown in Figure 5.12b. The horizontal forces acting on m_1 are the applied force \vec{F} to the right and the contact force \vec{P}_{21} to the left (the force exerted by m_2 on m_1). From Newton's third law, \vec{P}_{21} is the reaction force to \vec{P}_{12} , so $P_{21} = P_{12}$.

Apply Newton's second law to m_1 :

$$(4) \quad \sum F_x = F - P_{21} = F - P_{12} = m_1 a_x$$

Solve for P_{12} and substitute the value of a_x from Equation (1):

$$P_{12} = F - m_1 a_x = F - m_1 \left(\frac{F}{m_1 + m_2} \right) = \left(\frac{m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \right) F$$

This result agrees with Equation (3), as it must.

WHAT IF? Imagine that the force \vec{F} in Figure 5.12 is applied toward the left on the right-hand block of mass m_2 . Is the magnitude of the force \vec{P}_{12} the same as it was when the force was applied toward the right on m_1 ?

Answer When the force is applied toward the left on m_2 , the contact force must accelerate m_1 . In the original situation, the contact force accelerates m_2 . Because $m_1 > m_2$, more force is required, so the magnitude of \vec{P}_{12} is greater than in the original situation. To see this mathematically, modify Equation (4) appropriately and solve for \vec{P}_{12} .

Example 5.8 Weighing a Fish in an Elevator

AM

A person weighs a fish of mass m on a spring scale attached to the ceiling of an elevator as illustrated in Figure 5.13.

(A) Show that if the elevator accelerates either upward or downward, the spring scale gives a reading that is different from the weight of the fish.

5.8 continued

SOLUTION

Conceptualize The reading on the scale is related to the extension of the spring in the scale, which is related to the force on the end of the spring as in Figure 5.2. Imagine that the fish is hanging on a string attached to the end of the spring. In this case, the magnitude of the force exerted on the spring is equal to the tension T in the string. Therefore, we are looking for T . The force \vec{T} pulls down on the string and pulls up on the fish.

Categorize We can categorize this problem by identifying the fish as a *particle in equilibrium* if the elevator is not accelerating or as a *particle under a net force* if the elevator is accelerating.

Analyze Inspect the diagrams of the forces acting on the fish in Figure 5.13 and notice that the external forces acting on the fish are the downward gravitational force $\vec{F}_g = m\vec{g}$ and the force \vec{T} exerted by the string. If the elevator is either at rest or moving at constant velocity, the fish is a particle in equilibrium, so $\sum F_y = T - F_g = 0$ or $T = F_g = mg$. (Remember that the scalar mg is the weight of the fish.)

Now suppose the elevator is moving with an acceleration \vec{a} relative to an observer standing outside the elevator in an inertial frame. The fish is now a particle under a net force.

Apply Newton's second law to the fish:

$$\sum F_y = T - mg = ma_y$$

Solve for T :

$$(1) \quad T = ma_y + mg = mg \left(\frac{a_y}{g} + 1 \right) = F_g \left(\frac{a_y}{g} + 1 \right)$$

where we have chosen upward as the positive y direction. We conclude from Equation (1) that the scale reading T is greater than the fish's weight mg if \vec{a} is upward, so a_y is positive (Fig. 5.13a), and that the reading is less than mg if \vec{a} is downward, so a_y is negative (Fig. 5.13b).

(B) Evaluate the scale readings for a 40.0-N fish if the elevator moves with an acceleration $a_y = \pm 2.00 \text{ m/s}^2$.

SOLUTION

Evaluate the scale reading from Equation (1) if \vec{a} is upward: $T = (40.0 \text{ N}) \left(\frac{2.00 \text{ m/s}^2}{9.80 \text{ m/s}^2} + 1 \right) = 48.2 \text{ N}$

Evaluate the scale reading from Equation (1) if \vec{a} is downward: $T = (40.0 \text{ N}) \left(\frac{-2.00 \text{ m/s}^2}{9.80 \text{ m/s}^2} + 1 \right) = 31.8 \text{ N}$

Finalize Take this advice: if you buy a fish in an elevator, make sure the fish is weighed while the elevator is either at rest or accelerating downward! Furthermore, notice that from the information given here, one cannot determine the direction of the velocity of the elevator.

WHAT IF? Suppose the elevator cable breaks and the elevator and its contents are in free fall. What happens to the reading on the scale?

Answer If the elevator falls freely, the fish's acceleration is $a_y = -g$. We see from Equation (1) that the scale reading T is zero in this case; that is, the fish *appears* to be weightless.

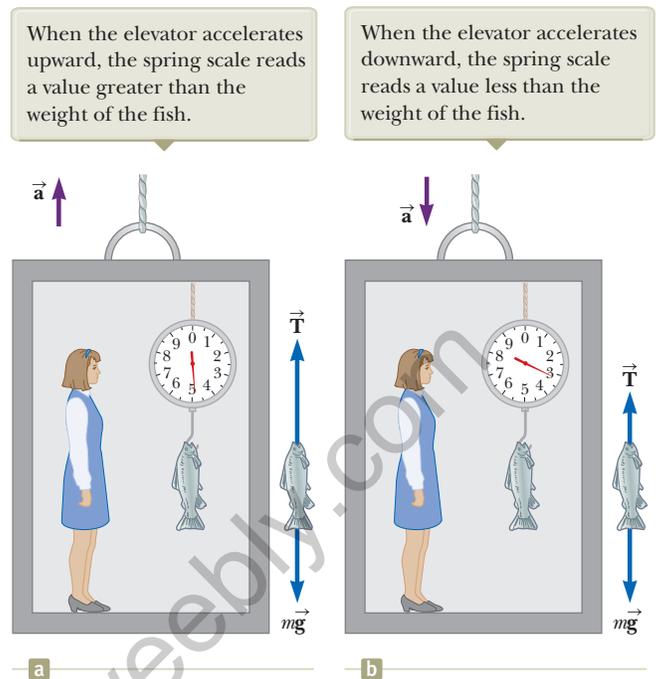


Figure 5.13 (Example 5.8) A fish is weighed on a spring scale in an accelerating elevator car.

Example 5.9

The Atwood Machine **AM**

When two objects of unequal mass are hung vertically over a frictionless pulley of negligible mass as in Figure 5.14a, the arrangement is called an *Atwood machine*. The device is sometimes used in the laboratory to determine the value of g . Determine the magnitude of the acceleration of the two objects and the tension in the lightweight string.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Imagine the situation pictured in Figure 5.14a in action: as one object moves upward, the other object moves downward. Because the objects are connected by an inextensible string, their accelerations must be of equal magnitude.

Categorize The objects in the Atwood machine are subject to the gravitational force as well as to the forces exerted by the strings connected to them. Therefore, we can categorize this problem as one involving two *particles under a net force*.

Analyze The free-body diagrams for the two objects are shown in Figure 5.14b. Two forces act on each object: the upward force \vec{T} exerted by the string and the downward gravitational force. In problems such as this one in which the pulley is modeled as massless and frictionless, the tension in the string on both sides of the pulley is the same. If the pulley has mass or is subject to friction, the tensions on either side are not the same and the situation requires techniques we will learn in Chapter 10.

We must be very careful with signs in problems such as this one. In Figure 5.14a, notice that if object 1 accelerates upward, object 2 accelerates downward. Therefore, for consistency with signs, if we define the upward direction as positive for object 1, we must define the downward direction as positive for object 2. With this sign convention, both objects accelerate in the same direction as defined by the choice of sign. Furthermore, according to this sign convention, the y component of the net force exerted on object 1 is $T - m_1g$, and the y component of the net force exerted on object 2 is $m_2g - T$.

From the particle under a net force model, apply Newton's second law to object 1:

$$(1) \quad \sum F_y = T - m_1g = m_1a_y$$

Apply Newton's second law to object 2:

$$(2) \quad \sum F_y = m_2g - T = m_2a_y$$

Add Equation (2) to Equation (1), noticing that T cancels:

$$-m_1g + m_2g = m_1a_y + m_2a_y$$

Solve for the acceleration:

$$(3) \quad a_y = \left(\frac{m_2 - m_1}{m_1 + m_2} \right) g$$

Substitute Equation (3) into Equation (1) to find T :

$$(4) \quad T = m_1(g + a_y) = \left(\frac{2m_1m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \right) g$$

Finalize The acceleration given by Equation (3) can be interpreted as the ratio of the magnitude of the unbalanced force on the system $(m_2 - m_1)g$ to the total mass of the system $(m_1 + m_2)$, as expected from Newton's second law. Notice that the sign of the acceleration depends on the relative masses of the two objects.

WHAT IF? Describe the motion of the system if the objects have equal masses, that is, $m_1 = m_2$.

Answer If we have the same mass on both sides, the system is balanced and should not accelerate. Mathematically, we see that if $m_1 = m_2$, Equation (3) gives us $a_y = 0$.

WHAT IF? What if one of the masses is much larger than the other: $m_1 \gg m_2$?

Answer In the case in which one mass is infinitely larger than the other, we can ignore the effect of the smaller mass. Therefore, the larger mass should simply fall as if the smaller mass were not there. We see that if $m_1 \gg m_2$, Equation (3) gives us $a_y = -g$.

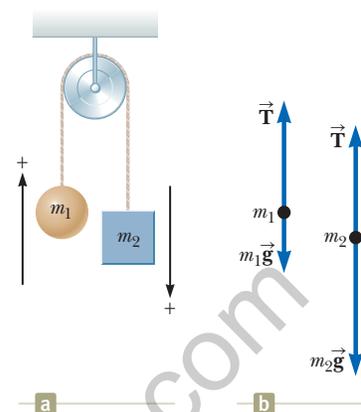


Figure 5.14 (Example 5.9) The Atwood machine. (a) Two objects connected by a massless inextensible string over a frictionless pulley. (b) The free-body diagrams for the two objects.

Example 5.10 Acceleration of Two Objects Connected by a Cord AM

A ball of mass m_1 and a block of mass m_2 are attached by a lightweight cord that passes over a frictionless pulley of negligible mass as in Figure 5.15a. The block lies on a frictionless incline of angle θ . Find the magnitude of the acceleration of the two objects and the tension in the cord.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Imagine the objects in Figure 5.15 in motion. If m_2 moves down the incline, then m_1 moves upward. Because the objects are connected by a cord (which we assume does not stretch), their accelerations have the same magnitude. Notice the normal coordinate axes in Figure 5.15b for the ball and the “tilted” axes for the block in Figure 5.15c.

Categorize We can identify forces on each of the two objects and we are looking for an acceleration, so we categorize the objects as *particles under a net force*. For the block, this model is only valid for the x' direction. In the y' direction, we apply the *particle in equilibrium* model because the block does not accelerate in that direction.

Analyze Consider the free-body diagrams shown in Figures 5.15b and 5.15c.

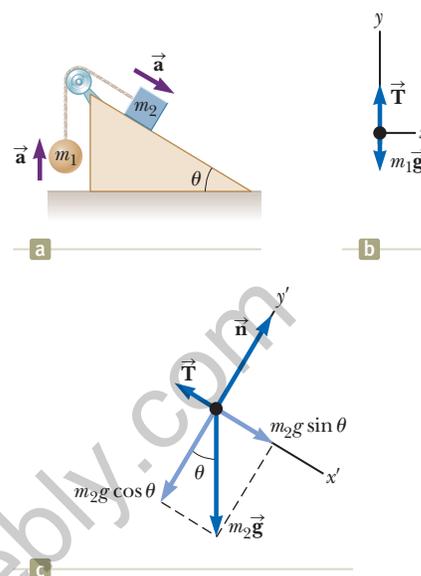


Figure 5.15 (Example 5.10) (a) Two objects connected by a lightweight cord strung over a frictionless pulley. (b) The free-body diagram for the ball. (c) The free-body diagram for the block. (The incline is frictionless.)

Apply Newton's second law in the y direction to the ball, choosing the upward direction as positive:

$$(1) \quad \sum F_y = T - m_1g = m_1a_y = m_1a$$

For the ball to accelerate upward, it is necessary that $T > m_1g$. In Equation (1), we replaced a_y with a because the acceleration has only a y component.

For the block, we have chosen the x' axis along the incline as in Figure 5.15c. For consistency with our choice for the ball, we choose the positive x' direction to be down the incline.

Apply the particle under a net force model to the block in the x' direction and the particle in equilibrium model in the y' direction:

$$(2) \quad \sum F_{x'} = m_2g \sin \theta - T = m_2a_{x'} = m_2a$$

$$(3) \quad \sum F_{y'} = n - m_2g \cos \theta = 0$$

In Equation (2), we replaced $a_{x'}$ with a because the two objects have accelerations of equal magnitude a .

Solve Equation (1) for T :

$$(4) \quad T = m_1(g + a)$$

Substitute this expression for T into Equation (2):

$$m_2g \sin \theta - m_1(g + a) = m_2a$$

Solve for a :

$$(5) \quad a = \left(\frac{m_2 \sin \theta - m_1}{m_1 + m_2} \right) g$$

Substitute this expression for a into Equation (4) to find T :

$$(6) \quad T = \left(\frac{m_1 m_2 (\sin \theta + 1)}{m_1 + m_2} \right) g$$

Finalize The block accelerates down the incline only if $m_2 \sin \theta > m_1$. If $m_1 > m_2 \sin \theta$, the acceleration is up the incline for the block and downward for the ball. Also notice that the result for the acceleration, Equation (5), can be interpreted as the magnitude of the net external force acting on the ball–block system divided by the total mass of the system; this result is consistent with Newton's second law.

WHAT IF? What happens in this situation if $\theta = 90^\circ$?

continued

5.10 continued

Answer If $\theta = 90^\circ$, the inclined plane becomes vertical and there is no interaction between its surface and m_2 . Therefore, this problem becomes the Atwood machine of Example 5.9. Letting $\theta \rightarrow 90^\circ$ in Equations (5) and (6) causes them to reduce to Equations (3) and (4) of Example 5.9!

WHAT IF? What if $m_1 = 0$?

Answer If $m_1 = 0$, then m_2 is simply sliding down an inclined plane without interacting with m_1 through the string. Therefore, this problem becomes the sliding car problem in Example 5.6. Letting $m_1 \rightarrow 0$ in Equation (5) causes it to reduce to Equation (3) of Example 5.6!

5.8 Forces of Friction

When an object is in motion either on a surface or in a viscous medium such as air or water, there is resistance to the motion because the object interacts with its surroundings. We call such resistance a **force of friction**. Forces of friction are very important in our everyday lives. They allow us to walk or run and are necessary for the motion of wheeled vehicles.

Imagine that you are working in your garden and have filled a trash can with yard clippings. You then try to drag the trash can across the surface of your concrete patio as in Figure 5.16a. This surface is *real*, not an idealized, frictionless surface. If we apply an external horizontal force \vec{F} to the trash can, acting to the right, the trash can remains stationary when \vec{F} is small. The force on the trash can that counteracts \vec{F} and keeps it from moving acts toward the left and is called the

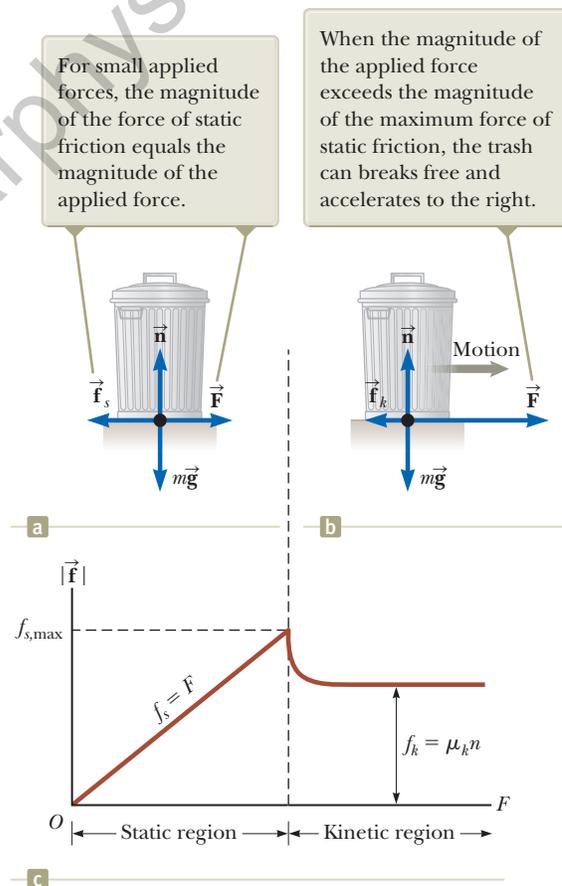


Figure 5.16 (a) and (b) When pulling on a trash can, the direction of the force of friction \vec{f} between the can and a rough surface is opposite the direction of the applied force \vec{F} . (c) A graph of friction force versus applied force. Notice that $f_{s,\max} > f_k$.

force of static friction \vec{f}_s . As long as the trash can is not moving, $f_s = F$. Therefore, if \vec{F} is increased, \vec{f}_s also increases. Likewise, if \vec{F} decreases, \vec{f}_s also decreases.

Experiments show that the friction force arises from the nature of the two surfaces: because of their roughness, contact is made only at a few locations where peaks of the material touch. At these locations, the friction force arises in part because one peak physically blocks the motion of a peak from the opposing surface and in part from chemical bonding (“spot welds”) of opposing peaks as they come into contact. Although the details of friction are quite complex at the atomic level, this force ultimately involves an electrical interaction between atoms or molecules.

If we increase the magnitude of \vec{F} as in Figure 5.16b, the trash can eventually slips. When the trash can is on the verge of slipping, f_s has its maximum value $f_{s,\max}$ as shown in Figure 5.16c. When F exceeds $f_{s,\max}$, the trash can moves and accelerates to the right. We call the friction force for an object in motion the **force of kinetic friction** \vec{f}_k . When the trash can is in motion, the force of kinetic friction on the can is less than $f_{s,\max}$ (Fig. 5.16c). The net force $F - f_k$ in the x direction produces an acceleration to the right, according to Newton’s second law. If $F = f_k$, the acceleration is zero and the trash can moves to the right with constant speed. If the applied force \vec{F} is removed from the moving can, the friction force \vec{f}_k acting to the left provides an acceleration of the trash can in the $-x$ direction and eventually brings it to rest, again consistent with Newton’s second law.

Experimentally, we find that, to a good approximation, both $f_{s,\max}$ and f_k are proportional to the magnitude of the normal force exerted on an object by the surface. The following descriptions of the force of friction are based on experimental observations and serve as the simplification model we shall use for forces of friction in problem solving:

- The magnitude of the force of static friction between any two surfaces in contact can have the values

$$f_s \leq \mu_s n \quad (5.9)$$

where the dimensionless constant μ_s is called the **coefficient of static friction** and n is the magnitude of the normal force exerted by one surface on the other. The equality in Equation 5.9 holds when the surfaces are on the verge of slipping, that is, when $f_s = f_{s,\max} = \mu_s n$. This situation is called *impending motion*. The inequality holds when the surfaces are not on the verge of slipping.

- The magnitude of the force of kinetic friction acting between two surfaces is

$$f_k = \mu_k n \quad (5.10)$$

where μ_k is the **coefficient of kinetic friction**. Although the coefficient of kinetic friction can vary with speed, we shall usually neglect any such variations in this text.

- The values of μ_k and μ_s depend on the nature of the surfaces, but μ_k is generally less than μ_s . Typical values range from around 0.03 to 1.0. Table 5.1 (page 132) lists some reported values.
- The direction of the friction force on an object is parallel to the surface with which the object is in contact and opposite to the actual motion (kinetic friction) or the impending motion (static friction) of the object relative to the surface.
- The coefficients of friction are nearly independent of the area of contact between the surfaces. We might expect that placing an object on the side having the most area might increase the friction force. Although this method provides more points in contact, the weight of the object is spread out over a larger area and the individual points are not pressed together as tightly. Because these effects approximately compensate for each other, the friction force is independent of the area.

◀ Force of static friction

◀ Force of kinetic friction

Pitfall Prevention 5.9

The Equal Sign Is Used in Limited Situations In Equation 5.9, the equal sign is used *only* in the case in which the surfaces are just about to break free and begin sliding. Do not fall into the common trap of using $f_s = \mu_s n$ in *any* static situation.

Pitfall Prevention 5.10

Friction Equations Equations 5.9 and 5.10 are *not* vector equations. They are relationships between the *magnitudes* of the vectors representing the friction and normal forces. Because the friction and normal forces are perpendicular to each other, the vectors cannot be related by a multiplicative constant.

Pitfall Prevention 5.11

The Direction of the Friction Force Sometimes, an incorrect statement about the friction force between an object and a surface is made—“the friction force on an object is opposite to its motion or impending motion”—rather than the correct phrasing, “the friction force on an object is opposite to its motion or impending motion *relative to the surface*.”

Table 5.1 Coefficients of Friction

| | μ_s | μ_k |
|-----------------------------|----------|---------|
| Rubber on concrete | 1.0 | 0.8 |
| Steel on steel | 0.74 | 0.57 |
| Aluminum on steel | 0.61 | 0.47 |
| Glass on glass | 0.94 | 0.4 |
| Copper on steel | 0.53 | 0.36 |
| Wood on wood | 0.25–0.5 | 0.2 |
| Waxed wood on wet snow | 0.14 | 0.1 |
| Waxed wood on dry snow | — | 0.04 |
| Metal on metal (lubricated) | 0.15 | 0.06 |
| Teflon on Teflon | 0.04 | 0.04 |
| Ice on ice | 0.1 | 0.03 |
| Synovial joints in humans | 0.01 | 0.003 |

Note: All values are approximate. In some cases, the coefficient of friction can exceed 1.0.

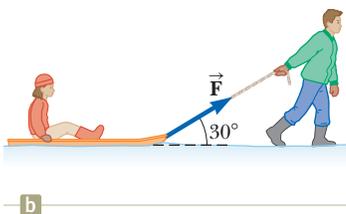


Figure 5.17 (Quick Quiz 5.7) A father slides his daughter on a sled either by (a) pushing down on her shoulders or (b) pulling up on a rope.

Quick Quiz 5.6 You press your physics textbook flat against a vertical wall with your hand. What is the direction of the friction force exerted by the wall on the book? (a) downward (b) upward (c) out from the wall (d) into the wall

Quick Quiz 5.7 You are playing with your daughter in the snow. She sits on a sled and asks you to slide her across a flat, horizontal field. You have a choice of (a) pushing her from behind by applying a force downward on her shoulders at 30° below the horizontal (Fig. 5.17a) or (b) attaching a rope to the front of the sled and pulling with a force at 30° above the horizontal (Fig. 5.17b). Which would be easier for you and why?

Example 5.11**Experimental Determination of μ_s and μ_k** **AM**

The following is a simple method of measuring coefficients of friction. Suppose a block is placed on a rough surface inclined relative to the horizontal as shown in Figure 5.18. The incline angle is increased until the block starts to move. Show that you can obtain μ_s by measuring the critical angle θ_c at which this slipping just occurs.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Consider Figure 5.18 and imagine that the block tends to slide down the incline due to the gravitational force. To simulate the situation, place a coin on this book's cover and tilt the book until the coin begins to slide. Notice how this example differs from Example 5.6. When there is no friction on an incline, *any* angle of the incline will cause a stationary object to begin moving. When there is friction, however, there is no movement of the object for angles less than the critical angle.

Categorize The block is subject to various forces. Because we are raising the plane to the angle at which the block is just ready to begin to move but is not moving, we categorize the block as a *particle in equilibrium*.

Analyze The diagram in Figure 5.18 shows the forces on the block: the gravitational force $m\vec{g}$, the normal force \vec{n} , and the force of static friction \vec{f}_s . We choose x to be parallel to the plane and y perpendicular to it.

From the particle in equilibrium model, apply Equation 5.8 to the block in both the x and y directions:

$$(1) \quad \sum F_x = mg \sin \theta - f_s = 0$$

$$(2) \quad \sum F_y = n - mg \cos \theta = 0$$

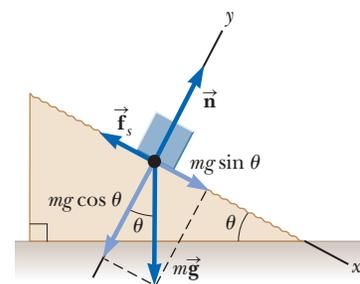


Figure 5.18 (Example 5.11) The external forces exerted on a block lying on a rough incline are the gravitational force $m\vec{g}$, the normal force \vec{n} , and the force of friction \vec{f}_s . For convenience, the gravitational force is resolved into a component $mg \sin \theta$ along the incline and a component $mg \cos \theta$ perpendicular to the incline.

► 5.11 continued

Substitute $mg = n/\cos \theta$ from Equation (2) into Equation (1):

$$(3) \quad f_s = mg \sin \theta = \left(\frac{n}{\cos \theta} \right) \sin \theta = n \tan \theta$$

When the incline angle is increased until the block is on the verge of slipping, the force of static friction has reached its maximum value $\mu_s n$. The angle θ in this situation is the critical angle θ_c . Make these substitutions in Equation (3):

$$\mu_s n = n \tan \theta_c$$

$$\mu_s = \tan \theta_c$$

We have shown, as requested, that the coefficient of static friction is related only to the critical angle. For example, if the block just slips at $\theta_c = 20.0^\circ$, we find that $\mu_s = \tan 20.0^\circ = 0.364$.

Finalize Once the block starts to move at $\theta \geq \theta_c$, it accelerates down the incline and the force of friction is $f_k = \mu_k n$. If θ is reduced to a value less than θ_c , however, it may be possible to find an angle θ'_c such that the block moves down the incline with constant speed as a particle in equilibrium again ($a_x = 0$). In this case, use Equations (1) and (2) with f_s replaced by f_k to find μ_k : $\mu_k = \tan \theta'_c$, where $\theta'_c < \theta_c$.

Example 5.12 The Sliding Hockey Puck AM

A hockey puck on a frozen pond is given an initial speed of 20.0 m/s. If the puck always remains on the ice and slides 115 m before coming to rest, determine the coefficient of kinetic friction between the puck and ice.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Imagine that the puck in Figure 5.19 slides to the right. The kinetic friction force acts to the left and slows the puck, which eventually comes to rest due to that force.

Categorize The forces acting on the puck are identified in Figure 5.19, but the text of the problem provides kinematic variables. Therefore, we categorize the problem in several ways. First, it involves modeling the puck as a *particle under a net force* in the horizontal direction: kinetic friction causes the puck to accelerate. There is no acceleration of the puck in the vertical direction, so we use the *particle in equilibrium* model for that direction. Furthermore, because we model the force of kinetic friction as independent of speed, the acceleration of the puck is constant. So, we can also categorize this problem by modeling the puck as a *particle under constant acceleration*.

Analyze First, let's find the acceleration algebraically in terms of the coefficient of kinetic friction, using Newton's second law. Once we know the acceleration of the puck and the distance it travels, the equations of kinematics can be used to find the numerical value of the coefficient of kinetic friction. The diagram in Figure 5.19 shows the forces on the puck.

Apply the particle under a net force model in the x direction to the puck:

$$(1) \quad \sum F_x = -f_k = ma_x$$

Apply the particle in equilibrium model in the y direction to the puck:

$$(2) \quad \sum F_y = n - mg = 0$$

Substitute $n = mg$ from Equation (2) and $f_k = \mu_k n$ into Equation (1):

$$\begin{aligned} -\mu_k n &= -\mu_k mg = ma_x \\ a_x &= -\mu_k g \end{aligned}$$

The negative sign means the acceleration is to the left in Figure 5.19. Because the velocity of the puck is to the right, the puck is slowing down. The acceleration is independent of the mass of the puck and is constant because we assume μ_k remains constant.

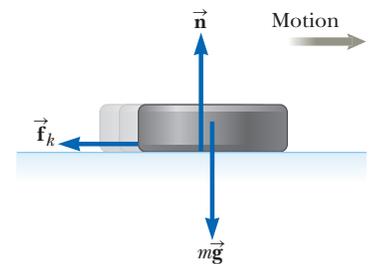


Figure 5.19 (Example 5.12) After the puck is given an initial velocity to the right, the only external forces acting on it are the gravitational force $m\vec{g}$, the normal force \vec{n} , and the force of kinetic friction \vec{f}_k .

continued

5.12 continued

Apply the particle under constant acceleration model to the puck, choosing Equation 2.17 from the model, $v_{xf}^2 = v_{xi}^2 + 2a_x(x_f - x_i)$, with $x_i = 0$ and $v_{xf} = 0$:

Solve for the coefficient of kinetic friction:

Substitute the numerical values:

$$0 = v_{xi}^2 + 2a_x x_f = v_{xi}^2 - 2\mu_k g x_f$$

$$\mu_k = \frac{v_{xi}^2}{2g x_f}$$

$$\mu_k = \frac{(20.0 \text{ m/s})^2}{2(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(115 \text{ m})} = 0.177$$

Finalize Notice that μ_k is dimensionless, as it should be, and that it has a low value, consistent with an object sliding on ice.

Example 5.13 Acceleration of Two Connected Objects When Friction Is Present

AM

A block of mass m_2 on a rough, horizontal surface is connected to a ball of mass m_1 by a lightweight cord over a lightweight, frictionless pulley as shown in Figure 5.20a. A force of magnitude F at an angle θ with the horizontal is applied to the block as shown, and the block slides to the right. The coefficient of kinetic friction between the block and surface is μ_k . Determine the magnitude of the acceleration of the two objects.

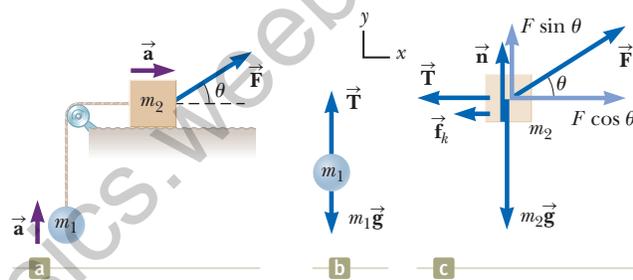


Figure 5.20 (Example 5.13) (a) The external force \vec{F} applied as shown can cause the block to accelerate to the right. (b, c) Diagrams showing the forces on the two objects, assuming the block accelerates to the right and the ball accelerates upward.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Imagine what happens as \vec{F} is applied to the block. Assuming \vec{F} is large enough to break the block free from static friction but not large enough to lift the block, the block slides to the right and the ball rises.

Categorize We can identify forces and we want an acceleration, so we categorize this problem as one involving two *particles under a net force*, the ball and the block. Because we assume that the block does not rise into the air due to the applied force, we model the block as a *particle in equilibrium* in the vertical direction.

Analyze First draw force diagrams for the two objects as shown in Figures 5.20b and 5.20c. Notice that the string exerts a force of magnitude T on both objects. The applied force \vec{F} has x and y components $F \cos \theta$ and $F \sin \theta$, respectively. Because the two objects are connected, we can equate the magnitudes of the x component of the acceleration of the block and the y component of the acceleration of the ball and call them both a . Let us assume the motion of the block is to the right.

Apply the particle under a net force model to the block in the horizontal direction:

$$(1) \quad \sum F_x = F \cos \theta - f_k - T = m_2 a_x = m_2 a$$

Because the block moves only horizontally, apply the particle in equilibrium model to the block in the vertical direction:

$$(2) \quad \sum F_y = n + F \sin \theta - m_2 g = 0$$

Apply the particle under a net force model to the ball in the vertical direction:

$$(3) \quad \sum F_y = T - m_1 g = m_1 a_y = m_1 a$$

Solve Equation (2) for n :

$$n = m_2 g - F \sin \theta$$

Substitute n into $f_k = \mu_k n$ from Equation 5.10:

$$(4) \quad f_k = \mu_k (m_2 g - F \sin \theta)$$

► 5.13 continued

Substitute Equation (4) and the value of T from Equation (3) into Equation (1):

$$F \cos \theta - \mu_k(m_2g - F \sin \theta) - m_1(a + g) = m_2a$$

Solve for a :

$$(5) \quad a = \frac{F(\cos \theta + \mu_k \sin \theta) - (m_1 + \mu_k m_2)g}{m_1 + m_2}$$

Finalize The acceleration of the block can be either to the right or to the left depending on the sign of the numerator in Equation (5). If the velocity is to the left, we must reverse the sign of f_k in Equation (1) because the force of kinetic friction must oppose the motion of the block relative to the surface. In this case, the value of a is the same as in Equation (5), with the two plus signs in the numerator changed to minus signs.

What does Equation (5) reduce to if the force \vec{F} is removed and the surface becomes frictionless? Call this expression Equation (6). Does this algebraic expression match your intuition about the physical situation in this case? Now go back to Example 5.10 and let angle θ go to zero in Equation (5) of that example. How does the resulting equation compare with your Equation (6) here in Example 5.13? Should the algebraic expressions compare in this way based on the physical situations?

Summary

Definitions

■ An **inertial frame of reference** is a frame in which an object that does not interact with other objects experiences zero acceleration. Any frame moving with constant velocity relative to an inertial frame is also an inertial frame.

■ We define **force** as **that which causes a change in motion of an object**.

Concepts and Principles

■ **Newton's first law** states that it is possible to find an inertial frame in which an object that does not interact with other objects experiences zero acceleration, or, equivalently, in the absence of an external force, when viewed from an inertial frame, an object at rest remains at rest and an object in uniform motion in a straight line maintains that motion.

Newton's second law states that the acceleration of an object is directly proportional to the net force acting on it and inversely proportional to its mass.

Newton's third law states that if two objects interact, the force exerted by object 1 on object 2 is equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to the force exerted by object 2 on object 1.

■ The **gravitational force** exerted on an object is equal to the product of its mass (a scalar quantity) and the free-fall acceleration:

$$\vec{F}_g = m\vec{g} \quad (5.5)$$

The **weight** of an object is the magnitude of the gravitational force acting on the object:

$$F_g = mg \quad (5.6)$$

■ The maximum **force of static friction** $\vec{f}_{s,\max}$ between an object and a surface is proportional to the normal force acting on the object. In general, $f_s \leq \mu_s n$, where μ_s is the **coefficient of static friction** and n is the magnitude of the normal force.

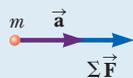
■ When an object slides over a surface, the magnitude of the **force of kinetic friction** \vec{f}_k is given by $f_k = \mu_k n$, where μ_k is the **coefficient of kinetic friction**.

continued

Analysis Models for Problem Solving

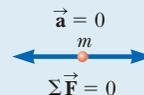
Particle Under a Net Force If a particle of mass m experiences a nonzero net force, its acceleration is related to the net force by Newton's second law:

$$\sum \vec{F} = m\vec{a} \quad (5.2)$$



Particle in Equilibrium If a particle maintains a constant velocity (so that $\vec{a} = 0$), which could include a velocity of zero, the forces on the particle balance and Newton's second law reduces to

$$\sum \vec{F} = 0 \quad (5.8)$$



Objective Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

- The driver of a speeding empty truck slams on the brakes and skids to a stop through a distance d . On a second trial, the truck carries a load that doubles its mass. What will now be the truck's "skidding distance"? (a) $4d$ (b) $2d$ (c) $\sqrt{2}d$ (d) d (e) $d/2$
- In Figure OQ5.2, a locomotive has broken through the wall of a train station. During the collision, what can be said about the force exerted by the locomotive on the wall? (a) The force exerted by the locomotive on the wall was larger than the force the wall could exert on the locomotive. (b) The force exerted by the locomotive on the wall was the same in magnitude as the force exerted by the wall on the locomotive. (c) The force exerted by the locomotive on the wall was less than the force exerted by the wall on the locomotive. (d) The wall cannot be said to "exert" a force; after all, it broke. (e) $d/2$



Figure OQ5.2

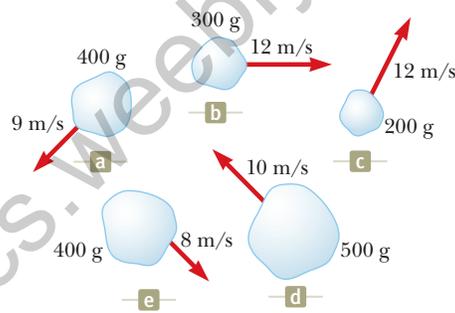


Figure OQ5.3

- The third graders are on one side of a schoolyard, and the fourth graders are on the other. They are throwing snowballs at each other. Between them, snowballs of various masses are moving with different velocities as shown in Figure OQ5.3. Rank the snowballs (a) through (e) according to the magnitude of the total force exerted on each one. Ignore air resistance. If two snowballs rank together, make that fact clear.
- The driver of a speeding truck slams on the brakes and skids to a stop through a distance d . On another trial, the initial speed of the truck is half as large. What now will be the truck's skidding distance? (a) $2d$ (b) $\sqrt{2}d$ (c) d (d) $d/2$ (e) $d/4$
- An experiment is performed on a puck on a level air hockey table, where friction is negligible. A constant horizontal force is applied to the puck, and the puck's acceleration is measured. Now the same puck is transported far into outer space, where both friction and gravity are negligible. The same constant force is applied to the puck (through a spring scale that stretches the same amount), and the puck's acceleration (relative to the distant stars) is measured. What is the puck's acceleration in outer space? (a) It is somewhat greater than its acceleration on the Earth. (b) It is the same as its acceleration on the Earth. (c) It is less than its acceleration on the Earth. (d) It is infinite because neither friction nor gravity constrains it. (e) It is very large because acceleration is inversely proportional to weight and the puck's weight is very small but not zero.
- The manager of a department store is pushing horizontally with a force of magnitude 200 N on a box of shirts. The box is sliding across the horizontal floor with a forward acceleration. Nothing else touches the box. What must be true about the magnitude of the force of kinetic friction acting on the box (choose one)? (a) It is greater than 200 N. (b) It is less than 200 N. (c) It is equal to 200 N. (d) None of those statements is necessarily true.

7. Two objects are connected by a string that passes over a frictionless pulley as in Figure 5.14a, where $m_1 < m_2$ and a_1 and a_2 are the magnitudes of the respective accelerations. Which mathematical statement is true regarding the magnitude of the acceleration a_2 of the mass m_2 ? (a) $a_2 < g$ (b) $a_2 > g$ (c) $a_2 = g$ (d) $a_2 < a_1$ (e) $a_2 > a_1$
8. An object of mass m is sliding with speed v_i at some instant across a level tabletop, with which its coefficient of kinetic friction is μ . It then moves through a distance d and comes to rest. Which of the following equations for the speed v_i is reasonable? (a) $v_i = \sqrt{-2\mu mgd}$ (b) $v_i = \sqrt{2\mu mgd}$ (c) $v_i = \sqrt{-2\mu gd}$ (d) $v_i = \sqrt{2\mu gd}$ (e) $v_i = \sqrt{2\mu d}$
9. A truck loaded with sand accelerates along a highway. The driving force on the truck remains constant. What happens to the acceleration of the truck if its trailer leaks sand at a constant rate through a hole in its bottom? (a) It decreases at a steady rate. (b) It increases at a steady rate. (c) It increases and then decreases. (d) It decreases and then increases. (e) It remains constant.
10. A large crate of mass m is placed on the flatbed of a truck but not tied down. As the truck accelerates forward with acceleration a , the crate remains at rest relative to the truck. What force causes the crate to accelerate? (a) the normal force (b) the gravitational force (c) the friction force (d) the ma force exerted by the crate (e) No force is required.
11. If an object is in equilibrium, which of the following statements is *not* true? (a) The speed of the object remains constant. (b) The acceleration of the object is zero. (c) The net force acting on the object is zero. (d) The object must be at rest. (e) There are at least two forces acting on the object.
12. A crate remains stationary after it has been placed on a ramp inclined at an angle with the horizontal. Which of the following statements is or are correct about the magnitude of the friction force that acts on the crate? Choose all that are true. (a) It is larger than the weight of the crate. (b) It is equal to μn . (c) It is greater than the component of the gravitational force acting down the ramp. (d) It is equal to the component of the gravitational force acting down the ramp. (e) It is less than the component of the gravitational force acting down the ramp.
13. An object of mass m moves with acceleration \vec{a} down a rough incline. Which of the following forces should appear in a free-body diagram of the object? Choose all correct answers. (a) the gravitational force exerted by the planet (b) $m\vec{a}$ in the direction of motion (c) the normal force exerted by the incline (d) the friction force exerted by the incline (e) the force exerted by the object on the incline

Conceptual Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

1. If you hold a horizontal metal bar several centimeters above the ground and move it through grass, each leaf of grass bends out of the way. If you increase the speed of the bar, each leaf of grass will bend more quickly. How then does a rotary power lawn mower manage to cut grass? How can it exert enough force on a leaf of grass to shear it off?
2. Your hands are wet, and the restroom towel dispenser is empty. What do you do to get drops of water off your hands? How does the motion of the drops exemplify one of Newton's laws? Which one?
3. In the motion picture *It Happened One Night* (Columbia Pictures, 1934), Clark Gable is standing inside a stationary bus in front of Claudette Colbert, who is seated. The bus suddenly starts moving forward and Clark falls into Claudette's lap. Why did this happen?
4. If a car is traveling due westward with a constant speed of 20 m/s, what is the resultant force acting on it?
5. A passenger sitting in the rear of a bus claims that she was injured when the driver slammed on the brakes, causing a suitcase to come flying toward her from the front of the bus. If you were the judge in this case, what disposition would you make? Why?
6. A child tosses a ball straight up. She says that the ball is moving away from her hand because the ball feels an upward "force of the throw" as well as the gravitational force. (a) Can the "force of the throw" exceed the gravitational force? How would the ball move if it did? (b) Can the "force of the throw" be equal in magnitude to the gravitational force? Explain. (c) What strength can accurately be attributed to the "force of the throw"? Explain. (d) Why does the ball move away from the child's hand?
7. A person holds a ball in her hand. (a) Identify all the external forces acting on the ball and the Newton's third-law reaction force to each one. (b) If the ball is dropped, what force is exerted on it while it is falling? Identify the reaction force in this case. (Ignore air resistance.)
8. A spherical rubber balloon inflated with air is held stationary, with its opening, on the west side, pinched shut. (a) Describe the forces exerted by the air inside and outside the balloon on sections of the rubber. (b) After the balloon is released, it takes off toward the east, gaining speed rapidly. Explain this motion in terms of the forces now acting on the rubber. (c) Account for the motion of a skyrocket taking off from its launch pad.
9. A rubber ball is dropped onto the floor. What force causes the ball to bounce?
10. Twenty people participate in a tug-of-war. The two teams of ten people are so evenly matched that neither team wins. After the game they notice that a car is stuck in the mud. They attach the tug-of-war rope to the bumper of the car, and all the people pull on the

rope. The heavy car has just moved a couple of decimeters when the rope breaks. Why did the rope break in this situation when it did not break when the same twenty people pulled on it in a tug-of-war?

11. Can an object exert a force on itself? Argue for your answer.
12. When you push on a box with a 200-N force instead of a 50-N force, you can feel that you are making a greater effort. When a table exerts a 200-N normal force instead of one of smaller magnitude, is the table really doing anything differently?
13. A weightlifter stands on a bathroom scale. He pumps a barbell up and down. What happens to the reading on the scale as he does so? **What If?** What if he is strong enough to actually *throw* the barbell upward? How does the reading on the scale vary now?
14. An athlete grips a light rope that passes over a low-friction pulley attached to the ceiling of a gym. A sack of sand precisely equal in weight to the athlete is tied to the other end of the rope. Both the sand and the athlete are initially at rest. The athlete climbs the rope, sometimes speeding up and slowing down as he does so. What happens to the sack of sand? Explain.
15. Suppose you are driving a classic car. Why should you avoid slamming on your brakes when you want to stop in the shortest possible distance? (Many modern cars have antilock brakes that avoid this problem.)

16. In Figure CQ5.16, the light, taut, unstretchable cord B joins block 1 and the larger-mass block 2. Cord A exerts a force on block 1 to make it accelerate forward. (a) How does the magnitude of the force exerted by cord A on block 1 compare with the magnitude of the force exerted by cord B on block 2? Is it larger, smaller, or equal? (b) How does the acceleration of block 1 compare with the acceleration (if any) of block 2? (c) Does cord B exert a force on block 1? If so, is it forward or backward? Is it larger, smaller, or equal in magnitude to the force exerted by cord B on block 2?

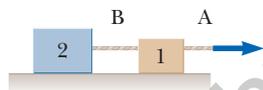


Figure CQ5.16

17. Describe two examples in which the force of friction exerted on an object is in the direction of motion of the object.
18. The mayor of a city reprimands some city employees because they will not remove the obvious sags from the cables that support the city traffic lights. What explanation can the employees give? How do you think the case will be settled in mediation?
19. Give reasons for the answers to each of the following questions: (a) Can a normal force be horizontal? (b) Can a normal force be directed vertically downward? (c) Consider a tennis ball in contact with a stationary floor and with nothing else. Can the normal force be different in magnitude from the gravitational force exerted on the ball? (d) Can the force exerted by the

floor on the ball be different in magnitude from the force the ball exerts on the floor?

20. Balancing carefully, three boys inch out onto a horizontal tree branch above a pond, each planning to dive in separately. The third boy in line notices that the branch is barely strong enough to support them. He decides to jump straight up and land back on the branch to break it, spilling all three into the pond. When he starts to carry out his plan, at what precise moment does the branch break? Explain. *Suggestion:* Pretend to be the third boy and imitate what he does in slow motion. If you are still unsure, stand on a bathroom scale and repeat the suggestion.
21. Identify action–reaction pairs in the following situations: (a) a man takes a step (b) a snowball hits a girl in the back (c) a baseball player catches a ball (d) a gust of wind strikes a window
22. As shown in Figure CQ5.22, student A, a 55-kg girl, sits on one chair with metal runners, at rest on a classroom floor. Student B, an 80-kg boy, sits on an identical chair. Both students keep their feet off the floor. A rope runs from student A's hands around a light pulley and then over her shoulder to the hands of a teacher standing on the floor behind her. The low-friction axle of the pulley is attached to a second rope held by student B. All ropes run parallel to the chair runners. (a) If student A pulls on her end of the rope, will her chair or will B's chair slide on the floor? Explain why. (b) If instead the teacher pulls on his rope end, which chair slides? Why this one? (c) If student B pulls on his rope, which chair slides? Why? (d) Now the teacher ties his end of the rope to student A's chair. Student A pulls on the end of the rope in her hands. Which chair slides and why?

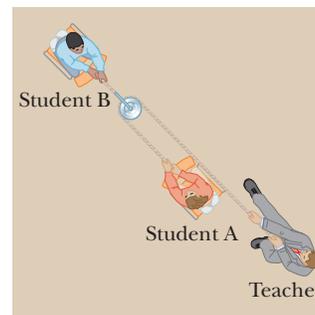


Figure CQ5.22

23. A car is moving forward slowly and is speeding up. A student claims that “the car exerts a force on itself” or that “the car’s engine exerts a force on the car.” (a) Argue that this idea cannot be accurate and that friction exerted by the road is the propulsive force on the car. Make your evidence and reasoning as persuasive as possible. (b) Is it static or kinetic friction? *Suggestions:* Consider a road covered with light gravel. Consider a sharp print of the tire tread on an asphalt road, obtained by coating the tread with dust.

Problems

ENHANCED

WebAssign

The problems found in this chapter may be assigned online in Enhanced WebAssign

1. straightforward; 2. intermediate; 3. challenging

1. full solution available in the *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

AMT

Analysis Model tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

GP

Guided Problem

M

Master It tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

W

Watch It video solution available in Enhanced WebAssign

Section 5.1 The Concept of Force

Section 5.2 Newton's First Law and Inertial Frames

Section 5.3 Mass

Section 5.4 Newton's Second Law

Section 5.5 The Gravitational Force and Weight

Section 5.6 Newton's Third Law

- A woman weighs 120 lb. Determine (a) her weight in newtons and (b) her mass in kilograms.
- If a man weighs 900 N on the Earth, what would he weigh on Jupiter, where the free-fall acceleration is 25.9 m/s^2 ?
- A 3.00-kg object undergoes an acceleration given by $\vec{a} = (2.00\hat{i} + 5.00\hat{j}) \text{ m/s}^2$. Find (a) the resultant force acting on the object and (b) the magnitude of the resultant force.
- A certain orthodontist uses a wire brace to align a patient's crooked tooth as in Figure P5.4. The tension in the wire is adjusted to have a magnitude of 18.0 N. Find the magnitude of the net force exerted by the wire on the crooked tooth.

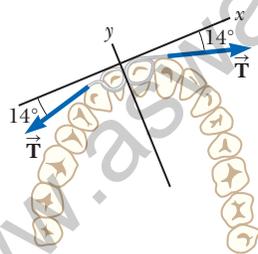


Figure P5.4

- A toy rocket engine is securely fastened to a large puck that can glide with negligible friction over a horizontal surface, taken as the xy plane. The 4.00-kg puck has a velocity of $3.00\hat{i} \text{ m/s}$ at one instant. Eight seconds later, its velocity is $(8.00\hat{i} + 10.00\hat{j}) \text{ m/s}$. Assuming the rocket engine exerts a constant horizontal force, find (a) the components of the force and (b) its magnitude.
- The average speed of a nitrogen molecule in air is about $6.70 \times 10^2 \text{ m/s}$, and its mass is $4.68 \times 10^{-26} \text{ kg}$. (a) If it takes $3.00 \times 10^{-13} \text{ s}$ for a nitrogen molecule to hit a wall and rebound with the same speed but moving in the opposite direction, what is the average acceleration of the molecule during this time interval? (b) What average force does the molecule exert on the wall?
- The distinction between mass and weight was discovered after Jean Richer transported pendulum clocks from Paris, France, to Cayenne, French Guiana, in 1671. He found that they quite systematically ran slower in Cayenne than in Paris. The effect was reversed when the clocks returned to Paris. How much weight would a 90.0 kg person lose in traveling from Paris, where $g = 9.8095 \text{ m/s}^2$, to Cayenne, where $g = 9.7808 \text{ m/s}^2$? (We will consider how the free-fall acceleration influences the period of a pendulum in Section 15.5.)
- (a) A car with a mass of 850 kg is moving to the right with a constant speed of 1.44 m/s. What is the total force on the car? (b) What is the total force on the car if it is moving to the left?
- Review.** The gravitational force exerted on a baseball is 2.21 N down. A pitcher throws the ball horizontally with velocity 18.0 m/s by uniformly accelerating it along a straight horizontal line for a time interval of 170 ms. The ball starts from rest. (a) Through what distance does it move before its release? (b) What are the magnitude and direction of the force the pitcher exerts on the ball?
- Review.** The gravitational force exerted on a baseball is $-F_g\hat{j}$. A pitcher throws the ball with velocity $v\hat{i}$ by uniformly accelerating it along a straight horizontal line for a time interval of $\Delta t = t - 0 = t$. (a) Starting from rest, through what distance does the ball move before its release? (b) What force does the pitcher exert on the ball?
- Review.** An electron of mass $9.11 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$ has an initial speed of $3.00 \times 10^5 \text{ m/s}$. It travels in a straight line, and its speed increases to $7.00 \times 10^5 \text{ m/s}$ in a distance of 5.00 cm. Assuming its acceleration is constant, (a) determine the magnitude of the force exerted on the electron and (b) compare this force with the weight of the electron, which we ignored.
- Besides the gravitational force, a 2.80-kg object is subjected to one other constant force. The object starts from rest and in 1.20 s experiences a displacement of $(4.20\hat{i} - 3.30\hat{j}) \text{ m}$, where the direction of \hat{j} is the upward vertical direction. Determine the other force.

13. One or more external forces, large enough to be easily measured, are exerted on each object enclosed in a dashed box shown in Figure 5.1. Identify the reaction to each of these forces.
14. A brick of mass M has been placed on a rubber cushion of mass m . Together they are sliding to the right at constant velocity on an ice-covered parking lot. (a) Draw a free-body diagram of the brick and identify each force acting on it. (b) Draw a free-body diagram of the cushion and identify each force acting on it. (c) Identify all of the action–reaction pairs of forces in the brick–cushion–planet system.
15. Two forces, $\vec{F}_1 = (-6.00\hat{i} - 4.00\hat{j})$ N and $\vec{F}_2 = (-3.00\hat{i} + 7.00\hat{j})$ N, act on a particle of mass 2.00 kg that is initially at rest at coordinates $(-2.00$ m, $+4.00$ m). (a) What are the components of the particle's velocity at $t = 10.0$ s? (b) In what direction is the particle moving at $t = 10.0$ s? (c) What displacement does the particle undergo during the first 10.0 s? (d) What are the coordinates of the particle at $t = 10.0$ s?
16. **M** The force exerted by the wind on the sails of a sailboat is 390 N north. The water exerts a force of 180 N east. If the boat (including its crew) has a mass of 270 kg, what are the magnitude and direction of its acceleration?
17. An object of mass m is dropped at $t = 0$ from the roof of a building of height h . While the object is falling, a wind blowing parallel to the face of the building exerts a constant horizontal force F on the object. (a) At what time t does the object strike the ground? Express t in terms of g and h . (b) Find an expression in terms of m and F for the acceleration a_x of the object in the horizontal direction (taken as the positive x direction). (c) How far is the object displaced horizontally before hitting the ground? Answer in terms of m , g , F , and h . (d) Find the magnitude of the object's acceleration while it is falling, using the variables F , m , and g .
18. **W** A force \vec{F} applied to an object of mass m_1 produces an acceleration of 3.00 m/s². The same force applied to a second object of mass m_2 produces an acceleration of 1.00 m/s². (a) What is the value of the ratio m_1/m_2 ? (b) If m_1 and m_2 are combined into one object, find its acceleration under the action of the force \vec{F} .
19. **M** Two forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 act on a 5.00-kg object. Taking $F_1 = 20.0$ N and $F_2 = 15.0$ N, find the accelerations of the object for the configurations of forces shown in parts (a) and (b) of Figure P5.19.
20. You stand on the seat of a chair and then hop off. (a) During the time interval you are in flight down to the floor, the Earth moves toward you with an acceleration of what order of magnitude? In your solution, explain your logic. Model the Earth as a perfectly solid object. (b) The Earth moves toward you through a distance of what order of magnitude?
21. A 15.0-lb block rests on the floor. (a) What force does the floor exert on the block? (b) A rope is tied to the block and is run vertically over a pulley. The other end is attached to a free-hanging 10.0-lb object. What now is the force exerted by the floor on the 15.0-lb block? (c) If the 10.0-lb object in part (b) is replaced with a 20.0-lb object, what is the force exerted by the floor on the 15.0-lb block?
22. **Review.** Three forces acting on an object are given by $\vec{F}_1 = (-2.00\hat{i} + 2.00\hat{j})$ N, and $\vec{F}_2 = (5.00\hat{i} - 3.00\hat{j})$ N, and $\vec{F}_3 = (-45.0\hat{i})$ N. The object experiences an acceleration of magnitude 3.75 m/s². (a) What is the direction of the acceleration? (b) What is the mass of the object? (c) If the object is initially at rest, what is its speed after 10.0 s? (d) What are the velocity components of the object after 10.0 s?
23. A 1 000-kg car is pulling a 300-kg trailer. Together, the car and trailer move forward with an acceleration of 2.15 m/s². Ignore any force of air drag on the car and all friction forces on the trailer. Determine (a) the net force on the car, (b) the net force on the trailer, (c) the force exerted by the trailer on the car, and (d) the resultant force exerted by the car on the road.
24. If a single constant force acts on an object that moves on a straight line, the object's velocity is a linear function of time. The equation $v = v_i + at$ gives its velocity v as a function of time, where a is its constant acceleration. What if velocity is instead a linear function of position? Assume that as a particular object moves through a resistive medium, its speed decreases as described by the equation $v = v_i - kx$, where k is a constant coefficient and x is the position of the object. Find the law describing the total force acting on this object.

Section 5.7 Analysis Models Using Newton's Second Law

25. **Review.** Figure P5.25 shows a worker poling a boat—a very efficient mode of transportation—across a shallow lake. He pushes parallel to the length of the light pole, exerting a force of magnitude 240 N on the bottom of the lake. Assume the pole lies in the vertical plane containing the keel of the boat. At one moment, the pole makes an angle of 35.0° with the vertical and the water exerts a horizontal drag force of 47.5 N on the boat, opposite to its forward velocity of magnitude 0.857 m/s. The mass of the boat including its cargo and the worker is 370 kg. (a) The water exerts

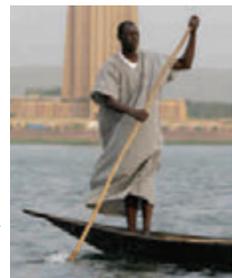


Figure P5.25

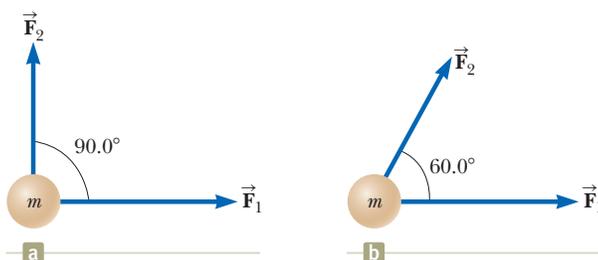


Figure P5.19

a buoyant force vertically upward on the boat. Find the magnitude of this force. (b) Model the forces as constant over a short interval of time to find the velocity of the boat 0.450 s after the moment described.

26. An iron bolt of mass 65.0 g hangs from a string 35.7 cm long. The top end of the string is fixed. Without touching it, a magnet attracts the bolt so that it remains stationary, but is displaced horizontally 28.0 cm to the right from the previously vertical line of the string. The magnet is located to the right of the bolt and on the same vertical level as the bolt in the final configuration. (a) Draw a free-body diagram of the bolt. (b) Find the tension in the string. (c) Find the magnetic force on the bolt.

27. Figure P5.27 shows the horizontal forces acting on a sailboat moving north at constant velocity, seen from a point straight above its mast. At the particular speed of the sailboat, the water exerts a 220-N drag force on its hull and $\theta = 40.0^\circ$. For each of the situations (a) and (b) described below, write two component equations representing Newton's second law. Then solve the equations for P (the force exerted by the wind on the sail) and for n (the force exerted by the water on the keel). (a) Choose the x direction as east and the y direction as north. (b) Now choose the x direction as $\theta = 40.0^\circ$ north of east and the y direction as $\theta = 40.0^\circ$ west of north. (c) Compare your solutions to parts (a) and (b). Do the results agree? Is one method significantly easier?

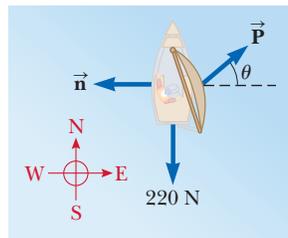


Figure P5.27

28. The systems shown in Figure P5.28 are in equilibrium. **W** If the spring scales are calibrated in newtons, what do they read? Ignore the masses of the pulleys and strings and assume the pulleys and the incline in Figure P5.28d are frictionless.

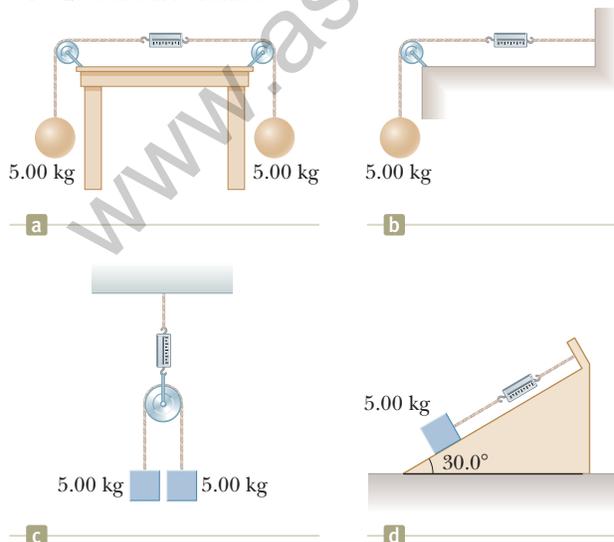


Figure P5.28

29. Assume the three blocks portrayed in Figure P5.29 **M** move on a frictionless surface and a 42-N force acts as shown on the 3.0-kg block. Determine (a) the acceleration given this system, (b) the tension in the cord connecting the 3.0-kg and the 1.0-kg blocks, and (c) the force exerted by the 1.0-kg block on the 2.0-kg block.

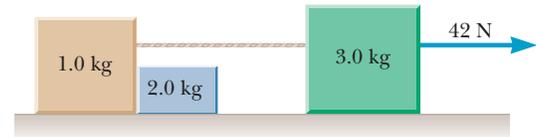


Figure P5.29

30. A block slides down a frictionless plane having an inclination of $\theta = 15.0^\circ$. The block starts from rest at the top, and the length of the incline is 2.00 m. (a) Draw a free-body diagram of the block. Find (b) the acceleration of the block and (c) its speed when it reaches the bottom of the incline.

31. The distance between two telephone poles is 50.0 m. When a 1.00-kg bird lands on the telephone wire midway between the poles, the wire sags 0.200 m. (a) Draw a free-body diagram of the bird. (b) How much tension does the bird produce in the wire? Ignore the weight of the wire.

32. A 3.00-kg object is moving in a plane, with its x and y **W** coordinates given by $x = 5t^2 - 1$ and $y = 3t^3 + 2$, where x and y are in meters and t is in seconds. Find the magnitude of the net force acting on this object at $t = 2.00$ s.

33. A bag of cement weighing 325 N **AMT** hangs in equilibrium from three wires as suggested in Figure P5.33. Two of the wires make angles $\theta_1 = 60.0^\circ$ and $\theta_2 = 40.0^\circ$ with the horizontal. Assuming the system is in equilibrium, find the tensions T_1 , T_2 , and T_3 in the wires.

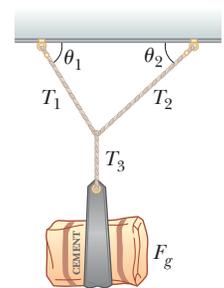


Figure P5.33

Problems 33 and 34.

34. A bag of cement whose weight is F_g hangs in equilibrium from three wires as shown in Figure P5.33. Two of the wires make angles θ_1 and θ_2 with the horizontal. Assuming the system is in equilibrium, show that the tension in the left-hand wire is

$$T_1 = \frac{F_g \cos \theta_2}{\sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}$$

35. Two people pull as hard as they can on horizontal ropes attached to a boat that has a mass of 200 kg. If they pull in the same direction, the boat has an acceleration of 1.52 m/s^2 to the right. If they pull in opposite directions, the boat has an acceleration of 0.518 m/s^2 to the left. What is the magnitude of the force each person exerts on the boat? Disregard any other horizontal forces on the boat.

36. Figure P5.36 shows loads hanging from the ceiling of an elevator that is moving at constant velocity. Find the tension in each of the three strands of cord supporting each load.

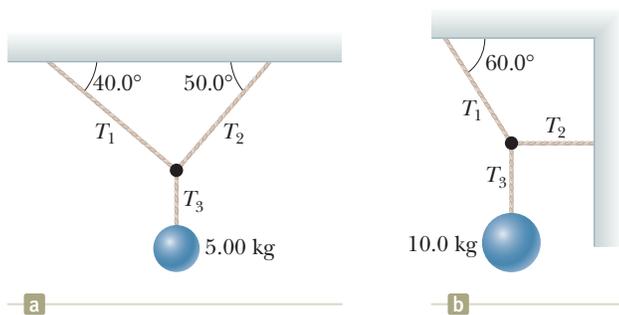


Figure P5.36

37. An object of mass $m = 1.00$ kg is observed to have an acceleration \vec{a} with a magnitude of 10.0 m/s² in a direction 60.0° east of north. Figure P5.37 shows a view of the object from above. The force \vec{F}_2 acting on the object has a magnitude of 5.00 N and is directed north. Determine the magnitude and direction of the one other horizontal force \vec{F}_1 acting on the object.

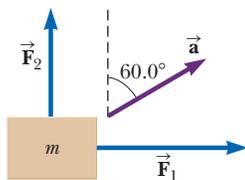


Figure P5.37

38. A setup similar to the one shown in Figure P5.38 is often used in hospitals to support and apply a horizontal traction force to an injured leg. (a) Determine the force of tension in the rope supporting the leg. (b) What is the traction force exerted to the right on the leg?

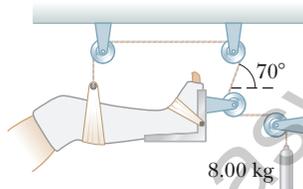


Figure P5.38

39. A simple accelerometer is constructed inside a car by suspending an object of mass m from a string of length L that is tied to the car's ceiling. As the car accelerates the string-object system makes a constant angle of θ with the vertical. (a) Assuming that the string mass is negligible compared with m , derive an expression for the car's acceleration in terms of θ and show that it is independent of the mass m and the length L . (b) Determine the acceleration of the car when $\theta = 23.0^\circ$.

40. An object of mass $m_1 = 5.00$ kg placed on a frictionless, horizontal table is connected to a string that passes over a pulley and then is fastened to a hanging object of mass $m_2 = 9.00$ kg as shown in Figure P5.40. (a) Draw free-body

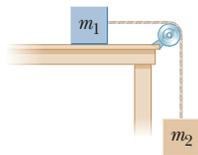


Figure P5.40

Problems 40, 63, and 87.

diagrams of both objects. Find (b) the magnitude of the acceleration of the objects and (c) the tension in the string.

41. Figure P5.41 shows the speed of a person's body as he does a chin-up. Assume the motion is vertical and the mass of the person's body is 64.0 kg. Determine the force exerted by the chin-up bar on his body at (a) $t = 0$, (b) $t = 0.5$ s, (c) $t = 1.1$ s, and (d) $t = 1.6$ s.

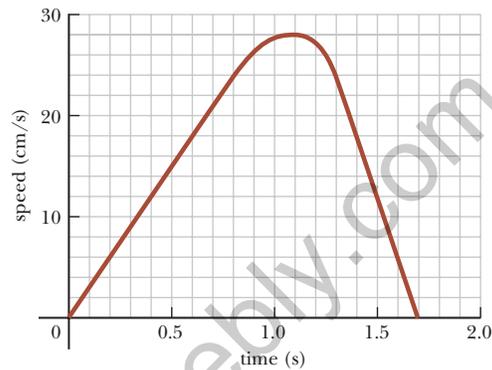


Figure P5.41

42. Two objects are connected by a light string that passes over a frictionless pulley as shown in Figure P5.42. Assume the incline is frictionless and take $m_1 = 2.00$ kg, $m_2 = 6.00$ kg, and $\theta = 55.0^\circ$. (a) Draw free-body diagrams of both objects. Find (b) the magnitude of the acceleration of the objects, (c) the tension in the string, and (d) the speed of each object 2.00 s after it is released from rest.

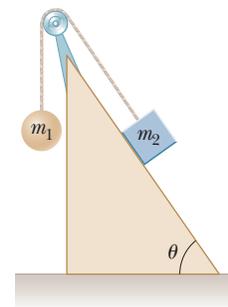


Figure P5.42

43. Two blocks, each of mass $m = 3.50$ kg, are hung from the ceiling of an elevator as in Figure P5.43. (a) If the elevator moves with an upward acceleration \vec{a} of magnitude 1.60 m/s², find the tensions T_1 and T_2 in the upper and lower strings. (b) If the strings can withstand a maximum tension of 85.0 N, what maximum acceleration can the elevator have before a string breaks?

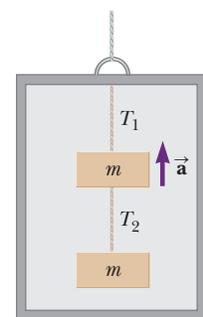


Figure P5.43

Problems 43 and 44.

44. Two blocks, each of mass m , are hung from the ceiling of an elevator as in Figure P5.43. The elevator has an upward acceleration a . The strings have negligible mass. (a) Find the tensions T_1 and T_2 in the upper and lower strings in terms of m , a , and g . (b) Compare the two tensions and determine which string would break first if a is made sufficiently large. (c) What are the tensions if the cable supporting the elevator breaks?

45. In the system shown in Figure P5.45, a horizontal force \vec{F}_x acts on an object of mass $m_2 = 8.00$ kg. The hori-

horizontal surface is frictionless. Consider the acceleration of the sliding object as a function of F_x . (a) For what values of F_x does the object of mass $m_1 = 2.00$ kg accelerate upward? (b) For what values of F_x is the tension in the cord zero? (c) Plot the acceleration of the m_2 object versus F_x . Include values of F_x from -100 N to $+100$ N.

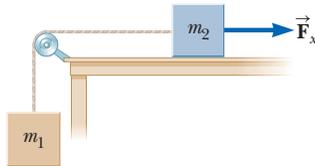


Figure P5.45

46. An object of mass m_1 hangs from a string that passes over a very light fixed pulley P_1 as shown in Figure P5.46. The string connects to a second very light pulley P_2 . A second string passes around this pulley with one end attached to a wall and the other to an object of mass m_2 on a frictionless, horizontal table. (a) If a_1 and a_2 are the accelerations of m_1 and m_2 , respectively, what is the relation between these accelerations? Find expressions for (b) the tensions in the strings and (c) the accelerations a_1 and a_2 in terms of the masses m_1 and m_2 , and g .

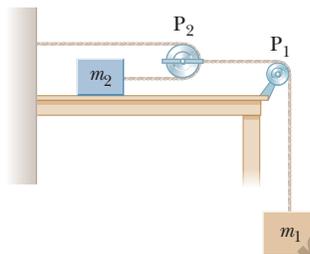


Figure P5.46

47. A block is given an initial velocity of 5.00 m/s up a frictionless incline of angle $\theta = 20.0^\circ$ (Fig. P5.47). How far up the incline does the block slide before coming to rest?

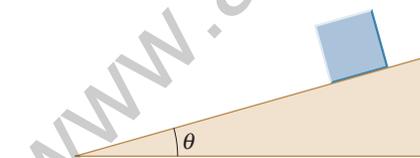


Figure P5.47

48. A car is stuck in the mud. A tow truck pulls on the car with the arrangement shown in Fig. P5.48. The tow cable is under a tension of $2\,500$ N and pulls downward and to the left on the pin at its upper end. The light pin is held in equilibrium by forces exerted by the two bars A and B. Each bar is a *strut*; that is, each is a bar whose weight is small compared to the forces it exerts and which exerts forces only through hinge pins at its ends. Each strut exerts a force directed parallel to its length. Determine the force of tension or compression in each strut. Proceed as follows. Make a guess as to which way (pushing or pulling) each force

acts on the top pin. Draw a free-body diagram of the pin. Use the condition for equilibrium of the pin to translate the free-body diagram into equations. From the equations calculate the forces exerted by struts A and B. If you obtain a positive answer, you correctly guessed the direction of the force. A negative answer means that the direction should be reversed, but the absolute value correctly gives the magnitude of the force. If a strut pulls on a pin, it is in tension. If it pushes, the strut is in compression. Identify whether each strut is in tension or in compression.

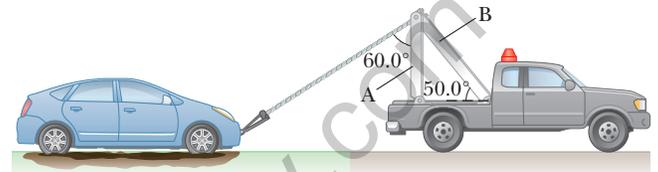


Figure P5.48

49. Two blocks of mass 3.50 kg and 8.00 kg are connected by a massless string that passes over a frictionless pulley (Fig. P5.49). The inclines are frictionless. Find (a) the magnitude of the acceleration of each block and (b) the tension in the string.

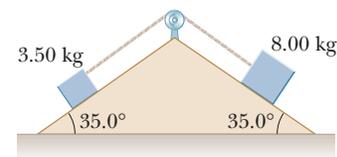


Figure P5.49 Problems 49 and 71.

50. In the Atwood machine discussed in Example 5.9 and shown in Figure 5.14a, $m_1 = 2.00$ kg and $m_2 = 7.00$ kg. The masses of the pulley and string are negligible by comparison. The pulley turns without friction, and the string does not stretch. The lighter object is released with a sharp push that sets it into motion at $v_i = 2.40$ m/s downward. (a) How far will m_1 descend below its initial level? (b) Find the velocity of m_1 after 1.80 s.

51. In Example 5.8, we investigated the apparent weight of a fish in an elevator. Now consider a 72.0 -kg man standing on a spring scale in an elevator. Starting from rest, the elevator ascends, attaining its maximum speed of 1.20 m/s in 0.800 s. It travels with this constant speed for the next 5.00 s. The elevator then undergoes a uniform acceleration in the negative y direction for 1.50 s and comes to rest. What does the spring scale register (a) before the elevator starts to move, (b) during the first 0.800 s, (c) while the elevator is traveling at constant speed, and (d) during the time interval it is slowing down?

Section 5.8 Forces of Friction

52. Consider a large truck carrying a heavy load, such as steel beams. A significant hazard for the driver is that the load may slide forward, crushing the cab, if the truck stops suddenly in an accident or even in braking. Assume, for example, that a $10\,000$ -kg load sits on the

flatbed of a 20 000-kg truck moving at 12.0 m/s. Assume that the load is not tied down to the truck, but has a coefficient of friction of 0.500 with the flatbed of the truck. (a) Calculate the minimum stopping distance for which the load will not slide forward relative to the truck. (b) Is any piece of data unnecessary for the solution?

- 53. Review.** A rifle bullet with a mass of 12.0 g traveling toward the right at 260 m/s strikes a large bag of sand and penetrates it to a depth of 23.0 cm. Determine the magnitude and direction of the friction force (assumed constant) that acts on the bullet.
- 54. Review.** A car is traveling at 50.0 mi/h on a horizontal highway. (a) If the coefficient of static friction between road and tires on a rainy day is 0.100, what is the minimum distance in which the car will stop? (b) What is the stopping distance when the surface is dry and $\mu_s = 0.600$?
- 55.** A 25.0-kg block is initially at rest on a horizontal surface. A horizontal force of 75.0 N is required to set the block in motion, after which a horizontal force of 60.0 N is required to keep the block moving with constant speed. Find (a) the coefficient of static friction and (b) the coefficient of kinetic friction between the block and the surface.
- 56.** Why is the following situation impossible? Your 3.80-kg physics book is placed next to you on the horizontal seat of your car. The coefficient of static friction between the book and the seat is 0.650, and the coefficient of kinetic friction is 0.550. You are traveling forward at 72.0 km/h and brake to a stop with constant acceleration over a distance of 30.0 m. Your physics book remains on the seat rather than sliding forward onto the floor.
- 57.** To determine the coefficients of friction between rubber and various surfaces, a student uses a rubber eraser and an incline. In one experiment, the eraser begins to slip down the incline when the angle of inclination is 36.0° and then moves down the incline with constant speed when the angle is reduced to 30.0° . From these data, determine the coefficients of static and kinetic friction for this experiment.
- 58.** Before 1960, people believed that the maximum attainable coefficient of static friction for an automobile tire on a roadway was $\mu_s = 1$. Around 1962, three companies independently developed racing tires with coefficients of 1.6. This problem shows that tires have improved further since then. The shortest time interval in which a piston-engine car initially at rest has covered a distance of one-quarter mile is about 4.43 s. (a) Assume the car's rear wheels lift the front wheels off the pavement as shown in Figure P5.58. What mini-



Figure P5.58

imum value of μ_s is necessary to achieve the record time? (b) Suppose the driver were able to increase his or her engine power, keeping other things equal. How would this change affect the elapsed time?

- 59.** To meet a U.S. Postal Service requirement, employees' footwear must have a coefficient of static friction of 0.5 or more on a specified tile surface. A typical athletic shoe has a coefficient of static friction of 0.800. In an emergency, what is the minimum time interval in which a person starting from rest can move 3.00 m on the tile surface if she is wearing (a) footwear meeting the Postal Service minimum and (b) a typical athletic shoe?
- 60.** A woman at an airport is towing her 20.0-kg suitcase at constant speed by pulling on a strap at an angle θ above the horizontal (Fig. P5.60). She pulls on the strap with a 35.0-N force, and the friction force on the suitcase is 20.0 N. (a) Draw a free-body diagram of the suitcase. (b) What angle does the strap make with the horizontal? (c) What is the magnitude of the normal force that the ground exerts on the suitcase?



Figure P5.60

- 61. Review.** A 3.00-kg block starts from rest at the top of a 30.0° incline and slides a distance of 2.00 m down the incline in 1.50 s. Find (a) the magnitude of the acceleration of the block, (b) the coefficient of kinetic friction between block and plane, (c) the friction force acting on the block, and (d) the speed of the block after it has slid 2.00 m.
- 62.** The person in Figure P5.62 weighs 170 lb. As seen from the front, each light crutch makes an angle of 22.0° with the vertical. Half of the person's weight is supported by the crutches. The other half is supported by the vertical forces of the ground on the person's feet. Assuming that the person is moving with constant velocity and the force exerted by the ground on the crutches acts along the crutches, determine (a) the smallest possible coefficient of friction between crutches and ground and (b) the magnitude of the compression force in each crutch.

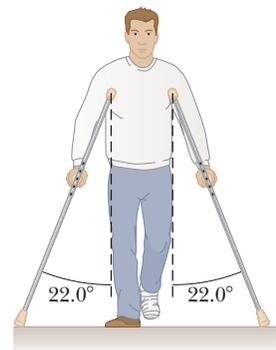


Figure P5.62

- 63.** A 9.00-kg hanging object is connected by a light, inextensible cord over a light, frictionless pulley to a 5.00-kg block that is sliding on a flat table (Fig. P5.40). Taking the coefficient of kinetic friction as 0.200, find the tension in the string.
- 64.** Three objects are connected on a table as shown in Figure P5.64. The coefficient of kinetic friction between the block of mass m_2 and the table is 0.350. The objects have masses of $m_1 = 4.00$ kg, $m_2 = 1.00$ kg, and $m_3 =$

2.00 kg, and the pulleys are frictionless. (a) Draw a free-body diagram of each object. (b) Determine the acceleration of each object, including its direction. (c) Determine the tensions in the two cords. **What If?** (d) If the tabletop were smooth, would the tensions increase, decrease, or remain the same? Explain.



Figure P5.64

- 65.** Two blocks connected by a rope of negligible mass are being dragged by a horizontal force (Fig. P5.65). Suppose $F = 68.0\text{ N}$, $m_1 = 12.0\text{ kg}$, $m_2 = 18.0\text{ kg}$, and the coefficient of kinetic friction between each block and the surface is 0.100. (a) Draw a free-body diagram for each block. Determine (b) the acceleration of the system and (c) the tension T in the rope.

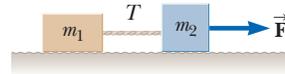


Figure P5.65

- 66.** A block of mass 3.00 kg is pushed up against a wall by a force \vec{P} that makes an angle of $\theta = 50.0^\circ$ with the horizontal as shown in Figure P5.66. The coefficient of static friction between the block and the wall is 0.250. (a) Determine the possible values for the magnitude of \vec{P} that allow the block to remain stationary. (b) Describe what happens if $|\vec{P}|$ has a larger value and what happens if it is smaller. (c) Repeat parts (a) and (b), assuming the force makes an angle of $\theta = 13.0^\circ$ with the horizontal.
- 67. Review.** One side of the roof of a house slopes up at 37.0° . A roofer kicks a round, flat rock that has been thrown onto the roof by a neighborhood child. The rock slides straight up the incline with an initial speed of 15.0 m/s. The coefficient of kinetic friction between the rock and the roof is 0.400. The rock slides 10.0 m up the roof to its peak. It crosses the ridge and goes into free fall, following a parabolic trajectory above the far side of the roof, with negligible air resistance. Determine the maximum height the rock reaches above the point where it was kicked.
- 68. Review.** A Chinook salmon can swim underwater at 3.58 m/s, and it can also jump vertically upward, leaving the water with a speed of 6.26 m/s. A record salmon has length 1.50 m and mass 61.0 kg. Consider the fish swimming straight upward in the water below the surface of a lake. The gravitational force exerted on it is very nearly canceled out by a buoyant force exerted by the water as we will study in Chapter 14. The fish experiences an upward force P exerted by the water on its thrashing tail fin and a downward fluid friction force that we model as acting on its front end. Assume

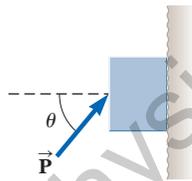


Figure P5.66

the fluid friction force disappears as soon as the fish's head breaks the water surface and assume the force on its tail is constant. Model the gravitational force as suddenly switching full on when half the length of the fish is out of the water. Find the value of P .

- 69. Review.** A magician pulls a tablecloth from under a 200-g mug located 30.0 cm from the edge of the cloth. The cloth exerts a friction force of 0.100 N on the mug, and the cloth is pulled with a constant acceleration of 3.00 m/s^2 . How far does the mug move relative to the horizontal tabletop before the cloth is completely out from under it? Note that the cloth must move more than 30 cm relative to the tabletop during the process.
- 70.** A 5.00-kg block is placed on top of a 10.0-kg block (Fig. P5.70). A horizontal force of 45.0 N is applied to the 10-kg block, and the 5.00-kg block is tied to the wall. The coefficient of kinetic friction between all moving surfaces is 0.200. (a) Draw a free-body diagram for each block and identify the action–reaction forces between the blocks. (b) Determine the tension in the string and the magnitude of the acceleration of the 10.0-kg block.

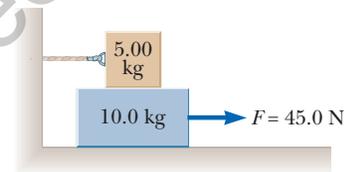


Figure P5.70

- 71.** The system shown in Figure P5.49 has an acceleration of magnitude 1.50 m/s^2 . Assume that the coefficient of kinetic friction between block and incline is the same for both inclines. Find (a) the coefficient of kinetic friction and (b) the tension in the string.

Additional Problems

- 72.** A black aluminum glider floats on a film of air above a level aluminum air track. Aluminum feels essentially no force in a magnetic field, and air resistance is negligible. A strong magnet is attached to the top of the glider, forming a total mass of 240 g. A piece of scrap iron attached to one end stop on the track attracts the magnet with a force of 0.823 N when the iron and the magnet are separated by 2.50 cm. (a) Find the acceleration of the glider at this instant. (b) The scrap iron is now attached to another green glider, forming total mass 120 g. Find the acceleration of each glider when the gliders are simultaneously released at 2.50-cm separation.
- 73.** A young woman buys an inexpensive used car for stock car racing. It can attain highway speed with an acceleration of $8.40\text{ mi/h} \cdot \text{s}$. By making changes to its engine, she can increase the net horizontal force on the car by 24.0%. With much less expense, she can remove material from the body of the car to decrease its mass by 24.0%. (a) Which of these two changes, if either, will result in the greater increase in the car's acceleration? (b) If she makes both changes, what acceleration can she attain?
- 74.** Why is the following situation impossible? A book sits on an inclined plane on the surface of the Earth. The angle

of the plane with the horizontal is 60.0° . The coefficient of kinetic friction between the book and the plane is 0.300 . At time $t = 0$, the book is released from rest. The book then slides through a distance of 1.00 m, measured along the plane, in a time interval of 0.483 s.

- 75. Review.** A hockey puck struck by a hockey stick is given an initial speed v_i in the positive x direction. The coefficient of kinetic friction between the ice and the puck is μ_k . (a) Obtain an expression for the acceleration of the puck as it slides across the ice. (b) Use the result of part (a) to obtain an expression for the distance d the puck slides. The answer should be in terms of the variables v_i , μ_k , and g only.
- 76.** A 1.00 -kg glider on a horizontal air track is pulled by a string at an angle θ . The taut string runs over a pulley and is attached to a hanging object of mass 0.500 kg as shown in Figure P5.76. (a) Show that the speed v_x of the glider and the speed v_y of the hanging object are related by $v_x = uv_y$, where $u = z(z^2 - h_0^2)^{-1/2}$. (b) The glider is released from rest. Show that at that instant the acceleration a_x of the glider and the acceleration a_y of the hanging object are related by $a_x = ua_y$. (c) Find the tension in the string at the instant the glider is released for $h_0 = 80.0$ cm and $\theta = 30.0^\circ$.

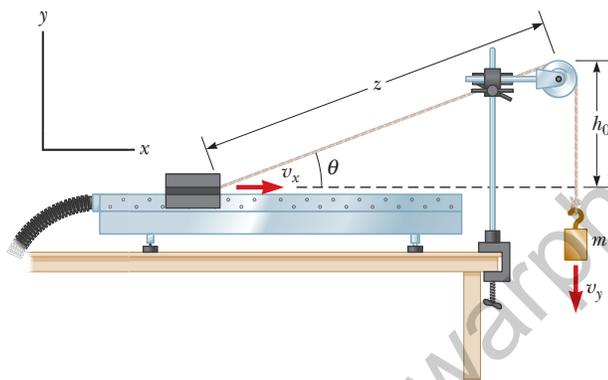


Figure P5.76

- 77.** A frictionless plane is 10.0 m long and inclined at 35.0° . **M** A sled starts at the bottom with an initial speed of 5.00 m/s up the incline. When the sled reaches the point at which it momentarily stops, a second sled is released from the top of the incline with an initial speed v_i . Both sleds reach the bottom of the incline at the same moment. (a) Determine the distance that the first sled traveled up the incline. (b) Determine the initial speed of the second sled.

- 78.** A rope with mass m_r is attached to a block with mass m_b as in Figure P5.78. The block rests on a frictionless, horizontal surface. The rope does not stretch. The free end of the rope is pulled to the right with a horizontal force \vec{F} . (a) Draw force diagrams for the rope and the block, noting that the tension in the rope is not uniform. (b) Find the acceleration of the system in terms of m_b , m_r , and F . (c) Find the magnitude of the force the rope exerts on the block. (d) What happens

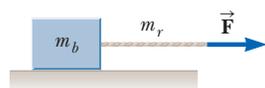


Figure P5.78

to the force on the block as the rope's mass approaches zero? What can you state about the tension in a *light* cord joining a pair of moving objects?

- 79. GP** Two blocks of masses m_1 and m_2 are placed on a table in contact with each other as discussed in Example 5.7 and shown in Figure 5.12a. The coefficient of kinetic friction between the block of mass m_1 and the table is μ_1 , and that between the block of mass m_2 and the table is μ_2 . A horizontal force of magnitude F is applied to the block of mass m_1 . We wish to find P , the magnitude of the contact force between the blocks. (a) Draw diagrams showing the forces for each block. (b) What is the net force on the system of two blocks? (c) What is the net force acting on m_1 ? (d) What is the net force acting on m_2 ? (e) Write Newton's second law in the x direction for each block. (f) Solve the two equations in two unknowns for the acceleration a of the blocks in terms of the masses, the applied force F , the coefficients of friction, and g . (g) Find the magnitude P of the contact force between the blocks in terms of the same quantities.
- 80.** On a single, light, vertical cable that does not stretch, a crane is lifting a $1\,207$ -kg Ferrari and, below it, a $1\,461$ -kg BMW Z8. The Ferrari is moving upward with speed 3.50 m/s and acceleration 1.25 m/s². (a) How do the velocity and acceleration of the BMW compare with those of the Ferrari? (b) Find the tension in the cable between the BMW and the Ferrari. (c) Find the tension in the cable above the Ferrari.

- 81.** An inventive child named Nick wants to reach an apple in a tree without climbing the tree. Sitting in a chair connected to a rope that passes over a frictionless pulley (Fig. P5.81), Nick pulls on the loose end of the rope with such a force that the spring scale reads 250 N. Nick's true weight is 320 N, and the chair weighs 160 N. Nick's feet are not touching the ground. (a) Draw one pair of diagrams showing the forces for Nick and the chair considered as separate systems and another diagram for Nick and the chair considered as one system. (b) Show that the acceleration of the system is *upward* and find its magnitude. (c) Find the force Nick exerts on the chair.



Figure P5.81 Problems 81 and 82.

- 82.** In the situation described in Problem 81 and Figure P5.81, the masses of the rope, spring balance, and pul-

ley are negligible. Nick's feet are not touching the ground. (a) Assume Nick is momentarily at rest when he stops pulling down on the rope and passes the end of the rope to another child, of weight 440 N, who is standing on the ground next to him. The rope does not break. Describe the ensuing motion. (b) Instead, assume Nick is momentarily at rest when he ties the end of the rope to a strong hook projecting from the tree trunk. Explain why this action can make the rope break.

83. In Example 5.7, we pushed on two blocks on a table. Suppose three blocks are in contact with one another on a frictionless, horizontal surface as shown in Figure P5.83. A horizontal force \vec{F} is applied to m_1 . Take $m_1 = 2.00$ kg, $m_2 = 3.00$ kg, $m_3 = 4.00$ kg, and $F = 18.0$ N. (a) Draw a separate free-body diagram for each block. (b) Determine the acceleration of the blocks. (c) Find the *resultant* force on each block. (d) Find the magnitudes of the contact forces between the blocks. (e) You are working on a construction project. A coworker is nailing up plasterboard on one side of a light partition, and you are on the opposite side, providing "backing" by leaning against the wall with your back pushing on it. Every hammer blow makes your back sting. The supervisor helps you put a heavy block of wood between the wall and your back. Using the situation analyzed in parts (a) through (d) as a model, explain how this change works to make your job more comfortable.

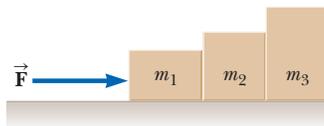


Figure P5.83

84. An aluminum block of mass $m_1 = 2.00$ kg and a copper block of mass $m_2 = 6.00$ kg are connected by a light string over a frictionless pulley. They sit on a steel surface as shown in Figure P5.84, where $\theta = 30.0^\circ$. (a) When they are released from rest, will they start to move? If they do, determine (b) their acceleration and (c) the tension in the string. If they do not move, determine (d) the sum of the magnitudes of the forces of friction acting on the blocks.

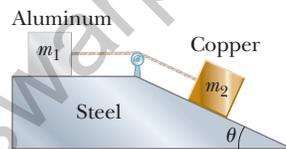


Figure P5.84

85. An object of mass M is held in place by an applied force \vec{F} and a pulley system as shown in Figure P5.85. The pulleys are massless and frictionless. (a) Draw diagrams showing the forces on each pulley. Find (b) the tension in each section of rope, T_1 , T_2 , T_3 , T_4 , and T_5 and (c) the magnitude of \vec{F} .

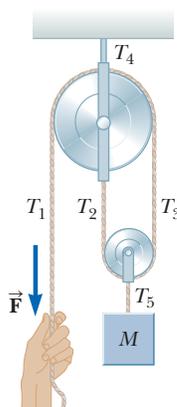


Figure P5.85

86. Any device that allows you to increase the force you exert is a kind of *machine*. Some machines, such as the prybar

or the inclined plane, are very simple. Some machines do not even look like machines. For example, your car is stuck in the mud and you can't pull hard enough to get it out. You do, however, have a long cable that you connect taut between your front bumper and the trunk of a stout tree. You now pull sideways on the cable at its midpoint, exerting a force f . Each half of the cable is displaced through a small angle θ from the straight line between the ends of the cable. (a) Deduce an expression for the force acting on the car. (b) Evaluate the cable tension for the case where $\theta = 7.00^\circ$ and $f = 100$ N.

87. Objects with masses $m_1 = 10.0$ kg and $m_2 = 5.00$ kg are connected by a light string that passes over a frictionless pulley as in Figure P5.40. If, when the system starts from rest, m_2 falls 1.00 m in 1.20 s, determine the coefficient of kinetic friction between m_1 and the table.
88. Consider the three connected objects shown in Figure P5.88. Assume first that the inclined plane is frictionless and that the system is in equilibrium. In terms of m , g , and θ , find (a) the mass M and (b) the tensions T_1 and T_2 . Now assume that the value of M is double the value found in part (a). Find (c) the acceleration of each object and (d) the tensions T_1 and T_2 . Next, assume that the coefficient of static friction between m and $2m$ and the inclined plane is μ_s and that the system is in equilibrium. Find (e) the maximum value of M and (f) the minimum value of M . (g) Compare the values of T_2 when M has its minimum and maximum values.

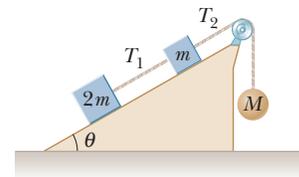


Figure P5.88

89. A crate of weight F_g is pushed by a force \vec{P} on a horizontal floor as shown in Figure P5.89. The coefficient of static friction is μ_s , and \vec{P} is directed at angle θ below the horizontal. (a) Show that the minimum value of P that will move the crate is given by

$$P = \frac{\mu_s F_g \sec \theta}{1 - \mu_s \tan \theta}$$

(b) Find the condition on θ in terms of μ_s for which motion of the crate is impossible for any value of P .

90. A student is asked to measure the acceleration of a glider on a frictionless, inclined plane, using an air track, a stopwatch, and a meterstick. The top of the track is measured to be 1.774 cm higher than the bottom of the track, and the length of the track is $d = 127.1$ cm. The cart is released from rest at the top of the incline, taken as $x = 0$, and its position x along the incline is measured as a function of time. For x values of 10.0 cm, 20.0 cm, 35.0 cm, 50.0 cm, 75.0 cm, and 100 cm, the measured times at which these positions are reached (averaged over five runs) are 1.02 s, 1.53 s,

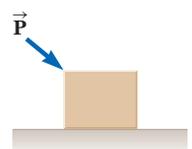


Figure P5.89

2.01 s, 2.64 s, 3.30 s, and 3.75 s, respectively. (a) Construct a graph of x versus t^2 , with a best-fit straight line to describe the data. (b) Determine the acceleration of the cart from the slope of this graph. (c) Explain how your answer to part (b) compares with the theoretical value you calculate using $a = g \sin \theta$ as derived in Example 5.6.

91. A flat cushion of mass m is released from rest at the corner of the roof of a building, at height h . A wind blowing along the side of the building exerts a constant horizontal force of magnitude F on the cushion as it drops as shown in Figure P5.91. The air exerts no vertical force. (a) Show that the path of the cushion is a straight line. (b) Does the cushion fall with constant velocity? Explain. (c) If $m = 1.20$ kg, $h = 8.00$ m, and $F = 2.40$ N, how far from the building will the cushion hit the level ground? **What If?** (d) If the cushion is thrown downward with a non-zero speed at the top of the building, what will be the shape of its trajectory? Explain.

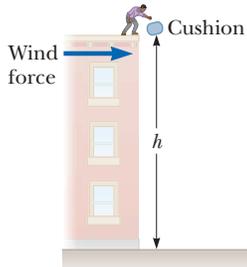


Figure P5.91

92. In Figure P5.92, the pulleys and the cord are light, all surfaces are frictionless, and the cord does not stretch. (a) How does the acceleration of block 1 compare with the acceleration of block 2? Explain your reasoning. (b) The mass of block 2 is 1.30 kg. Find its acceleration as it depends on the mass m_1 of block 1. (c) **What If?** What does the result of part (b) predict if m_1 is very much less than 1.30 kg? (d) What does the result of part (b) predict if m_1 approaches infinity? (e) In this last case, what is the tension in the cord? (f) Could you anticipate the answers to parts (c), (d), and (e) without first doing part (b)? Explain.

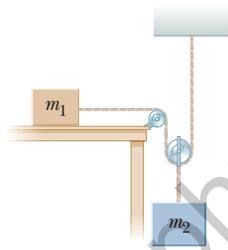


Figure P5.92

93. What horizontal force must be applied to a large block of mass M shown in Figure P5.93 so that the tan blocks remain stationary relative to M ? Assume all surfaces and the pulley are frictionless. Notice that the force exerted by the string accelerates m_2 .

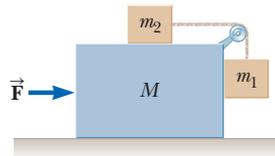


Figure P5.93

Problems 93 and 98.

94. An 8.40-kg object slides down a fixed, frictionless, inclined plane. Use a computer to determine and tabulate (a) the normal force exerted on the object and (b) its acceleration for a series of incline angles (measured from the horizontal) ranging from 0° to 90° in 5° increments. (c) Plot a graph of the normal force and the acceleration as functions of the incline angle. (d) In the limiting cases of 0° and 90° , are your results consistent with the known behavior?

95. A car accelerates down a hill (Fig. P5.95), going from rest to 30.0 m/s in 6.00 s. A toy inside the car hangs by a string from the car's ceiling. The ball in the figure represents the toy, of mass 0.100 kg. The acceleration is such that the string remains perpendicular to the ceiling. Determine (a) the angle θ and (b) the tension in the string.

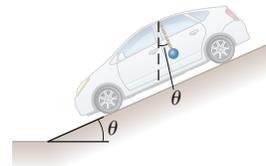


Figure P5.95

Challenge Problems

96. A time-dependent force, $\vec{F} = (8.00\hat{i} - 4.00t\hat{j})$, where \vec{F} is in newtons and t is in seconds, is exerted on a 2.00-kg object initially at rest. (a) At what time will the object be moving with a speed of 15.0 m/s? (b) How far is the object from its initial position when its speed is 15.0 m/s? (c) Through what total displacement has the object traveled at this moment?
97. The board sandwiched between two other boards in Figure P5.97 weighs 95.5 N. If the coefficient of static friction between the boards is 0.663, what must be the magnitude of the compression forces (assumed horizontal) acting on both sides of the center board to keep it from slipping?

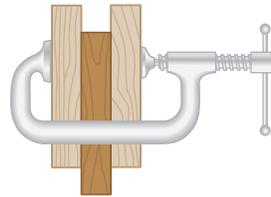


Figure P5.97

98. Initially, the system of objects shown in Figure P5.93 is held motionless. The pulley and all surfaces and wheels are frictionless. Let the force \vec{F} be zero and assume that m_1 can move only vertically. At the instant after the system of objects is released, find (a) the tension T in the string, (b) the acceleration of m_2 , (c) the acceleration of M , and (d) the acceleration of m_1 . (Note: The pulley accelerates along with the cart.)

99. A block of mass 2.20 kg is accelerated across a rough surface by a light cord passing over a small pulley as shown in Figure P5.99. The tension T in the cord is maintained at 10.0 N, and the pulley is 0.100 m above the top of the block. The coefficient of kinetic friction is 0.400. (a) Determine the acceleration of the block when $x = 0.400$ m. (b) Describe the general behavior of the acceleration as the block slides from a location where x is large to $x = 0$. (c) Find the maximum value of the acceleration and the position x for which it occurs. (d) Find the value of x for which the acceleration is zero.

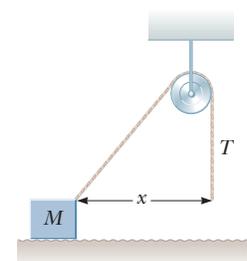


Figure P5.99

- 100.** Why is the following situation impossible? A 1.30-kg toaster is not plugged in. The coefficient of static friction between the toaster and a horizontal countertop is 0.350. To make the toaster start moving, you carelessly pull on its electric cord. Unfortunately, the cord has become frayed from your previous similar actions and will break if the tension in the cord exceeds 4.00 N. By pulling on the cord at a particular angle, you successfully start the toaster moving without breaking the cord.

- 101. Review.** A block of mass $m = 2.00$ kg is released from rest at $h = 0.500$ m above the surface of a table, at the top of a $\theta = 30.0^\circ$ incline as shown in Figure P5.101. The frictionless incline is fixed on a table of height $H = 2.00$ m. (a) Determine the acceleration of the block as it slides down the incline. (b) What is the velocity of the block as it leaves the incline? (c) How far from the table will the block hit the floor? (d) What time interval elapses between when the block is released and when it hits the floor? (e) Does the mass of the block affect any of the above calculations?

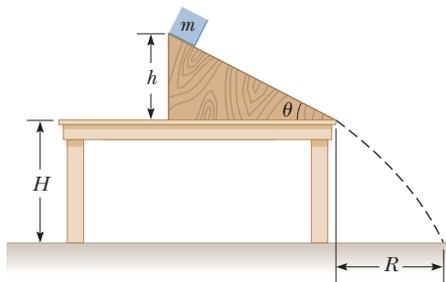


Figure P5.101 Problems 101 and 102.

- 102.** In Figure P5.101, the incline has mass M and is fastened to the stationary horizontal tabletop. The block of mass m is placed near the bottom of the incline and is released with a quick push that sets it sliding upward. The block stops near the top of the incline as shown in the figure and then slides down again, always without friction. Find the force that the tabletop exerts on the incline throughout this motion in terms of m , M , g , and θ .
- 103.** A block of mass $m = 2.00$ kg rests on the left edge of a block of mass $M = 8.00$ kg. The coefficient of kinetic friction between the two blocks is 0.300, and the surface on which the 8.00-kg block rests is frictionless. A constant horizontal force of magnitude $F = 10.0$ N is applied to the 2.00-kg block, setting it in motion as

shown in Figure P5.103a. If the distance L that the leading edge of the smaller block travels on the larger block is 3.00 m, (a) in what time interval will the smaller block make it to the right side of the 8.00-kg block as shown in Figure P5.103b? (Note: Both blocks are set into motion when \vec{F} is applied.) (b) How far does the 8.00-kg block move in the process?

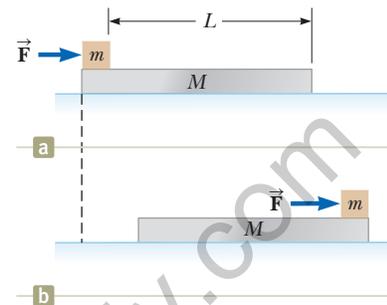


Figure P5.103

- 104.** A mobile is formed by supporting four metal butterflies of equal mass m from a string of length L . The points of support are evenly spaced a distance ℓ apart as shown in Figure P5.104. The string forms an angle θ_1 with the ceiling at each endpoint. The center section of string is horizontal. (a) Find the tension in each section of string in terms of θ_1 , m , and g . (b) In terms of θ_1 , find the angle θ_2 that the sections of string between the outside butterflies and the inside butterflies form with the horizontal. (c) Show that the distance D between the endpoints of the string is

$$D = \frac{L}{5} \left\{ 2 \cos \theta_1 + 2 \cos \left[\tan^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{2} \tan \theta_1 \right) \right] + 1 \right\}$$

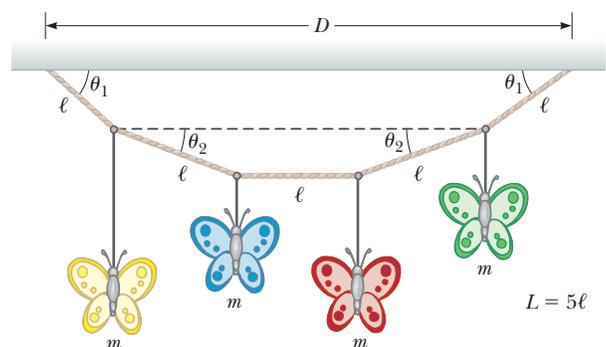


Figure P5.104

Circular Motion and Other Applications of Newton's Laws

- 6.1 Extending the Particle in Uniform Circular Motion Model
- 6.2 Nonuniform Circular Motion
- 6.3 Motion in Accelerated Frames
- 6.4 Motion in the Presence of Resistive Forces



Kyle Busch, driver of the #18 Snickers Toyota, leads Jeff Gordon, driver of the #24 Dupont Chevrolet, during the NASCAR Sprint Cup Series Kobalt Tools 500 at the Atlanta Motor Speedway on March 9, 2008, in Hampton, Georgia. The cars travel on a banked roadway to help them undergo circular motion on the turns. (Chris Graythen/Getty Images for NASCAR)

In the preceding chapter, we introduced Newton's laws of motion and incorporated them into two analysis models involving linear motion. Now we discuss motion that is slightly more complicated. For example, we shall apply Newton's laws to objects traveling in circular paths. We shall also discuss motion observed from an accelerating frame of reference and motion of an object through a viscous medium. For the most part, this chapter consists of a series of examples selected to illustrate the application of Newton's laws to a variety of new circumstances.

6.1 Extending the Particle in Uniform Circular Motion Model

In Section 4.4, we discussed the analysis model of a particle in uniform circular motion, in which a particle moves with constant speed v in a circular path having a radius r . The particle experiences an acceleration that has a magnitude

$$a_c = \frac{v^2}{r}$$

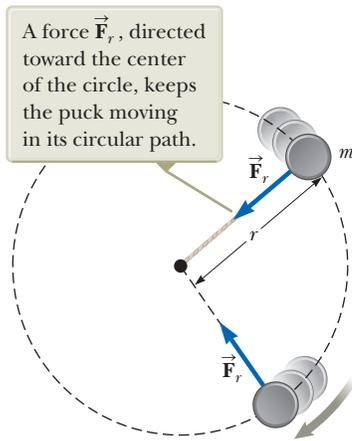


Figure 6.1 An overhead view of a puck moving in a circular path in a horizontal plane.

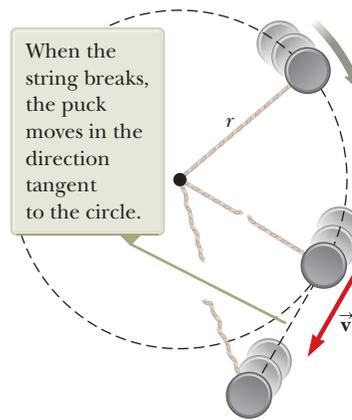


Figure 6.2 The string holding the puck in its circular path breaks.

The acceleration is called *centripetal acceleration* because \vec{a}_c is directed toward the center of the circle. Furthermore, \vec{a}_c is *always* perpendicular to \vec{v} . (If there were a component of acceleration parallel to \vec{v} , the particle's speed would be changing.)

Let us now extend the particle in uniform circular motion model from Section 4.4 by incorporating the concept of force. Consider a puck of mass m that is tied to a string of length r and moves at constant speed in a horizontal, circular path as illustrated in Figure 6.1. Its weight is supported by a frictionless table, and the string is anchored to a peg at the center of the circular path of the puck. Why does the puck move in a circle? According to Newton's first law, the puck would move in a straight line if there were no force on it; the string, however, prevents motion along a straight line by exerting on the puck a radial force \vec{F}_r that makes it follow the circular path. This force is directed along the string toward the center of the circle as shown in Figure 6.1.

If Newton's second law is applied along the radial direction, the net force causing the centripetal acceleration can be related to the acceleration as follows:

$$\sum F = ma_c = m \frac{v^2}{r} \quad (6.1)$$

A force causing a centripetal acceleration acts toward the center of the circular path and causes a change in the direction of the velocity vector. If that force should vanish, the object would no longer move in its circular path; instead, it would move along a straight-line path tangent to the circle. This idea is illustrated in Figure 6.2 for the puck moving in a circular path at the end of a string in a horizontal plane. If the string breaks at some instant, the puck moves along the straight-line path that is tangent to the circle at the position of the puck at this instant.

- Quick Quiz 6.1** You are riding on a Ferris wheel that is rotating with constant speed. The car in which you are riding always maintains its correct upward orientation; it does not invert. (i) What is the direction of the normal force on you from the seat when you are at the top of the wheel? (a) upward (b) downward (c) impossible to determine (ii) From the same choices, what is the direction of the net force on you when you are at the top of the wheel?

◀ Force causing centripetal acceleration

Pitfall Prevention 6.1

Direction of Travel When the String Is Cut Study Figure 6.2 very carefully. Many students (wrongly) think that the puck will move *radially* away from the center of the circle when the string is cut. The velocity of the puck is *tangent* to the circle. By Newton's first law, the puck continues to move in the same direction in which it is moving just as the force from the string disappears.

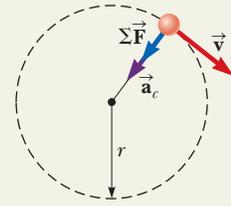
Analysis Model Particle in Uniform Circular Motion (Extension)

Imagine a moving object that can be modeled as a particle. If it moves in a circular path of radius r at a constant speed v , it experiences a centripetal acceleration. Because the particle is accelerating, there must be a net force acting on the particle. That force is directed toward the center of the circular path and is given by

$$\sum F = ma_c = m \frac{v^2}{r} \quad (6.1)$$

Examples

- the tension in a string of constant length acting on a rock twirled in a circle
- the gravitational force acting on a planet traveling around the Sun in a perfectly circular orbit (Chapter 13)
- the magnetic force acting on a charged particle moving in a uniform magnetic field (Chapter 29)
- the electric force acting on an electron in orbit around a nucleus in the Bohr model of the hydrogen atom (Chapter 42)



Example 6.1 The Conical Pendulum AM

A small ball of mass m is suspended from a string of length L . The ball revolves with constant speed v in a horizontal circle of radius r as shown in Figure 6.3. (Because the string sweeps out the surface of a cone, the system is known as a *conical pendulum*.) Find an expression for v in terms of the geometry in Figure 6.3.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Imagine the motion of the ball in Figure 6.3a and convince yourself that the string sweeps out a cone and that the ball moves in a horizontal circle.

Categorize The ball in Figure 6.3 does not accelerate vertically. Therefore, we model it as a *particle in equilibrium* in the vertical direction. It experiences a centripetal acceleration in the horizontal direction, so it is modeled as a *particle in uniform circular motion* in this direction.

Analyze Let θ represent the angle between the string and the vertical. In the diagram of forces acting on the ball in Figure 6.3b, the force \vec{T} exerted by the string on the ball is resolved into a vertical component $T \cos \theta$ and a horizontal component $T \sin \theta$ acting toward the center of the circular path.

Apply the particle in equilibrium model in the vertical direction:

$$\sum F_y = T \cos \theta - mg = 0$$

$$(1) \quad T \cos \theta = mg$$

Use Equation 6.1 from the particle in uniform circular motion model in the horizontal direction:

$$(2) \quad \sum F_x = T \sin \theta = ma_c = \frac{mv^2}{r}$$

Divide Equation (2) by Equation (1) and use $\sin \theta / \cos \theta = \tan \theta$:

$$\tan \theta = \frac{v^2}{rg}$$

Solve for v :

$$v = \sqrt{rg \tan \theta}$$

Incorporate $r = L \sin \theta$ from the geometry in Figure 6.3a:

$$v = \sqrt{Lg \sin \theta \tan \theta}$$

Finalize Notice that the speed is independent of the mass of the ball. Consider what happens when θ goes to 90° so that the string is horizontal. Because the tangent of 90° is infinite, the speed v is infinite, which tells us the string cannot possibly be horizontal. If it were, there would be no vertical component of the force \vec{T} to balance the gravitational force on the ball. That is why we mentioned in regard to Figure 6.1 that the puck's weight in the figure is supported by a frictionless table.

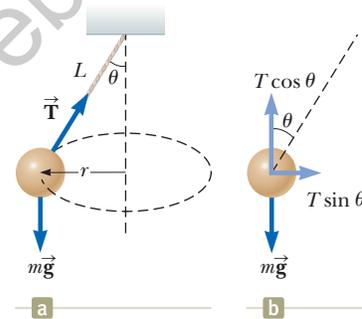


Figure 6.3 (Example 6.1) (a) A conical pendulum. The path of the ball is a horizontal circle. (b) The forces acting on the ball.

Example 6.2 How Fast Can It Spin? **AM**

A puck of mass 0.500 kg is attached to the end of a cord 1.50 m long. The puck moves in a horizontal circle as shown in Figure 6.1. If the cord can withstand a maximum tension of 50.0 N, what is the maximum speed at which the puck can move before the cord breaks? Assume the string remains horizontal during the motion.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize It makes sense that the stronger the cord, the faster the puck can move before the cord breaks. Also, we expect a more massive puck to break the cord at a lower speed. (Imagine whirling a bowling ball on the cord!)

Categorize Because the puck moves in a circular path, we model it as a *particle in uniform circular motion*.

Analyze Incorporate the tension and the centripetal acceleration into Newton's second law as described by Equation 6.1:

$$T = m \frac{v^2}{r}$$

Solve for v :

$$(1) \quad v = \sqrt{\frac{Tr}{m}}$$

Find the maximum speed the puck can have, which corresponds to the maximum tension the string can withstand:

$$v_{\max} = \sqrt{\frac{T_{\max} r}{m}} = \sqrt{\frac{(50.0 \text{ N})(1.50 \text{ m})}{0.500 \text{ kg}}} = 12.2 \text{ m/s}$$

Finalize Equation (1) shows that v increases with T and decreases with larger m , as we expected from our conceptualization of the problem.

WHAT IF? Suppose the puck moves in a circle of larger radius at the same speed v . Is the cord more likely or less likely to break?

Answer The larger radius means that the change in the direction of the velocity vector will be smaller in a given time interval. Therefore, the acceleration is smaller and the required tension in the string is smaller. As a result, the string is less likely to break when the puck travels in a circle of larger radius.

Example 6.3 What Is the Maximum Speed of the Car? **AM**

A 1500-kg car moving on a flat, horizontal road negotiates a curve as shown in Figure 6.4a. If the radius of the curve is 35.0 m and the coefficient of static friction between the tires and dry pavement is 0.523, find the maximum speed the car can have and still make the turn successfully.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Imagine that the curved roadway is part of a large circle so that the car is moving in a circular path.

Categorize Based on the Conceptualize step of the problem, we model the car as a *particle in uniform circular motion* in the horizontal direction. The car is not accelerating vertically, so it is modeled as a *particle in equilibrium* in the vertical direction.

Analyze Figure 6.4b shows the forces on the car. The force that enables the car to remain in its circular path is the force of static friction. (It is *static* because no slipping occurs at the point of contact between road and tires. If this force of static friction were zero—for example, if the car were on an icy road—the car would continue in a straight line and slide off the curved road.) The maximum speed v_{\max} the car can have around the curve is the speed at which it is on the verge of skidding outward. At this point, the friction force has its maximum value $f_{s,\max} = \mu_s n$.

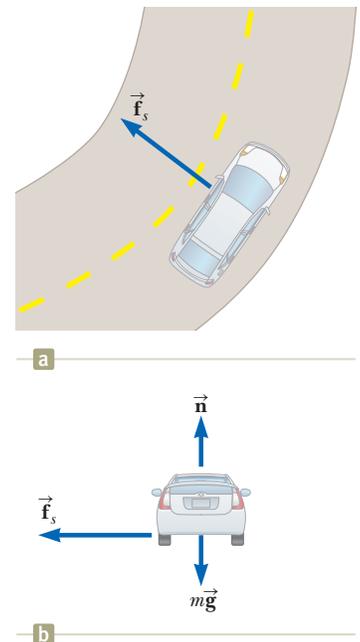


Figure 6.4 (Example 6.3) (a) The force of static friction directed toward the center of the curve keeps the car moving in a circular path. (b) The forces acting on the car.

continued

6.3 continued

Apply Equation 6.1 from the particle in uniform circular motion model in the radial direction for the maximum speed condition:

$$(1) f_{s,\max} = \mu_s n = m \frac{v_{\max}^2}{r}$$

Apply the particle in equilibrium model to the car in the vertical direction:

$$\sum F_y = 0 \rightarrow n - mg = 0 \rightarrow n = mg$$

Solve Equation (1) for the maximum speed and substitute for n :

$$(2) v_{\max} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_s n r}{m}} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_s m g r}{m}} = \sqrt{\mu_s g r}$$

Substitute numerical values:

$$v_{\max} = \sqrt{(0.523)(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(35.0 \text{ m})} = 13.4 \text{ m/s}$$

Finalize This speed is equivalent to 30.0 mi/h. Therefore, if the speed limit on this roadway is higher than 30 mi/h, this roadway could benefit greatly from some banking, as in the next example! Notice that the maximum speed does not depend on the mass of the car, which is why curved highways do not need multiple speed limits to cover the various masses of vehicles using the road.

WHAT IF? Suppose a car travels this curve on a wet day and begins to skid on the curve when its speed reaches only 8.00 m/s. What can we say about the coefficient of static friction in this case?

Answer The coefficient of static friction between the tires and a wet road should be smaller than that between the tires and a dry road. This expectation is consistent with experience with driving because a skid is more likely on a wet road than a dry road.

To check our suspicion, we can solve Equation (2) for the coefficient of static friction:

$$\mu_s = \frac{v_{\max}^2}{g r}$$

Substituting the numerical values gives

$$\mu_s = \frac{v_{\max}^2}{g r} = \frac{(8.00 \text{ m/s})^2}{(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(35.0 \text{ m})} = 0.187$$

which is indeed smaller than the coefficient of 0.523 for the dry road.

Example 6.4 The Banked Roadway **AM**

A civil engineer wishes to redesign the curved roadway in Example 6.3 in such a way that a car will not have to rely on friction to round the curve without skidding. In other words, a car moving at the designated speed can negotiate the curve even when the road is covered with ice. Such a road is usually *banked*, which means that the roadway is tilted toward the inside of the curve as seen in the opening photograph for this chapter. Suppose the designated speed for the road is to be 13.4 m/s (30.0 mi/h) and the radius of the curve is 35.0 m. At what angle should the curve be banked?

SOLUTION

Conceptualize The difference between this example and Example 6.3 is that the car is no longer moving on a flat roadway. Figure 6.5 shows the banked roadway, with the center of the circular path of the car far to the left of the figure. Notice that the horizontal component of the normal force participates in causing the car's centripetal acceleration.

Categorize As in Example 6.3, the car is modeled as a *particle in equilibrium* in the vertical direction and a *particle in uniform circular motion* in the horizontal direction.

Analyze On a level (unbanked) road, the force that causes the centripetal acceleration is the force of static friction between tires and the road as we saw in the preceding example. If the road is banked at an angle θ as in Figure 6.5, however, the

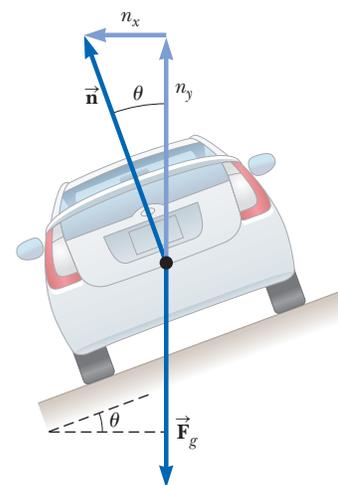


Figure 6.5 (Example 6.4) A car moves into the page and is rounding a curve on a road banked at an angle θ to the horizontal. When friction is neglected, the force that causes the centripetal acceleration and keeps the car moving in its circular path is the horizontal component of the normal force.

6.4 continued

normal force \vec{n} has a horizontal component toward the center of the curve. Because the road is to be designed so that the force of static friction is zero, the component $n_x = n \sin \theta$ is the only force that causes the centripetal acceleration.

Write Newton's second law for the car in the radial direction, which is the x direction:

$$(1) \quad \sum F_r = n \sin \theta = \frac{mv^2}{r}$$

Apply the particle in equilibrium model to the car in the vertical direction:

$$\sum F_y = n \cos \theta - mg = 0$$

$$(2) \quad n \cos \theta = mg$$

Divide Equation (1) by Equation (2):

$$(3) \quad \tan \theta = \frac{v^2}{rg}$$

Solve for the angle θ :

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{(13.4 \text{ m/s})^2}{(35.0 \text{ m})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)} \right] = 27.6^\circ$$

Finalize Equation (3) shows that the banking angle is independent of the mass of the vehicle negotiating the curve. If a car rounds the curve at a speed less than 13.4 m/s, the centripetal acceleration decreases. Therefore, the normal force, which is unchanged, is sufficient to cause *two* accelerations: the lower centripetal acceleration and an acceleration of the car down the inclined roadway. Consequently, an additional friction force parallel to the roadway and upward is needed to keep the car from sliding down the bank (to the left in Fig. 6.5). Similarly, a driver attempting to negotiate the curve at a speed greater than 13.4 m/s has to depend on friction to keep from sliding up the bank (to the right in Fig. 6.5).

WHAT IF? Imagine that this same roadway were built on Mars in the future to connect different colony centers. Could it be traveled at the same speed?

Answer The reduced gravitational force on Mars would mean that the car is not pressed as tightly to the roadway. The reduced normal force results in a smaller component of the normal force toward the center of the circle. This smaller component would not be sufficient to provide the centripetal acceleration associated with the original speed. The centripetal acceleration must be reduced, which can be done by reducing the speed v .

Mathematically, notice that Equation (3) shows that the speed v is proportional to the square root of g for a roadway of fixed radius r banked at a fixed angle θ . Therefore, if g is smaller, as it is on Mars, the speed v with which the roadway can be safely traveled is also smaller.

Example 6.5 Riding the Ferris Wheel **AM**

A child of mass m rides on a Ferris wheel as shown in Figure 6.6a. The child moves in a vertical circle of radius 10.0 m at a constant speed of 3.00 m/s.

(A) Determine the force exerted by the seat on the child at the bottom of the ride. Express your answer in terms of the weight of the child, mg .

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Look carefully at Figure 6.6a. Based on experiences you may have had on a Ferris wheel or driving over small hills on a roadway, you would expect to feel lighter at the top of the path. Similarly, you would expect to feel heavier at the bottom of the path. At both the bottom of the path and the top, the normal and gravitational forces on the child act in *opposite* directions. The vector sum of these two forces gives a force of constant magnitude that keeps the child moving in a circular path at a constant speed. To yield net force vectors with the same magnitude, the normal force at the bottom must be greater than that at the top.

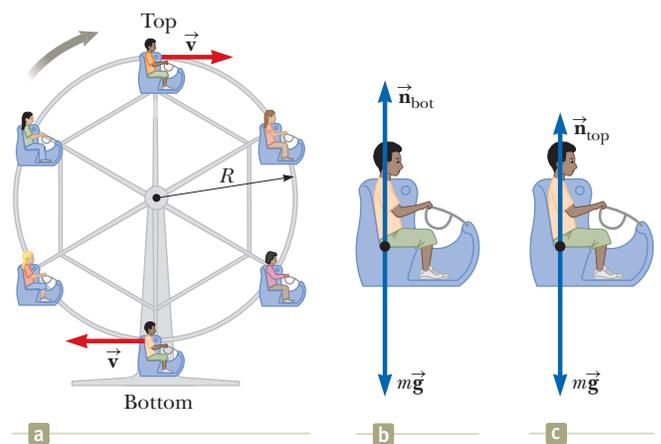


Figure 6.6 (Example 6.5) (a) A child rides on a Ferris wheel. (b) The forces acting on the child at the bottom of the path. (c) The forces acting on the child at the top of the path.

continued

6.5 continued

Categorize Because the speed of the child is constant, we can categorize this problem as one involving a *particle* (the child) in *uniform circular motion*, complicated by the gravitational force acting at all times on the child.

Analyze We draw a diagram of forces acting on the child at the bottom of the ride as shown in Figure 6.6b. The only forces acting on him are the downward gravitational force $\vec{F}_g = m\vec{g}$ and the upward force \vec{n}_{bot} exerted by the seat. The net upward force on the child that provides his centripetal acceleration has a magnitude $n_{\text{bot}} - mg$:

Using the particle in uniform circular motion model, apply Newton's second law to the child in the radial direction when he is at the bottom of the ride:

$$\sum F = n_{\text{bot}} - mg = m \frac{v^2}{r}$$

Solve for the force exerted by the seat on the child:

$$n_{\text{bot}} = mg + m \frac{v^2}{r} = mg \left(1 + \frac{v^2}{rg} \right)$$

Substitute numerical values given for the speed and radius:

$$\begin{aligned} n_{\text{bot}} &= mg \left[1 + \frac{(3.00 \text{ m/s})^2}{(10.0 \text{ m})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)} \right] \\ &= 1.09 mg \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the magnitude of the force \vec{n}_{bot} exerted by the seat on the child is *greater* than the weight of the child by a factor of 1.09. So, the child experiences an apparent weight that is greater than his true weight by a factor of 1.09.

(B) Determine the force exerted by the seat on the child at the top of the ride.

SOLUTION

Analyze The diagram of forces acting on the child at the top of the ride is shown in Figure 6.6c. The net downward force that provides the centripetal acceleration has a magnitude $mg - n_{\text{top}}$.

Apply Newton's second law to the child at this position:

$$\sum F = mg - n_{\text{top}} = m \frac{v^2}{r}$$

Solve for the force exerted by the seat on the child:

$$n_{\text{top}} = mg - m \frac{v^2}{r} = mg \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{rg} \right)$$

Substitute numerical values:

$$\begin{aligned} n_{\text{top}} &= mg \left[1 - \frac{(3.00 \text{ m/s})^2}{(10.0 \text{ m})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)} \right] \\ &= 0.908 mg \end{aligned}$$

In this case, the magnitude of the force exerted by the seat on the child is *less* than his true weight by a factor of 0.908, and the child feels lighter.

Finalize The variations in the normal force are consistent with our prediction in the Conceptualize step of the problem.

WHAT IF? Suppose a defect in the Ferris wheel mechanism causes the speed of the child to increase to 10.0 m/s. What does the child experience at the top of the ride in this case?

Answer If the calculation above is performed with $v = 10.0 \text{ m/s}$, the magnitude of the normal force at the top of the ride is negative, which is impossible. We interpret it to mean that the required centripetal acceleration of the child is larger than that due to gravity. As a result, the child will lose contact with the seat and will only stay in his circular path if there is a safety bar or a seat belt that provides a downward force on him to keep him in his seat. At the bottom of the ride, the normal force is $2.02 mg$, which would be uncomfortable.

6.2 Nonuniform Circular Motion

In Chapter 4, we found that if a particle moves with varying speed in a circular path, there is, in addition to the radial component of acceleration, a tangential component having magnitude $|dv/dt|$. Therefore, the force acting on the particle

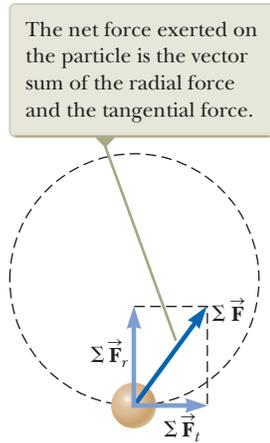


Figure 6.7 When the net force acting on a particle moving in a circular path has a tangential component ΣF_t , the particle's speed changes.

must also have a tangential and a radial component. Because the total acceleration is $\vec{a} = \vec{a}_r + \vec{a}_t$, the total force exerted on the particle is $\Sigma \vec{F} = \Sigma \vec{F}_r + \Sigma \vec{F}_t$, as shown in Figure 6.7. (We express the radial and tangential forces as net forces with the summation notation because each force could consist of multiple forces that combine.) The vector $\Sigma \vec{F}_r$ is directed toward the center of the circle and is responsible for the centripetal acceleration. The vector $\Sigma \vec{F}_t$ tangent to the circle is responsible for the tangential acceleration, which represents a change in the particle's speed with time.

- Quick Quiz 6.2** A bead slides at constant speed along a curved wire lying on a horizontal surface as shown in Figure 6.8. (a) Draw the vectors representing the force exerted by the wire on the bead at points A, B, and C. (b) Suppose the bead in Figure 6.8 speeds up with constant tangential acceleration as it moves toward the right. Draw the vectors representing the force on the bead at points A, B, and C.

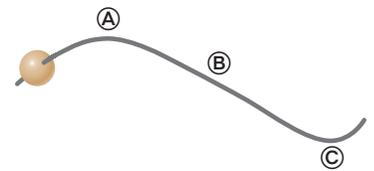


Figure 6.8 (Quick Quiz 6.2) A bead slides along a curved wire.

Example 6.6 Keep Your Eye on the Ball **AM**

A small sphere of mass m is attached to the end of a cord of length R and set into motion in a vertical circle about a fixed point O as illustrated in Figure 6.9. Determine the tangential acceleration of the sphere and the tension in the cord at any instant when the speed of the sphere is v and the cord makes an angle θ with the vertical.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Compare the motion of the sphere in Figure 6.9 with that of the child in Figure 6.6a associated with Example 6.5. Both objects travel in a circular path. Unlike the child in Example 6.5, however, the speed of the sphere is *not* uniform in this example because, at most points along the path, a tangential component of acceleration arises from the gravitational force exerted on the sphere.

Categorize We model the sphere as a *particle under a net force* and moving in a circular path, but it is not a particle in *uniform* circular motion. We need to use the techniques discussed in this section on nonuniform circular motion.

Analyze From the force diagram in Figure 6.9, we see that the only forces acting on the sphere are the gravitational force

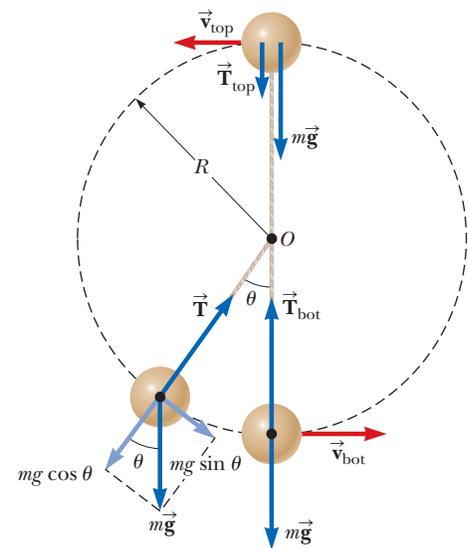


Figure 6.9 (Example 6.6) The forces acting on a sphere of mass m connected to a cord of length R and rotating in a vertical circle centered at O . Forces acting on the sphere are shown when the sphere is at the top and bottom of the circle and at an arbitrary location.

6.6 continued

$\vec{\mathbf{F}}_g = m\vec{\mathbf{g}}$ exerted by the Earth and the force $\vec{\mathbf{T}}$ exerted by the cord. We resolve $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_g$ into a tangential component $mg \sin \theta$ and a radial component $mg \cos \theta$.

From the particle under a net force model, apply Newton's second law to the sphere in the tangential direction:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum F_t &= mg \sin \theta = ma_t \\ a_t &= g \sin \theta\end{aligned}$$

Apply Newton's second law to the forces acting on the sphere in the radial direction, noting that both $\vec{\mathbf{T}}$ and $\vec{\mathbf{a}}_r$ are directed toward O . As noted in Section 4.5, we can use Equation 4.14 for the centripetal acceleration of a particle even when it moves in a circular path in nonuniform motion:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum F_r &= T - mg \cos \theta = \frac{mv^2}{R} \\ T &= mg \left(\frac{v^2}{Rg} + \cos \theta \right)\end{aligned}$$

Finalize Let us evaluate this result at the top and bottom of the circular path (Fig. 6.9):

$$T_{\text{top}} = mg \left(\frac{v_{\text{top}}^2}{Rg} - 1 \right) \quad T_{\text{bot}} = mg \left(\frac{v_{\text{bot}}^2}{Rg} + 1 \right)$$

These results have similar mathematical forms as those for the normal forces n_{top} and n_{bot} on the child in Example 6.5, which is consistent with the normal force on the child playing a similar physical role in Example 6.5 as the tension in the string plays in this example. Keep in mind, however, that the normal force $\vec{\mathbf{n}}$ on the child in Example 6.5 is always upward, whereas the force $\vec{\mathbf{T}}$ in this example changes direction because it must always point inward along the string. Also note that v in the expressions above varies for different positions of the sphere, as indicated by the subscripts, whereas v in Example 6.5 is constant.

WHAT IF? What if the ball is set in motion with a slower speed?

(A) What speed would the ball have as it passes over the top of the circle if the tension in the cord goes to zero instantaneously at this point?

Answer Let us set the tension equal to zero in the expression for T_{top} :

$$0 = mg \left(\frac{v_{\text{top}}^2}{Rg} - 1 \right) \rightarrow v_{\text{top}} = \sqrt{gR}$$

(B) What if the ball is set in motion such that the speed at the top is less than this value? What happens?

Answer In this case, the ball never reaches the top of the circle. At some point on the way up, the tension in the string goes to zero and the ball becomes a projectile. It follows a segment of a parabolic path over the top of its motion, rejoining the circular path on the other side when the tension becomes nonzero again.

6.3 Motion in Accelerated Frames

Newton's laws of motion, which we introduced in Chapter 5, describe observations that are made in an inertial frame of reference. In this section, we analyze how Newton's laws are applied by an observer in a noninertial frame of reference, that is, one that is accelerating. For example, recall the discussion of the air hockey table on a train in Section 5.2. The train moving at constant velocity represents an inertial frame. An observer on the train sees the puck at rest remain at rest, and Newton's first law appears to be obeyed. The accelerating train is not an inertial frame. According to you as the observer on this train, there appears to be no force on the puck, yet it accelerates from rest toward the back of the train, appearing to violate Newton's first law. This property is a general property of observations made in noninertial frames: there appear to be unexplained accelerations of objects that are not "fastened" to the frame. Newton's first law is not violated, of course. It only appears to be violated because of observations made from a noninertial frame.

On the accelerating train, as you watch the puck accelerating toward the back of the train, you might conclude based on your belief in Newton's second law that a

force has acted on the puck to cause it to accelerate. We call an apparent force such as this one a **fictitious force** because it is not a real force and is due only to observations made in an accelerated reference frame. A fictitious force appears to act on an object in the same way as a real force. Real forces are always interactions between two objects, however, and you cannot identify a second object for a fictitious force. (What second object is interacting with the puck to cause it to accelerate?) In general, simple fictitious forces appear to act in the direction *opposite* that of the acceleration of the noninertial frame. For example, the train accelerates forward and there appears to be a fictitious force causing the puck to slide toward the back of the train.

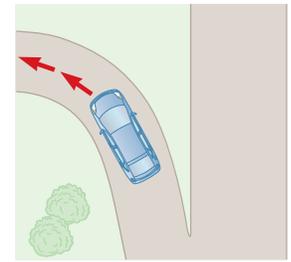
The train example describes a fictitious force due to a change in the train's speed. Another fictitious force is due to the change in the *direction* of the velocity vector. To understand the motion of a system that is noninertial because of a change in direction, consider a car traveling along a highway at a high speed and approaching a curved exit ramp on the left as shown in Figure 6.10a. As the car takes the sharp left turn on the ramp, a person sitting in the passenger seat leans or slides to the right and hits the door. At that point the force exerted by the door on the passenger keeps her from being ejected from the car. What causes her to move toward the door? A popular but incorrect explanation is that a force acting toward the right in Figure 6.10b pushes the passenger outward from the center of the circular path. Although often called the “centrifugal force,” it is a fictitious force. The car represents a noninertial reference frame that has a centripetal acceleration toward the center of its circular path. As a result, the passenger feels an apparent force which is outward from the center of the circular path, or to the right in Figure 6.10b, in the direction opposite that of the acceleration.

Let us address this phenomenon in terms of Newton's laws. Before the car enters the ramp, the passenger is moving in a straight-line path. As the car enters the ramp and travels a curved path, the passenger tends to move along the original straight-line path, which is in accordance with Newton's first law: the natural tendency of an object is to continue moving in a straight line. If a sufficiently large force (toward the center of curvature) acts on the passenger as in Figure 6.10c, however, she moves in a curved path along with the car. This force is the force of friction between her and the car seat. If this friction force is not large enough, the seat follows a curved path while the passenger tends to continue in the straight-line path of the car before the car began the turn. Therefore, from the point of view of an observer in the car, the passenger leans or slides to the right relative to the seat. Eventually, she encounters the door, which provides a force large enough to enable her to follow the same curved path as the car.

Another interesting fictitious force is the “Coriolis force.” It is an apparent force caused by changing the radial position of an object in a rotating coordinate system.

For example, suppose you and a friend are on opposite sides of a rotating circular platform and you decide to throw a baseball to your friend. Figure 6.11a on page 160 represents what an observer would see if the ball is viewed while the observer is hovering at rest above the rotating platform. According to this observer, who is in an inertial frame, the ball follows a straight line as it must according to Newton's first law. At $t = 0$ you throw the ball toward your friend, but by the time t_f when the ball has crossed the platform, your friend has moved to a new position and can't catch the ball. Now, however, consider the situation from your friend's viewpoint. Your friend is in a noninertial reference frame because he is undergoing a centripetal acceleration relative to the inertial frame of the Earth's surface. He starts off seeing the baseball coming toward him, but as it crosses the platform, it veers to one side as shown in Figure 6.11b. Therefore, your friend on the rotating platform states that the ball does not obey Newton's first law and claims that a sideways force is causing the ball to follow a curved path. This fictitious force is called the Coriolis force.

Fictitious forces may not be real forces, but they can have real effects. An object on your dashboard *really* slides off if you press the accelerator of your car. As you ride on a merry-go-round, you feel pushed toward the outside as if due to the fictitious “centrifugal force.” You are likely to fall over and injure yourself due to the



a

From the passenger's frame of reference, a force appears to push her toward the right door, but it is a fictitious force.



Fictitious force

b

Relative to the reference frame of the Earth, the car seat applies a real force (friction) toward the left on the passenger, causing her to change direction along with the rest of the car.



Real force

c

Figure 6.10 (a) A car approaching a curved exit ramp. What causes a passenger in the front seat to move toward the right-hand door? (b) Passenger's frame of reference. (c) Reference frame of the Earth.

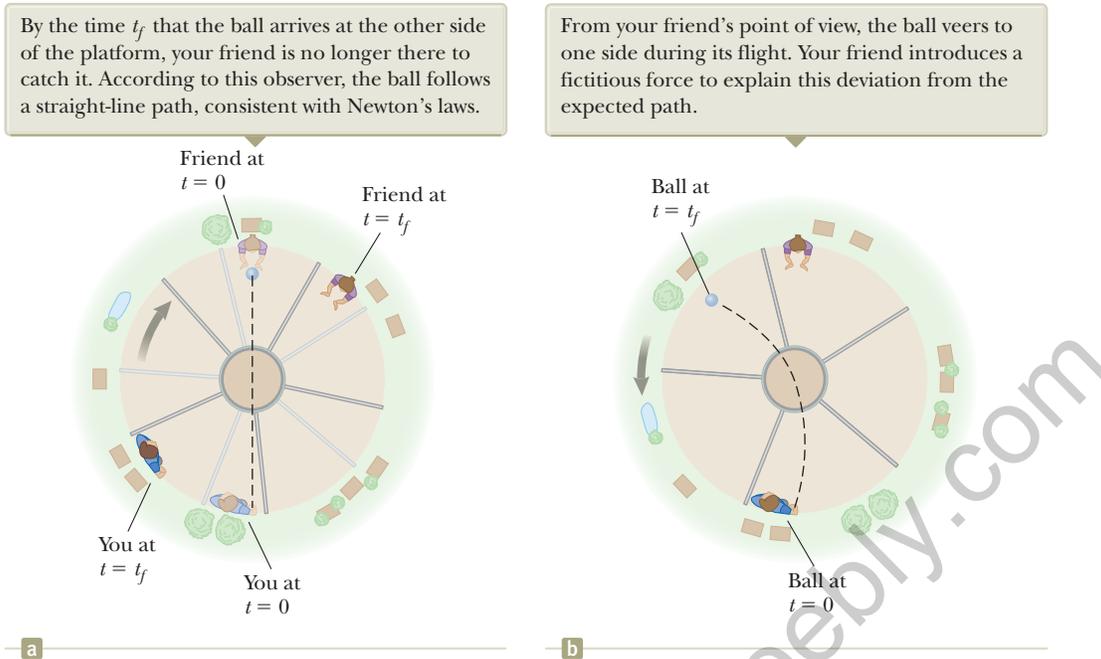


Figure 6.11 You and your friend stand at the edge of a rotating circular platform. You throw the ball at $t = 0$ in the direction of your friend. (a) Overhead view observed by someone in an inertial reference frame attached to the Earth. The ground appears stationary, and the platform rotates clockwise. (b) Overhead view observed by someone in an inertial reference frame attached to the platform. The platform appears stationary, and the ground rotates counterclockwise.

Pitfall Prevention 6.2

Centrifugal Force The commonly heard phrase “centrifugal force” is described as a force pulling *outward* on an object moving in a circular path. If you are feeling a “centrifugal force” on a rotating carnival ride, what is the other object with which you are interacting? You cannot identify another object because it is a fictitious force that occurs when you are in a noninertial reference frame.

Coriolis force if you walk along a radial line while a merry-go-round rotates. (One of the authors did so and suffered a separation of the ligaments from his ribs when he fell over.) The Coriolis force due to the rotation of the Earth is responsible for rotations of hurricanes and for large-scale ocean currents.

- Quick Quiz 6.3** Consider the passenger in the car making a left turn in Figure 6.10. Which of the following is correct about forces in the horizontal direction if she is making contact with the right-hand door? (a) The passenger is in equilibrium between real forces acting to the right and real forces acting to the left. (b) The passenger is subject only to real forces acting to the right. (c) The passenger is subject only to real forces acting to the left. (d) None of those statements is true.

Example 6.7

Fictitious Forces in Linear Motion AM

A small sphere of mass m hangs by a cord from the ceiling of a boxcar that is accelerating to the right as shown in Figure 6.12. Both the inertial observer on the ground in Figure 6.12a and the noninertial observer on the train in Figure 6.12b agree that the cord makes an angle θ with respect to the vertical. The noninertial observer claims that a force, which we know to be fictitious, causes the observed deviation of the cord from the vertical. How is the magnitude of this force related to the boxcar's acceleration measured by the inertial observer in Figure 6.12a?

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Place yourself in the role of each of the two observers in Figure 6.12. As the inertial observer on the ground, you see the boxcar accelerating and know that the deviation of the cord is due to this acceleration. As the noninertial observer on the boxcar, imagine that you ignore any effects of the car's motion so that you are not aware of its acceleration. Because you are unaware of this acceleration, you claim that a force is pushing sideways on the sphere to cause the deviation of the cord from the vertical. To make the conceptualization more real, try running from rest while holding a hanging object on a string and notice that the string is at an angle to the vertical while you are accelerating, as if a force is pushing the object backward.

6.7 continued

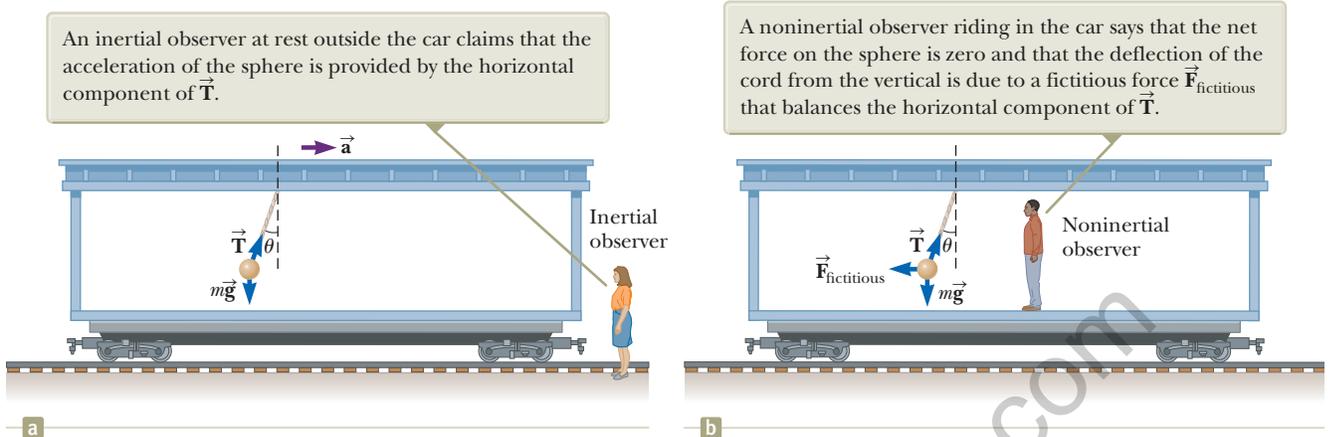


Figure 6.12 (Example 6.7) A small sphere suspended from the ceiling of a boxcar accelerating to the right is deflected as shown.

Categorize For the inertial observer, we model the sphere as a *particle under a net force* in the horizontal direction and a *particle in equilibrium* in the vertical direction. For the noninertial observer, the sphere is modeled as a *particle in equilibrium* in both directions.

Analyze According to the inertial observer at rest (Fig. 6.12a), the forces on the sphere are the force \vec{T} exerted by the cord and the gravitational force. The inertial observer concludes that the sphere's acceleration is the same as that of the boxcar and that this acceleration is provided by the horizontal component of \vec{T} .

For this observer, apply the particle under a net force and particle in equilibrium models:

$$\text{Inertial observer} \quad \begin{cases} (1) \quad \sum F_x = T \sin \theta = ma \\ (2) \quad \sum F_y = T \cos \theta - mg = 0 \end{cases}$$

According to the noninertial observer riding in the car (Fig. 6.12b), the cord also makes an angle θ with the vertical; to that observer, however, the sphere is at rest and so its acceleration is zero. Therefore, the noninertial observer introduces a force (which we know to be fictitious) in the horizontal direction to balance the horizontal component of \vec{T} and claims that the net force on the sphere is zero.

Apply the particle in equilibrium model for this observer in both directions:

$$\text{Noninertial observer} \quad \begin{cases} \sum F'_x = T \sin \theta - F_{\text{fictitious}} = 0 \\ \sum F'_y = T \cos \theta - mg = 0 \end{cases}$$

These expressions are equivalent to Equations (1) and (2) if $F_{\text{fictitious}} = ma$, where a is the acceleration according to the inertial observer.

Finalize If we make this substitution in the equation for $\sum F'_x$ above, we obtain the same mathematical results as the inertial observer. The physical interpretation of the cord's deflection, however, differs in the two frames of reference.

WHAT IF? Suppose the inertial observer wants to measure the acceleration of the train by means of the pendulum (the sphere hanging from the cord). How could she do so?

Answer Our intuition tells us that the angle θ the cord makes with the vertical should increase as the acceleration increases. By solving Equations (1) and (2) simultaneously for a , we find that $a = g \tan \theta$. Therefore, the inertial observer can determine the magnitude of the car's acceleration by measuring the angle θ and using that relationship. Because the deflection of the cord from the vertical serves as a measure of acceleration, *a simple pendulum can be used as an accelerometer.*

6.4 Motion in the Presence of Resistive Forces

In Chapter 5, we described the force of kinetic friction exerted on an object moving on some surface. We completely ignored any interaction between the object and the medium through which it moves. Now consider the effect of that medium, which

can be either a liquid or a gas. The medium exerts a **resistive force** $\vec{\mathbf{R}}$ on the object moving through it. Some examples are the air resistance associated with moving vehicles (sometimes called *air drag*) and the viscous forces that act on objects moving through a liquid. The magnitude of $\vec{\mathbf{R}}$ depends on factors such as the speed of the object, and the direction of $\vec{\mathbf{R}}$ is always opposite the direction of the object's motion relative to the medium. This direction may or may not be in the direction opposite the object's velocity according to the observer. For example, if a marble is dropped into a bottle of shampoo, the marble moves downward and the resistive force is upward, resisting the falling of the marble. In contrast, imagine the moment at which there is no wind and you are looking at a flag hanging limply on a flagpole. When a breeze begins to blow toward the right, the flag moves toward the right. In this case, the drag force on the flag from the moving air is to the right and the motion of the flag in response is also to the right, the *same* direction as the drag force. Because the air moves toward the right with respect to the flag, the flag moves to the left relative to the air. Therefore, the direction of the drag force is indeed opposite to the direction of the motion of the flag with respect to the air!

The magnitude of the resistive force can depend on speed in a complex way, and here we consider only two simplified models. In the first model, we assume the resistive force is proportional to the velocity of the moving object; this model is valid for objects falling slowly through a liquid and for very small objects, such as dust particles, moving through air. In the second model, we assume a resistive force that is proportional to the square of the speed of the moving object; large objects, such as skydivers moving through air in free fall, experience such a force.

Model 1: Resistive Force Proportional to Object Velocity

If we model the resistive force acting on an object moving through a liquid or gas as proportional to the object's velocity, the resistive force can be expressed as

$$\vec{\mathbf{R}} = -b\vec{\mathbf{v}} \quad (6.2)$$

where b is a constant whose value depends on the properties of the medium and on the shape and dimensions of the object and $\vec{\mathbf{v}}$ is the velocity of the object relative to the medium. The negative sign indicates that $\vec{\mathbf{R}}$ is in the opposite direction to $\vec{\mathbf{v}}$.

Consider a small sphere of mass m released from rest in a liquid as in Figure 6.13a. Assuming the only forces acting on the sphere are the resistive force $\vec{\mathbf{R}} = -b\vec{\mathbf{v}}$ and the gravitational force $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_g$, let us describe its motion.¹ We model the sphere as a par-

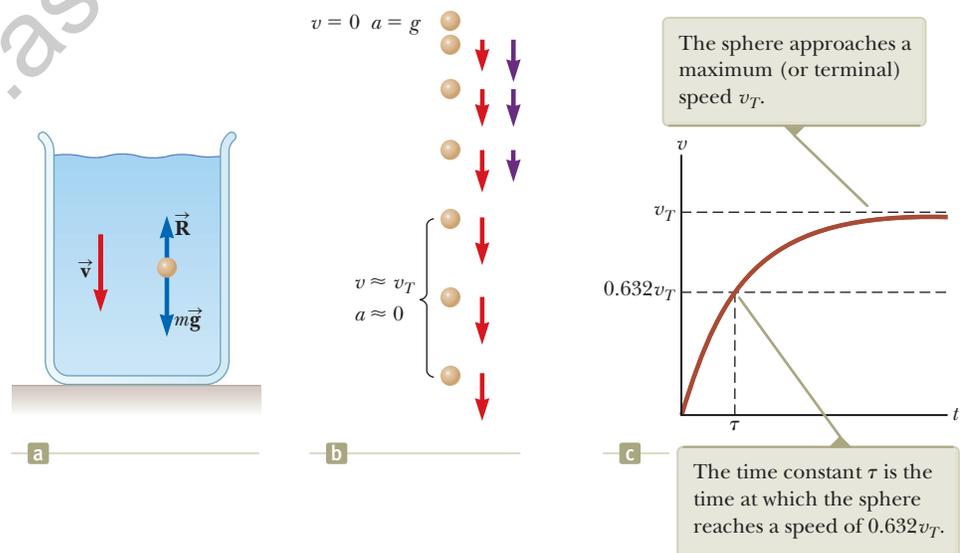


Figure 6.13 (a) A small sphere falling through a liquid. (b) A motion diagram of the sphere as it falls. Velocity vectors (red) and acceleration vectors (violet) are shown for each image after the first one. (c) A speed–time graph for the sphere.

¹A *buoyant force* is also acting on the submerged object. This force is constant, and its magnitude is equal to the weight of the displaced liquid. This force can be modeled by changing the apparent weight of the sphere by a constant factor, so we will ignore the force here. We will discuss buoyant forces in Chapter 14.

circle under a net force. Applying Newton's second law to the vertical motion of the sphere and choosing the downward direction to be positive, we obtain

$$\sum F_y = ma \rightarrow mg - bv = ma \quad (6.3)$$

where the acceleration of the sphere is downward. Noting that the acceleration a is equal to dv/dt gives

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = g - \frac{b}{m}v \quad (6.4)$$

This equation is called a *differential equation*, and the methods of solving it may not be familiar to you as yet. Notice, however, that initially when $v = 0$, the magnitude of the resistive force is also zero and the acceleration of the sphere is simply g . As t increases, the magnitude of the resistive force increases and the acceleration decreases. The acceleration approaches zero when the magnitude of the resistive force approaches the sphere's weight so that the net force on the sphere is zero. In this situation, the speed of the sphere approaches its **terminal speed** v_T .

Terminal speed

The terminal speed is obtained from Equation 6.4 by setting $dv/dt = 0$, which gives

$$mg - bv_T = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad v_T = \frac{mg}{b} \quad (6.5)$$

Because you may not be familiar with differential equations yet, we won't show the details of the process that gives the expression for v for all times t . If $v = 0$ at $t = 0$, this expression is

$$v = \frac{mg}{b}(1 - e^{-bt/m}) = v_T(1 - e^{-t/\tau}) \quad (6.6)$$

This function is plotted in Figure 6.13c. The symbol e represents the base of the natural logarithm and is also called *Euler's number*: $e = 2.71828$. The **time constant** $\tau = m/b$ (Greek letter tau) is the time at which the sphere released from rest at $t = 0$ reaches 63.2% of its terminal speed; when $t = \tau$, Equation 6.6 yields $v = 0.632v_T$. (The number 0.632 is $1 - e^{-1}$.)

We can check that Equation 6.6 is a solution to Equation 6.4 by direct differentiation:

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{mg}{b}(1 - e^{-bt/m}) \right] = \frac{mg}{b} \left(0 + \frac{b}{m} e^{-bt/m} \right) = g e^{-bt/m}$$

(See Appendix Table B.4 for the derivative of e raised to some power.) Substituting into Equation 6.4 both this expression for dv/dt and the expression for v given by Equation 6.6 shows that our solution satisfies the differential equation.

Example 6.8 Sphere Falling in Oil AM

A small sphere of mass 2.00 g is released from rest in a large vessel filled with oil, where it experiences a resistive force proportional to its speed. The sphere reaches a terminal speed of 5.00 cm/s. Determine the time constant τ and the time at which the sphere reaches 90.0% of its terminal speed.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize With the help of Figure 6.13, imagine dropping the sphere into the oil and watching it sink to the bottom of the vessel. If you have some thick shampoo in a clear container, drop a marble in it and observe the motion of the marble.

Categorize We model the sphere as a *particle under a net force*, with one of the forces being a resistive force that depends on the speed of the sphere. This model leads to the result in Equation 6.5.

Analyze From Equation 6.5, evaluate the coefficient b : $b = \frac{mg}{v_T}$

continued

6.8 continued

Evaluate the time constant τ :

$$\tau = \frac{m}{b} = m \left(\frac{v_T}{mg} \right) = \frac{v_T}{g}$$

Substitute numerical values:

$$\tau = \frac{5.00 \text{ cm/s}}{980 \text{ cm/s}^2} = 5.10 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}$$

Find the time t at which the sphere reaches a speed of $0.900v_T$ by setting $v = 0.900v_T$ in Equation 6.6 and solving for t :

$$0.900v_T = v_T(1 - e^{-t/\tau})$$

$$1 - e^{-t/\tau} = 0.900$$

$$e^{-t/\tau} = 0.100$$

$$-\frac{t}{\tau} = \ln(0.100) = -2.30$$

$$t = 2.30\tau = 2.30(5.10 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}) = 11.7 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}$$

$$= 11.7 \text{ ms}$$

Finalize The sphere reaches 90.0% of its terminal speed in a very short time interval. You should have also seen this behavior if you performed the activity with the marble and the shampoo. Because of the short time interval required to reach terminal velocity, you may not have noticed the time interval at all. The marble may have appeared to immediately begin moving through the shampoo at a constant velocity.

Model 2: Resistive Force Proportional to Object Speed Squared

For objects moving at high speeds through air, such as airplanes, skydivers, cars, and baseballs, the resistive force is reasonably well modeled as proportional to the square of the speed. In these situations, the magnitude of the resistive force can be expressed as

$$R = \frac{1}{2}D\rho Av^2 \quad (6.7)$$

where D is a dimensionless empirical quantity called the *drag coefficient*, ρ is the density of air, and A is the cross-sectional area of the moving object measured in a plane perpendicular to its velocity. The drag coefficient has a value of about 0.5 for spherical objects but can have a value as great as 2 for irregularly shaped objects.

Let us analyze the motion of a falling object subject to an upward air resistive force of magnitude $R = \frac{1}{2}D\rho Av^2$. Suppose an object of mass m is released from rest. As Figure 6.14 shows, the object experiences two external forces:² the downward gravitational force $\vec{F}_g = m\vec{g}$ and the upward resistive force \vec{R} . Hence, the magnitude of the net force is

$$\sum F = mg - \frac{1}{2}D\rho Av^2 \quad (6.8)$$

where we have taken downward to be the positive vertical direction. Modeling the object as a particle under a net force, with the net force given by Equation 6.8, we find that the object has a downward acceleration of magnitude

$$a = g - \left(\frac{D\rho A}{2m} \right) v^2 \quad (6.9)$$

We can calculate the terminal speed v_T by noticing that when the gravitational force is balanced by the resistive force, the net force on the object is zero and therefore its acceleration is zero. Setting $a = 0$ in Equation 6.9 gives

$$g - \left(\frac{D\rho A}{2m} \right) v_T^2 = 0$$

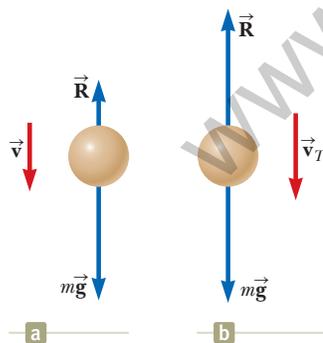


Figure 6.14 (a) An object falling through air experiences a resistive force \vec{R} and a gravitational force $\vec{F}_g = m\vec{g}$. (b) The object reaches terminal speed when the net force acting on it is zero, that is, when $\vec{R} = -\vec{F}_g$ or $R = mg$.

²As with Model 1, there is also an upward buoyant force that we neglect.

Table 6.1 Terminal Speed for Various Objects Falling Through Air

| Object | Mass (kg) | Cross-Sectional Area (m ²) | v_T (m/s) |
|----------------------------|----------------------|--|-------------|
| Skydiver | 75 | 0.70 | 60 |
| Baseball (radius 3.7 cm) | 0.145 | 4.2×10^{-3} | 43 |
| Golf ball (radius 2.1 cm) | 0.046 | 1.4×10^{-3} | 44 |
| Hailstone (radius 0.50 cm) | 4.8×10^{-4} | 7.9×10^{-5} | 14 |
| Raindrop (radius 0.20 cm) | 3.4×10^{-5} | 1.3×10^{-5} | 9.0 |

so

$$v_T = \sqrt{\frac{2mg}{D\rho A}} \quad (6.10)$$

Table 6.1 lists the terminal speeds for several objects falling through air.

- Quick Quiz 6.4** A baseball and a basketball, having the same mass, are dropped through air from rest such that their bottoms are initially at the same height above the ground, on the order of 1 m or more. Which one strikes the ground first? (a) The baseball strikes the ground first. (b) The basketball strikes the ground first. (c) Both strike the ground at the same time.

Conceptual Example 6.9

The Skysurfer

Consider a skysurfer (Fig. 6.15) who jumps from a plane with his feet attached firmly to his surfboard, does some tricks, and then opens his parachute. Describe the forces acting on him during these maneuvers.

SOLUTION

When the surfer first steps out of the plane, he has no vertical velocity. The downward gravitational force causes him to accelerate toward the ground. As his downward speed increases, so does the upward resistive force exerted by the air on his body and the board. This upward force reduces their acceleration, and so their speed increases more slowly. Eventually, they are going so fast that the upward resistive force matches the downward gravitational force. Now the net force is zero and they no longer accelerate, but instead reach their terminal speed. At some point after reaching terminal speed, he opens his parachute, resulting in a drastic increase in the upward resistive force. The net force (and therefore the acceleration) is now upward, in the direction opposite the direction of the velocity. The downward velocity therefore decreases rapidly, and the resistive force on the parachute also decreases. Eventually, the upward resistive force and the downward gravitational force balance each other again and a much smaller terminal speed is reached, permitting a safe landing.

(Contrary to popular belief, the velocity vector of a skydiver never points upward. You may have seen a video in which a skydiver appears to “rocket” upward once the parachute opens. In fact, what happens is that the skydiver slows down but the person holding the camera continues falling at high speed.)



Oliver Furrer/Jupiter Images

Figure 6.15 (Conceptual Example 6.9) A skysurfer.

Example 6.10

Falling Coffee Filters AM

The dependence of resistive force on the square of the speed is a simplification model. Let's test the model for a specific situation. Imagine an experiment in which we drop a series of bowl-shaped, pleated coffee filters and measure their terminal speeds. Table 6.2 on page 166 presents typical terminal speed data from a real experiment using these coffee filters as

continued

6.10 continued

they fall through the air. The time constant τ is small, so a dropped filter quickly reaches terminal speed. Each filter has a mass of 1.64 g. When the filters are nested together, they combine in such a way that the front-facing surface area does not increase. Determine the relationship between the resistive force exerted by the air and the speed of the falling filters.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Imagine dropping the coffee filters through the air. (If you have some coffee filters, try dropping them.) Because of the relatively small mass of the coffee filter, you probably won't notice the time interval during which there is an acceleration. The filters will appear to fall at constant velocity immediately upon leaving your hand.

Categorize Because a filter moves at constant velocity, we model it as a *particle in equilibrium*.

Analyze At terminal speed, the upward resistive force on the filter balances the downward gravitational force so that $R = mg$.

Evaluate the magnitude of the resistive force:

$$R = mg = (1.64 \text{ g}) \left(\frac{1 \text{ kg}}{1000 \text{ g}} \right) (9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) = 0.0161 \text{ N}$$

Likewise, two filters nested together experience 0.0322 N of resistive force, and so forth. These values of resistive force are shown in the far right column of Table 6.2. A graph of the resistive force on the filters as a function of terminal speed is shown in Figure 6.16a. A straight line is not a good fit, indicating that the resistive force is *not* proportional to the speed. The behavior is more clearly seen in Figure 6.16b, in which the resistive force is plotted as a function of the square of the terminal speed. This graph indicates that the resistive force is proportional to the *square* of the speed as suggested by Equation 6.7.

Finalize Here is a good opportunity for you to take some actual data at home on real coffee filters and see if you can reproduce the results shown in Figure 6.16. If you have shampoo and a marble as mentioned in Example 6.8, take data on that system too and see if the resistive force is appropriately modeled as being proportional to the speed.

Table 6.2 Terminal Speed and Resistive Force for Nested Coffee Filters

| Number of Filters | v_T (m/s) ^a | R (N) |
|-------------------|--------------------------|---------|
| 1 | 1.01 | 0.0161 |
| 2 | 1.40 | 0.0322 |
| 3 | 1.63 | 0.0483 |
| 4 | 2.00 | 0.0644 |
| 5 | 2.25 | 0.0805 |
| 6 | 2.40 | 0.0966 |
| 7 | 2.57 | 0.1127 |
| 8 | 2.80 | 0.1288 |
| 9 | 3.05 | 0.1449 |
| 10 | 3.22 | 0.1610 |

^aAll values of v_T are approximate.

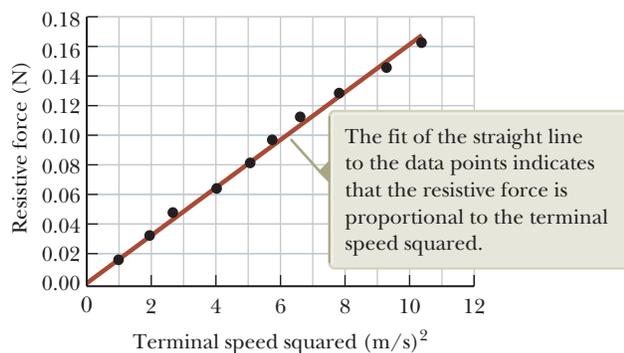
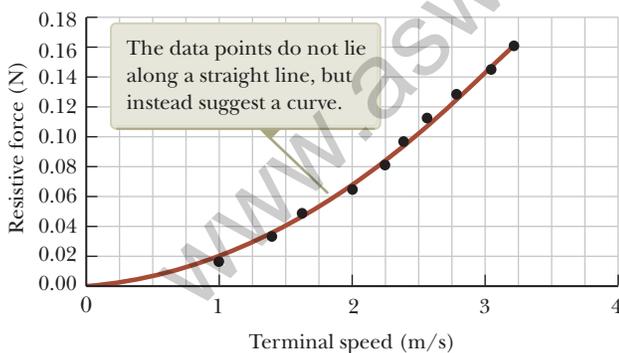


Figure 6.16 (Example 6.10) (a) Relationship between the resistive force acting on falling coffee filters and their terminal speed. (b) Graph relating the resistive force to the square of the terminal speed.

Example 6.11 Resistive Force Exerted on a Baseball

AM

A pitcher hurls a 0.145-kg baseball past a batter at 40.2 m/s (= 90 mi/h). Find the resistive force acting on the ball at this speed.

6.11 continued

SOLUTION

Conceptualize This example is different from the previous ones in that the object is now moving horizontally through the air instead of moving vertically under the influence of gravity and the resistive force. The resistive force causes the ball to slow down, and gravity causes its trajectory to curve downward. We simplify the situation by assuming the velocity vector is exactly horizontal at the instant it is traveling at 40.2 m/s.

Categorize In general, the ball is a *particle under a net force*. Because we are considering only one instant of time, however, we are not concerned about acceleration, so the problem involves only finding the value of one of the forces.

Analyze To determine the drag coefficient D , imagine that we drop the baseball and allow it to reach terminal speed. Solve Equation 6.10 for D :

$$D = \frac{2mg}{v_T^2 \rho A}$$

Use this expression for D in Equation 6.7 to find an expression for the magnitude of the resistive force:

$$R = \frac{1}{2} D \rho A v^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{2mg}{v_T^2 \rho A} \right) \rho A v^2 = mg \left(\frac{v}{v_T} \right)^2$$

Substitute numerical values, using the terminal speed from Table 6.1:

$$R = (0.145 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \left(\frac{40.2 \text{ m/s}}{43 \text{ m/s}} \right)^2 = 1.2 \text{ N}$$

Finalize The magnitude of the resistive force is similar in magnitude to the weight of the baseball, which is about 1.4 N. Therefore, air resistance plays a major role in the motion of the ball, as evidenced by the variety of curve balls, floaters, sinkers, and the like thrown by baseball pitchers.

Summary

Concepts and Principles

A particle moving in uniform circular motion has a centripetal acceleration; this acceleration must be provided by a net force directed toward the center of the circular path.

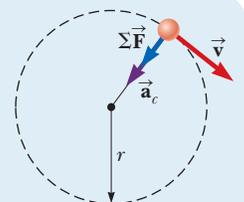
An observer in a noninertial (accelerating) frame of reference introduces **fictitious forces** when applying Newton's second law in that frame.

An object moving through a liquid or gas experiences a speed-dependent **resistive force**. This resistive force is in a direction opposite that of the velocity of the object relative to the medium and generally increases with speed. The magnitude of the resistive force depends on the object's size and shape and on the properties of the medium through which the object is moving. In the limiting case for a falling object, when the magnitude of the resistive force equals the object's weight, the object reaches its **terminal speed**.

Analysis Model for Problem-Solving

Particle in Uniform Circular Motion (Extension) With our new knowledge of forces, we can extend the model of a particle in uniform circular motion, first introduced in Chapter 4. Newton's second law applied to a particle moving in uniform circular motion states that the net force causing the particle to undergo a centripetal acceleration (Eq. 4.14) is related to the acceleration according to

$$\sum F = ma_c = m \frac{v^2}{r} \quad (6.1)$$



Objective Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

1. A child is practicing for a BMX race. His speed remains constant as he goes counterclockwise around a level track with two straight sections and two nearly semicircular sections as shown in the aerial view of Figure OQ6.1. (a) Rank the magnitudes of his acceleration at the points A, B, C, D, and E from largest to smallest. If his acceleration is the same size at two points, display that fact in your ranking. If his acceleration is zero, display that fact. (b) What are the directions of his velocity at points A, B, and C? For each point, choose one: north, south, east, west, or nonexistent. (c) What are the directions of his acceleration at points A, B, and C?

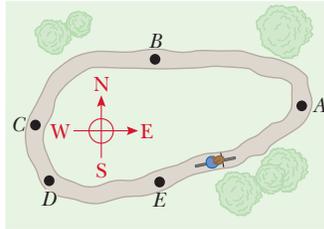


Figure OQ6.1

2. Consider a skydiver who has stepped from a helicopter and is falling through air. Before she reaches terminal speed and long before she opens her parachute, does her speed (a) increase, (b) decrease, or (c) stay constant?
3. A door in a hospital has a pneumatic closer that pulls the door shut such that the doorknob moves with constant speed over most of its path. In this part of its motion, (a) does the doorknob experience a centripetal acceleration? (b) Does it experience a tangential acceleration?
4. A pendulum consists of a small object called a bob hanging from a light cord of fixed length, with the top end of the cord fixed, as represented in Figure OQ6.4. The bob moves without friction, swinging equally high on both sides. It moves from its turning point A through point B and reaches its maximum speed at point C. (a) Of these points, is there a point where the bob has nonzero radial acceleration and zero tangential acceleration? If so, which point? What is the

direction of its total acceleration at this point? (b) Of these points, is there a point where the bob has nonzero tangential acceleration and zero radial acceleration? If so, which point? What is the direction of its total acceleration at this point? (c) Is there a point where the bob has no acceleration? If so, which point? (d) Is there a point where the bob has both nonzero tangential and radial acceleration? If so, which point? What is the direction of its total acceleration at this point?

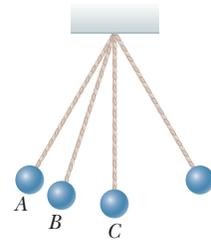


Figure OQ6.4

5. As a raindrop falls through the atmosphere, its speed initially changes as it falls toward the Earth. Before the raindrop reaches its terminal speed, does the magnitude of its acceleration (a) increase, (b) decrease, (c) stay constant at zero, (d) stay constant at 9.80 m/s^2 , or (e) stay constant at some other value?
6. An office door is given a sharp push and swings open against a pneumatic device that slows the door down and then reverses its motion. At the moment the door is open the widest, (a) does the doorknob have a centripetal acceleration? (b) Does it have a tangential acceleration?
7. Before takeoff on an airplane, an inquisitive student on the plane dangles an iPod by its earphone wire. It hangs straight down as the plane is at rest waiting to take off. The plane then gains speed rapidly as it moves down the runway. (i) Relative to the student's hand, does the iPod (a) shift toward the front of the plane, (b) continue to hang straight down, or (c) shift toward the back of the plane? (ii) The speed of the plane increases at a constant rate over a time interval of several seconds. During this interval, does the angle the earphone wire makes with the vertical (a) increase, (b) stay constant, or (c) decrease?

Conceptual Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

1. What forces cause (a) an automobile, (b) a propeller-driven airplane, and (c) a rowboat to move?
2. A falling skydiver reaches terminal speed with her parachute closed. After the parachute is opened, what parameters change to decrease this terminal speed?
3. An object executes circular motion with constant speed whenever a net force of constant magnitude acts perpendicular to the velocity. What happens to the speed if the force is not perpendicular to the velocity?
4. Describe the path of a moving body in the event that (a) its acceleration is constant in magnitude at all times and perpendicular to the velocity, and (b) its accelera-

tion is constant in magnitude at all times and parallel to the velocity.

5. The observer in the accelerating elevator of Example 5.8 would claim that the "weight" of the fish is T , the scale reading, but this answer is obviously wrong. Why does this observation differ from that of a person outside the elevator, at rest with respect to the Earth?
6. If someone told you that astronauts are weightless in orbit because they are beyond the pull of gravity, would you accept the statement? Explain.
7. It has been suggested that rotating cylinders about 20 km in length and 8 km in diameter be placed in

- space and used as colonies. The purpose of the rotation is to simulate gravity for the inhabitants. Explain this concept for producing an effective imitation of gravity.
- Consider a small raindrop and a large raindrop falling through the atmosphere. (a) Compare their terminal speeds. (b) What are their accelerations when they reach terminal speed?
 - Why does a pilot tend to black out when pulling out of a steep dive?
 - A pail of water can be whirled in a vertical path such that no water is spilled. Why does the water stay in the pail, even when the pail is above your head?
 - “If the current position and velocity of every particle in the Universe were known, together with the laws describing the forces that particles exert on one another, the whole future of the Universe could be calculated. The future is determinate and preordained. Free will is an illusion.” Do you agree with this thesis? Argue for or against it.

Problems

WebAssign

The problems found in this chapter may be assigned online in Enhanced WebAssign

- straightforward; 2. intermediate; 3. challenging

1. full solution available in the *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

AMT Analysis Model tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

GP Guided Problem

M Master It tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

W Watch It video solution available in Enhanced WebAssign

Section 6.1 Extending the Particle in Uniform Circular Motion Model

- AMT** **M** A light string can support a stationary hanging load of 25.0 kg before breaking. An object of mass $m = 3.00$ kg attached to the string rotates on a frictionless, horizontal table in a circle of radius $r = 0.800$ m, and the other end of the string is held fixed as in Figure P6.1. What range of speeds can the object have before the string breaks?

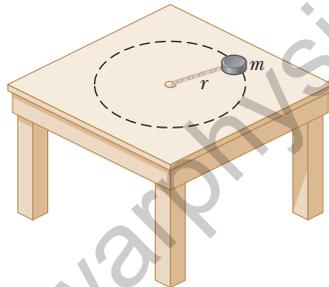


Figure P6.1

- Whenever two *Apollo* astronauts were on the surface of the Moon, a third astronaut orbited the Moon. Assume the orbit to be circular and 100 km above the surface of the Moon, where the acceleration due to gravity is 1.52 m/s^2 . The radius of the Moon is 1.70×10^6 m. Determine (a) the astronaut's orbital speed and (b) the period of the orbit.
- In the Bohr model of the hydrogen atom, an electron moves in a circular path around a proton. The speed of the electron is approximately 2.20×10^6 m/s. Find (a) the force acting on the electron as it revolves in a circular orbit of radius 0.529×10^{-10} m and (b) the centripetal acceleration of the electron.
- A curve in a road forms part of a horizontal circle. As a car goes around it at constant speed 14.0 m/s, the total horizontal force on the driver has magnitude 130 N.

What is the total horizontal force on the driver if the speed on the same curve is 18.0 m/s instead?

- In a cyclotron (one type of particle accelerator), a deuteron (of mass 2.00 u) reaches a final speed of 10.0% of the speed of light while moving in a circular path of radius 0.480 m. What magnitude of magnetic force is required to maintain the deuteron in a circular path?

- W** A car initially traveling eastward turns north by traveling in a circular path at uniform speed as shown in Figure P6.6. The length of the arc ABC is 235 m, and the car completes the turn in 36.0 s. (a) What is the acceleration when the car is at B located at an angle of 35.0° ? Express your answer in terms of the unit vectors \hat{i} and \hat{j} . Determine (b) the car's average speed and (c) its average acceleration during the 36.0-s interval.

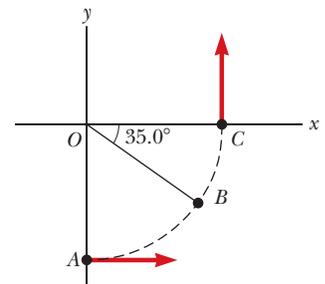


Figure P6.6

- A space station, in the form of a wheel 120 m in diameter, rotates to provide an “artificial gravity” of 3.00 m/s^2 for persons who walk around on the inner wall of the outer rim. Find the rate of the wheel's rotation in revolutions per minute that will produce this effect.
- Consider a conical pendulum (Fig. P6.8) with a bob of mass $m = 80.0$ kg on a string of length $L = 10.0$ m that makes an angle of $\theta = 5.00^\circ$ with the vertical. Determine (a) the horizontal and vertical components of the

force exerted by the string on the pendulum and (b) the radial acceleration of the bob.

- 9.** A coin placed 30.0 cm from the center of a rotating, horizontal turntable slips when its speed is 50.0 cm/s. (a) What force causes the centripetal acceleration when the coin is stationary relative to the turntable? (b) What is the coefficient of static friction between coin and turntable?

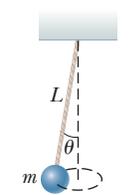


Figure P6.8

- 10.** Why is the following situation impossible? The object of mass $m = 4.00$ kg in Figure P6.10 is attached to a vertical rod by two strings of length $\ell = 2.00$ m. The strings are attached to the rod at points a distance $d = 3.00$ m apart. The object rotates in a horizontal circle at a constant speed of $v = 3.00$ m/s, and the strings remain taut. The rod rotates along with the object so that the strings do not wrap onto the rod. **What If?** Could this situation be possible on another planet?

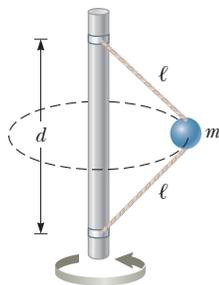


Figure P6.10

- 11.** A crate of eggs is located in the middle of the flatbed of a pickup truck as the truck negotiates a curve in the flat road. The curve may be regarded as an arc of a circle of radius 35.0 m. If the coefficient of static friction between crate and truck is 0.600, how fast can the truck be moving without the crate sliding?

Section 6.2 Nonuniform Circular Motion

- 12.** A pail of water is rotated in a vertical circle of radius 1.00 m. (a) What two external forces act on the water in the pail? (b) Which of the two forces is most important in causing the water to move in a circle? (c) What is the pail's minimum speed at the top of the circle if no water is to spill out? (d) Assume the pail with the speed found in part (c) were to suddenly disappear at the top of the circle. Describe the subsequent motion of the water. Would it differ from the motion of a projectile?

- 13.** A hawk flies in a horizontal arc of radius 12.0 m at constant speed 4.00 m/s. (a) Find its centripetal acceleration. (b) It continues to fly along the same horizontal arc, but increases its speed at the rate of 1.20 m/s². Find the acceleration (magnitude and direction) in this situation at the moment the hawk's speed is 4.00 m/s.

- 14.** A 40.0-kg child swings in a swing supported by two chains, each 3.00 m long. The tension in each chain at the lowest point is 350 N. Find (a) the child's speed at the lowest point and (b) the force exerted by the seat on the child at the lowest point. (Ignore the mass of the seat.)

- 15.** A child of mass m swings in a swing supported by two chains, each of length R . If the tension in each chain at the lowest point is T , find (a) the child's speed at the lowest point and (b) the force exerted by the seat on the child at the lowest point. (Ignore the mass of the seat.)

- 16.** A roller-coaster car (Fig. P6.16) has a mass of 500 kg when fully loaded with passengers. The path of the coaster from its initial point shown in the figure to point **B** involves only up-and-down motion (as seen by the riders), with no motion to the left or right. (a) If the vehicle has a speed of 20.0 m/s at point **A**, what is the force exerted by the track on the car at this point? (b) What is the maximum speed the vehicle can have at point **B** and still remain on the track? Assume the roller-coaster tracks at points **A** and **B** are parts of vertical circles of radius $r_1 = 10.0$ m and $r_2 = 15.0$ m, respectively.

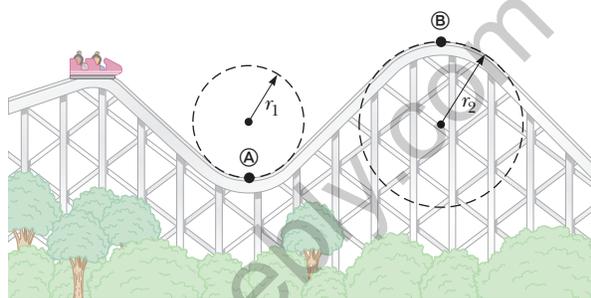


Figure P6.16 Problems 16 and 38.

- 17.** A roller coaster at the Six Flags Great America amusement park in Gurnee, Illinois, incorporates some clever design technology and some basic physics. Each vertical loop, instead of being circular, is shaped like a teardrop (Fig. P6.17). The cars ride on the inside of the loop at the top, and the speeds are fast enough to ensure the cars remain on the track.



Figure P6.17

The biggest loop is 40.0 m high. Suppose the speed at the top of the loop is 13.0 m/s and the corresponding centripetal acceleration of the riders is $2g$. (a) What is the radius of the arc of the teardrop at the top? (b) If the total mass of a car plus the riders is M , what force does the rail exert on the car at the top? (c) Suppose the roller coaster had a circular loop of radius 20.0 m. If the cars have the same speed, 13.0 m/s at the top, what is the centripetal acceleration of the riders at the top? (d) Comment on the normal force at the top in the situation described in part (c) and on the advantages of having teardrop-shaped loops.

- 18.** One end of a cord is fixed and a small 0.500-kg object is attached to the other end, where it swings in a section of a vertical circle of radius 2.00 m as shown in Figure P6.18. When $\theta = 20.0^\circ$, the speed of the object is 8.00 m/s. At this instant, find (a) the tension in the string, (b) the tangential and radial components of acceleration, and (c) the total acceleration. (d) Is your answer changed if the object is swinging down toward its

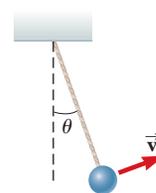


Figure P6.18

lowest point instead of swinging up? (e) Explain your answer to part (d).

19. An adventurous archeologist ($m = 85.0$ kg) tries to cross a river by swinging from a vine. The vine is 10.0 m long, and his speed at the bottom of the swing is 8.00 m/s. The archeologist doesn't know that the vine has a breaking strength of $1\,000$ N. Does he make it across the river without falling in?

Section 6.3 Motion in Accelerated Frames

20. An object of mass $m = 5.00$ kg, attached to a spring scale, rests on a frictionless, horizontal surface as shown in Figure P6.20. The spring scale, attached to the front end of a boxcar, reads zero when the car is at rest. (a) Determine the acceleration of the car if the spring scale has a constant reading of 18.0 N when the car is in motion. (b) What constant reading will the spring scale show if the car moves with constant velocity? Describe the forces on the object as observed (c) by someone in the car and (d) by someone at rest outside the car.

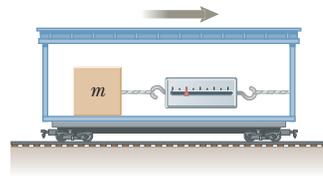


Figure P6.20

21. An object of mass $m = 0.500$ kg is suspended from the ceiling of an accelerating truck as shown in Figure P6.21. Taking $a = 3.00$ m/s², find (a) the angle θ that the string makes with the vertical and (b) the tension T in the string.

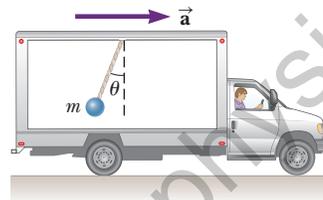


Figure P6.21

22. A child lying on her back experiences 55.0 N tension in the muscles on both sides of her neck when she raises her head to look past her toes. Later, sliding feet first down a water slide at terminal speed 5.70 m/s and riding high on the outside wall of a horizontal curve of radius 2.40 m, she raises her head again to look forward past her toes. Find the tension in the muscles on both sides of her neck while she is sliding.
23. A person stands on a scale in an elevator. As the elevator starts, the scale has a constant reading of 591 N. As the elevator later stops, the scale reading is 391 N. Assuming the magnitude of the acceleration is the same during starting and stopping, determine (a) the weight of the person, (b) the person's mass, and (c) the acceleration of the elevator.
24. **Review.** A student, along with her backpack on the floor next to her, are in an elevator that is accelerating upward with acceleration a . The student gives her backpack a quick kick at $t = 0$, imparting to it speed v and causing it to slide across the elevator floor. At time t , the backpack hits the opposite wall a distance L away from the student. Find the coefficient

of kinetic friction μ_k between the backpack and the elevator floor.

25. A small container of water is placed on a turntable inside a microwave oven, at a radius of 12.0 cm from the center. The turntable rotates steadily, turning one revolution in each 7.25 s. What angle does the water surface make with the horizontal?

Section 6.4 Motion in the Presence of Resistive Forces

26. **Review.** (a) Estimate the terminal speed of a wooden sphere (density 0.830 g/cm³) falling through air, taking its radius as 8.00 cm and its drag coefficient as 0.500 . (b) From what height would a freely falling object reach this speed in the absence of air resistance?
27. The mass of a sports car is $1\,200$ kg. The shape of the body is such that the aerodynamic drag coefficient is 0.250 and the frontal area is 2.20 m². Ignoring all other sources of friction, calculate the initial acceleration the car has if it has been traveling at 100 km/h and is now shifted into neutral and allowed to coast.
28. A skydiver of mass 80.0 kg jumps from a slow-moving aircraft and reaches a terminal speed of 50.0 m/s. (a) What is her acceleration when her speed is 30.0 m/s? What is the drag force on the skydiver when her speed is (b) 50.0 m/s and (c) 30.0 m/s?
29. Calculate the force required to pull a copper ball of radius 2.00 cm upward through a fluid at the constant speed 9.00 cm/s. Take the drag force to be proportional to the speed, with proportionality constant 0.950 kg/s. Ignore the buoyant force.
30. A small piece of Styrofoam packing material is dropped from a height of 2.00 m above the ground. Until it reaches terminal speed, the magnitude of its acceleration is given by $a = g - Bv$. After falling 0.500 m, the Styrofoam effectively reaches terminal speed and then takes 5.00 s more to reach the ground. (a) What is the value of the constant B ? (b) What is the acceleration at $t = 0$? (c) What is the acceleration when the speed is 0.150 m/s?
31. A small, spherical bead of mass 3.00 g is released from rest at $t = 0$ from a point under the surface of a viscous liquid. The terminal speed is observed to be $v_T = 2.00$ cm/s. Find (a) the value of the constant b that appears in Equation 6.2, (b) the time t at which the bead reaches $0.632v_T$, and (c) the value of the resistive force when the bead reaches terminal speed.
32. At major league baseball games, it is commonplace to flash on the scoreboard a speed for each pitch. This speed is determined with a radar gun aimed by an operator positioned behind home plate. The gun uses the Doppler shift of microwaves reflected from the baseball, an effect we will study in Chapter 39. The gun determines the speed at some particular point on the baseball's path, depending on when the operator pulls the trigger. Because the ball is subject to a drag force due to air proportional to the square of its speed given by $R = kmv^2$, it slows as it travels 18.3 m toward the

plate according to the formula $v = v_i e^{-kx}$. Suppose the ball leaves the pitcher's hand at $90.0 \text{ mi/h} = 40.2 \text{ m/s}$. Ignore its vertical motion. Use the calculation of R for baseballs from Example 6.11 to determine the speed of the pitch when the ball crosses the plate.

33. Assume the resistive force acting on a speed skater is proportional to the square of the skater's speed v and is given by $f = -kmv^2$, where k is a constant and m is the skater's mass. The skater crosses the finish line of a straight-line race with speed v_i and then slows down by coasting on his skates. Show that the skater's speed at any time t after crossing the finish line is $v(t) = v_i/(1 + ktv_i)$.

34. **Review.** A window washer pulls a rubber squeegee down a very tall vertical window. The squeegee has mass 160 g and is mounted on the end of a light rod. The coefficient of kinetic friction between the squeegee and the dry glass is 0.900 . The window washer presses it against the window with a force having a horizontal component of 4.00 N . (a) If she pulls the squeegee down the window at constant velocity, what vertical force component must she exert? (b) The window washer increases the downward force component by 25.0% , while all other forces remain the same. Find the squeegee's acceleration in this situation. (c) The squeegee is moved into a wet portion of the window, where its motion is resisted by a fluid drag force R proportional to its velocity according to $R = -20.0v$, where R is in newtons and v is in meters per second. Find the terminal velocity that the squeegee approaches, assuming the window washer exerts the same force described in part (b).

35. A motorboat cuts its engine when its speed is 10.0 m/s and then coasts to rest. The equation describing the motion of the motorboat during this period is $v = v_i e^{-ct}$, where v is the speed at time t , v_i is the initial speed at $t = 0$, and c is a constant. At $t = 20.0 \text{ s}$, the speed is 5.00 m/s . (a) Find the constant c . (b) What is the speed at $t = 40.0 \text{ s}$? (c) Differentiate the expression for $v(t)$ and thus show that the acceleration of the boat is proportional to the speed at any time.

36. You can feel a force of air drag on your hand if you stretch your arm out of the open window of a speeding car. *Note:* Do not endanger yourself. What is the order of magnitude of this force? In your solution, state the quantities you measure or estimate and their values.

Additional Problems

37. A car travels clockwise at constant speed around a circular section of a horizontal road as shown in the aerial view of Figure P6.37. Find the directions of its velocity and acceleration at (a) position A and (b) position B.

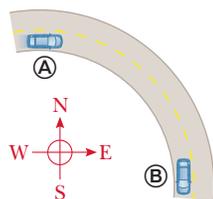


Figure P6.37

38. The mass of a roller-coaster car, including its passengers, is 500 kg . Its speed at the bottom of the track in Figure P6.16 is 19 m/s . The radius of this section of the track is

$r_1 = 25 \text{ m}$. Find the force that a seat in the roller-coaster car exerts on a 50-kg passenger at the lowest point.

39. A string under a tension of 50.0 N is used to whirl a rock in a horizontal circle of radius 2.50 m at a speed of 20.4 m/s on a frictionless surface as shown in Figure P6.39. As the string is pulled in, the speed of the rock increases. When the string on the table is 1.00 m long and the speed of the rock is 51.0 m/s , the string breaks. What is the breaking strength, in newtons, of the string?

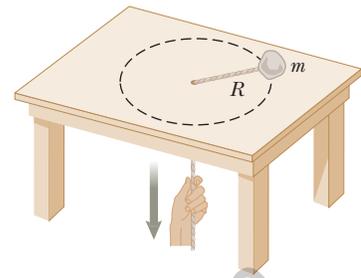


Figure P6.39

40. Disturbed by speeding cars outside his workplace, Nobel laureate Arthur Holly Compton designed a speed bump (called the "Holly hump") and had it installed. Suppose a 1800-kg car passes over a hump in a roadway that follows the arc of a circle of radius 20.4 m as shown in Figure P6.40. (a) If the car travels at 30.0 km/h , what force does the road exert on the car as the car passes the highest point of the hump? (b) **What If?** What is the maximum speed the car can have without losing contact with the road as it passes this highest point?



Figure P6.40

Problems 40 and 41.

41. A car of mass m passes over a hump in a road that follows the arc of a circle of radius R as shown in Figure P6.40. (a) If the car travels at a speed v , what force does the road exert on the car as the car passes the highest point of the hump? (b) **What If?** What is the maximum speed the car can have without losing contact with the road as it passes this highest point?

42. A child's toy consists of a small wedge that has an acute angle θ (Fig. P6.42). The sloping side of the wedge is frictionless, and an object of mass m on it remains at constant height if the wedge is spun at a certain constant speed. The wedge is spun by rotating, as an axis, a vertical rod that is firmly attached to the wedge at the bottom end.

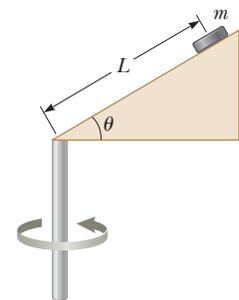


Figure P6.42

- Show that, when the object sits at rest at a point at distance L up along the wedge, the speed of the object must be $v = (gL \sin \theta)^{1/2}$.
43. A seaplane of total mass m lands on a lake with initial speed $v_i \hat{i}$. The only horizontal force on it is a resistive force on its pontoons from the water. The resistive force is proportional to the velocity of the seaplane: $\mathbf{R} = -bv\hat{i}$. Newton's second law applied to the plane is $-bv\hat{i} = m(dv/dt)\hat{i}$. From the fundamental theorem

of calculus, this differential equation implies that the speed changes according to

$$\int_{v_i}^v \frac{dv}{v} = -\frac{b}{m} \int_0^t dt$$

(a) Carry out the integration to determine the speed of the seaplane as a function of time. (b) Sketch a graph of the speed as a function of time. (c) Does the seaplane come to a complete stop after a finite interval of time? (d) Does the seaplane travel a finite distance in stopping?

44. An object of mass $m_1 =$

W 4.00 kg is tied to an object of mass $m_2 = 3.00$ kg with String 1 of length $\ell = 0.500$ m. The combination is swung in a vertical circular path on a second string, String 2, of length $\ell = 0.500$ m. During the motion, the two strings are collinear at all times as shown in Figure P6.44. At the top of its motion, m_2 is traveling at $v = 4.00$ m/s.

(a) What is the tension in String 1 at this instant?
 (b) What is the tension in String 2 at this instant?
 (c) Which string will break first if the combination is rotated faster and faster?

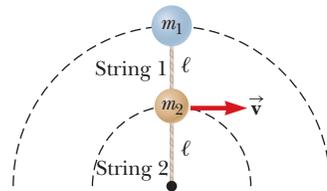


Figure P6.44

45. A ball of mass $m = 0.275$ kg swings in a vertical circular path on a string $L = 0.850$ m long as in Figure P6.45. (a) What are the forces acting on the ball at any point on the path? (b) Draw force diagrams for the ball when it is at the bottom of the circle and when it is at the top. (c) If its speed is 5.20 m/s at the top of the circle, what is the tension in the string there? (d) If the string breaks when its tension exceeds 22.5 N, what is the maximum speed the ball can have at the bottom before that happens?

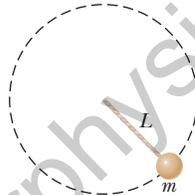


Figure P6.45

46. Why is the following situation impossible? A mischievous child goes to an amusement park with his family. On one ride, after a severe scolding from his mother, he slips out of his seat and climbs to the top of the ride's structure, which is shaped like a cone with its axis vertical and its sloped sides making an angle of $\theta = 20.0^\circ$ with the horizontal as shown in Figure P6.46. This part

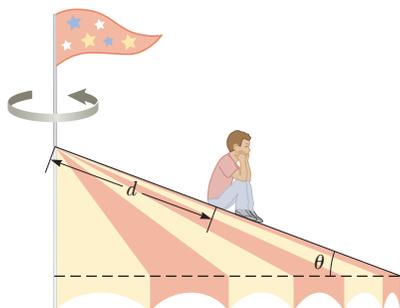


Figure P6.46

of the structure rotates about the vertical central axis when the ride operates. The child sits on the sloped surface at a point $d = 5.32$ m down the sloped side from the center of the cone and pouts. The coefficient of static friction between the boy and the cone is 0.700. The ride operator does not notice that the child has slipped away from his seat and so continues to operate the ride. As a result, the sitting, pouting boy rotates in a circular path at a speed of 3.75 m/s.

47. (a) A luggage carousel at an airport has the form of a section of a large cone, steadily rotating about its vertical axis. Its metallic surface slopes downward toward the outside, making an angle of 20.0° with the horizontal. A piece of luggage having mass 30.0 kg is placed on the carousel at a position 7.46 m measured horizontally from the axis of rotation. The travel bag goes around once in 38.0 s. Calculate the force of static friction exerted by the carousel on the bag. (b) The drive motor is shifted to turn the carousel at a higher constant rate of rotation, and the piece of luggage is bumped to another position, 7.94 m from the axis of rotation. Now going around once in every 34.0 s, the bag is on the verge of slipping down the sloped surface. Calculate the coefficient of static friction between the bag and the carousel.

48. In a home laundry dryer, a cylindrical tub containing wet clothes is rotated steadily about a horizontal axis as shown in Figure P6.48. So that the clothes will dry uniformly, they are made to tumble. The rate of rotation of the smooth-walled tub is chosen so that a small piece of cloth will lose contact with the tub when the cloth is at an angle of $\theta = 68.0^\circ$ above the horizontal. If the radius of the tub is $r = 0.330$ m, what rate of revolution is needed?

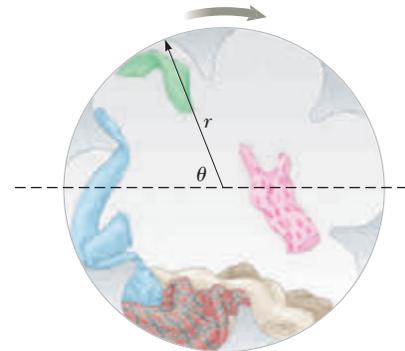


Figure P6.48

49. Interpret the graph in Figure 6.16(b), which describes the results for falling coffee filters discussed in Example 6.10. Proceed as follows. (a) Find the slope of the straight line, including its units. (b) From Equation 6.6, $R = \frac{1}{2} \rho A v^2$, identify the theoretical slope of a graph of resistive force versus squared speed. (c) Set the experimental and theoretical slopes equal to each other and proceed to calculate the drag coefficient of the filters. Model the cross-sectional area of the filters as that of a circle of radius 10.5 cm and take the density of air to be 1.20 kg/m³. (d) Arbitrarily choose the eighth data point on the graph and find its vertical

separation from the line of best fit. Express this scatter as a percentage. (e) In a short paragraph, state what the graph demonstrates and compare it with the theoretical prediction. You will need to make reference to the quantities plotted on the axes, to the shape of the graph line, to the data points, and to the results of parts (c) and (d).

50. A basin surrounding a drain has the shape of a circular cone opening upward, having everywhere an angle of 35.0° with the horizontal. A 25.0-g ice cube is set sliding around the cone without friction in a horizontal circle of radius R . (a) Find the speed the ice cube must have as a function of R . (b) Is any piece of data unnecessary for the solution? Suppose R is made two times larger. (c) Will the required speed increase, decrease, or stay constant? If it changes, by what factor? (d) Will the time required for each revolution increase, decrease, or stay constant? If it changes, by what factor? (e) Do the answers to parts (c) and (d) seem contradictory? Explain.

51. A truck is moving with constant acceleration a up a hill that makes an angle ϕ with the horizontal as in Figure P6.51. A small sphere of mass m is suspended from the ceiling of the truck by a light cord. If the pendulum makes a constant angle θ with the perpendicular to the ceiling, what is a ?

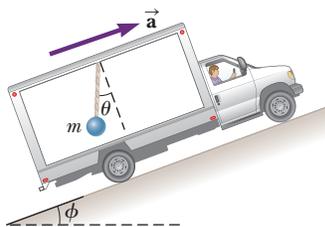


Figure P6.51

52. The pilot of an airplane executes a loop-the-loop maneuver in a vertical circle. The speed of the airplane is 300 mi/h at the top of the loop and 450 mi/h at the bottom, and the radius of the circle is 1 200 ft. (a) What is the pilot's apparent weight at the lowest point if his true weight is 160 lb? (b) What is his apparent weight at the highest point? (c) **What If?** Describe how the pilot could experience weightlessness if both the radius and the speed can be varied. *Note:* His apparent weight is equal to the magnitude of the force exerted by the seat on his body.
53. **Review.** While learning to drive, you are in a 1 200-kg car moving at 20.0 m/s across a large, vacant, level parking lot. Suddenly you realize you are heading straight toward the brick sidewall of a large supermarket and are in danger of running into it. The pavement can exert a maximum horizontal force of 7 000 N on the car. (a) Explain why you should expect the force to have a well-defined maximum value. (b) Suppose you apply the brakes and do not turn the steering wheel. Find the minimum distance you must be from the wall to avoid a collision. (c) If you do not brake but instead maintain constant speed and turn the steering wheel, what is the minimum distance you must be from the wall to avoid a collision? (d) Of the two methods in parts (b) and (c), which is better for avoiding a collision? Or should you use both the brakes and the steering wheel, or neither? Explain. (e) Does the conclusion

in part (d) depend on the numerical values given in this problem, or is it true in general? Explain.

54. A puck of mass m_1 is tied to a string and allowed to revolve in a circle of radius R on a frictionless, horizontal table. The other end of the string passes through a small hole in the center of the table, and an object of mass m_2 is tied to it (Fig. P6.54). The suspended object remains in equilibrium while the puck on the tabletop revolves. Find symbolic expressions for (a) the tension in the string, (b) the radial force acting on the puck, and (c) the speed of the puck. (d) Qualitatively describe what will happen in the motion of the puck if the value of m_2 is increased by placing a small additional load on the puck. (e) Qualitatively describe what will happen in the motion of the puck if the value of m_2 is instead decreased by removing a part of the hanging load.

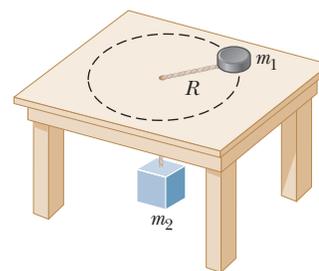


Figure P6.54

55. **M** Because the Earth rotates about its axis, a point on the equator experiences a centripetal acceleration of 0.0337 m/s^2 , whereas a point at the poles experiences no centripetal acceleration. If a person at the equator has a mass of 75.0 kg, calculate (a) the gravitational force (true weight) on the person and (b) the normal force (apparent weight) on the person. (c) Which force is greater? Assume the Earth is a uniform sphere and take $g = 9.800 \text{ m/s}^2$.

56. Galileo thought about whether acceleration should be defined as the rate of change of velocity over time or as the rate of change in velocity over distance. He chose the former, so let's use the name "vroomosity" for the rate of change of velocity over distance. For motion of a particle on a straight line with constant acceleration, the equation $v = v_i + at$ gives its velocity v as a function of time. Similarly, for a particle's linear motion with constant vroomosity k , the equation $v = v_i + kx$ gives the velocity as a function of the position x if the particle's speed is v_i at $x = 0$. (a) Find the law describing the total force acting on this object of mass m . (b) Describe an example of such a motion or explain why it is unrealistic. Consider (c) the possibility of k positive and (d) the possibility of k negative.

57. **AMT** **W** Figure P6.57 shows a photo of a swing ride at an amusement park. The structure consists of a horizontal, rotating, circular platform of diameter D from which seats of mass m are suspended at the end of massless chains of length d . When the system rotates at



Figure P6.57

constant speed, the chains swing outward and make an angle θ with the vertical. Consider such a ride with the following parameters: $D = 8.00$ m, $d = 2.50$ m, $m = 10.0$ kg, and $\theta = 28.0^\circ$. (a) What is the speed of each seat? (b) Draw a diagram of forces acting on the combination of a seat and a 40.0-kg child and (c) find the tension in the chain.

- 58. Review.** A piece of putty is initially located at point A on the rim of a grinding wheel rotating at constant angular speed about a horizontal axis. The putty is dislodged from point A when the diameter through A is horizontal. It then rises vertically and returns to A at the instant the wheel completes one revolution. From this information, we wish to find the speed v of the putty when it leaves the wheel and the force holding it to the wheel. (a) What analysis model is appropriate for the motion of the putty as it rises and falls? (b) Use this model to find a symbolic expression for the time interval between when the putty leaves point A and when it arrives back at A , in terms of v and g . (c) What is the appropriate analysis model to describe point A on the wheel? (d) Find the period of the motion of point A in terms of the tangential speed v and the radius R of the wheel. (e) Set the time interval from part (b) equal to the period from part (d) and solve for the speed v of the putty as it leaves the wheel. (f) If the mass of the putty is m , what is the magnitude of the force that held it to the wheel before it was released?

- 59.** An amusement park ride consists of a large vertical cylinder that spins about its axis fast enough that any person inside is held up against the wall when the floor drops away (Fig. P6.59). The coefficient of static friction between person and wall is μ_s , and the radius of the cylinder is R . (a) Show that the maximum period of revolution necessary to keep the person from falling is $T = (4\pi^2 R \mu_s / g)^{1/2}$. (b) If the rate of revolution of the cylinder is made to be somewhat larger, what happens to the magnitude of each one of the forces acting on the person? What happens in the motion of the person? (c) If the rate of revolution of the cylinder is instead made to be somewhat smaller, what happens to the magnitude of each one of the forces acting on the person? How does the motion of the person change?

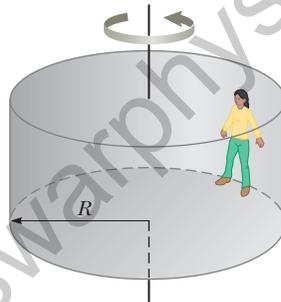


Figure P6.59

- 60.** Members of a skydiving club were given the following data to use in planning their jumps. In the table, d is the distance fallen from rest by a skydiver in a “free-fall stable spread position” versus the time of fall t . (a) Convert the distances in feet into meters. (b) Graph d (in meters) versus t . (c) Determine the value of the terminal speed v_T by finding the slope of the straight portion of the curve. Use a least-squares fit to determine this slope.

| t (s) | d (ft) | t (s) | d (ft) | t (s) | d (ft) |
|---------|----------|---------|----------|---------|----------|
| 0 | 0 | 7 | 652 | 14 | 1 831 |
| 1 | 16 | 8 | 808 | 15 | 2 005 |
| 2 | 62 | 9 | 971 | 16 | 2 179 |
| 3 | 138 | 10 | 1 138 | 17 | 2 353 |
| 4 | 242 | 11 | 1 309 | 18 | 2 527 |
| 5 | 366 | 12 | 1 483 | 19 | 2 701 |
| 6 | 504 | 13 | 1 657 | 20 | 2 875 |

- 61.** A car rounds a banked curve as discussed in Example 6.4 and shown in Figure 6.5. The radius of curvature of the road is R , the banking angle is θ , and the coefficient of static friction is μ_s . (a) Determine the range of speeds the car can have without slipping up or down the road. (b) Find the minimum value for μ_s such that the minimum speed is zero.
- 62.** In Example 6.5, we investigated the forces a child experiences on a Ferris wheel. Assume the data in that example applies to this problem. What force (magnitude and direction) does the seat exert on a 40.0-kg child when the child is halfway between top and bottom?
- 63.** A model airplane of mass 0.750 kg flies with a speed of 35.0 m/s in a horizontal circle at the end of a 60.0-m-long control wire as shown in Figure P6.63a. The forces exerted on the airplane are shown in Figure P6.63b: the tension in the control wire, the gravitational force, and aerodynamic lift that acts at $\theta = 20.0^\circ$ inward from the vertical. Compute the tension in the wire, assuming it makes a constant angle of $\theta = 20.0^\circ$ with the horizontal.

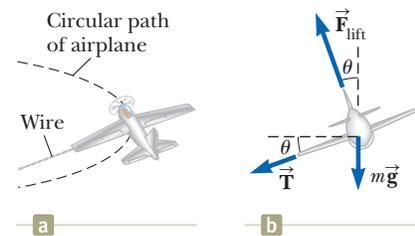


Figure P6.63

- 64.** A student builds and calibrates an accelerometer and uses it to determine the speed of her car around a certain unbanked highway curve. The accelerometer is a plumb bob with a protractor that she attaches to the roof of her car. A friend riding in the car with the student observes that the plumb bob hangs at an angle of 15.0° from the vertical when the car has a speed of 23.0 m/s. (a) What is the centripetal acceleration of the car rounding the curve? (b) What is the radius of the curve? (c) What is the speed of the car if the plumb bob deflection is 9.00° while rounding the same curve?

Challenge Problems

- 65.** A 9.00-kg object starting from rest falls through a viscous medium and experiences a resistive force given by Equation 6.2. The object reaches one half its terminal speed in 5.54 s. (a) Determine the terminal speed. (b) At what time is the speed of the object three-fourths the terminal speed? (c) How far has the object traveled in the first 5.54 s of motion?

66. For $t < 0$, an object of mass m experiences no force and moves in the positive x direction with a constant speed v_i . Beginning at $t = 0$, when the object passes position $x = 0$, it experiences a net resistive force proportional to the square of its speed: $\vec{F}_{\text{net}} = -mkv^2\hat{i}$, where k is a constant. The speed of the object after $t = 0$ is given by $v = v_i/(1 + kv_it)$. (a) Find the position x of the object as a function of time. (b) Find the object's velocity as a function of position.

67. A golfer tees off from a location precisely at $\phi_i = 35.0^\circ$ north latitude. He hits the ball due south, with range 285 m. The ball's initial velocity is at 48.0° above the horizontal. Suppose air resistance is negligible for the golf ball. (a) For how long is the ball in flight? The cup is due south of the golfer's location, and the golfer would have a hole-in-one if the Earth were not rotating. The Earth's rotation makes the tee move in a circle of radius $R_E \cos \phi_i = (6.37 \times 10^6 \text{ m}) \cos 35.0^\circ$ as shown in Figure P6.67. The tee completes one revolution each day. (b) Find the eastward speed of the tee relative to the stars. The hole is also moving east, but it is 285 m farther south and thus at a slightly lower latitude ϕ_f . Because the hole moves in a slightly larger circle, its speed must be greater than that of the tee. (c) By how much does the hole's speed exceed that of the tee? During the time interval the ball is in flight, it moves upward and downward as well as southward with the projectile motion you studied in Chapter 4, but it also moves eastward with the speed you found in part (b). The hole moves to the east at a faster speed, however, pulling ahead of the ball with the relative speed

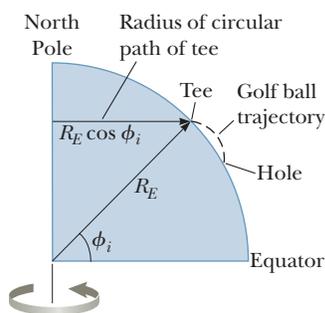


Figure P6.67

you found in part (c). (d) How far to the west of the hole does the ball land?

68. A single bead can slide with negligible friction on a stiff wire that has been bent into a circular loop of radius 15.0 cm as shown in Figure P6.68. The circle is always in a vertical plane and rotates steadily about its vertical diameter with a period of 0.450 s. The position of the bead is described by the angle θ that the radial line, from the center of the loop to the bead, makes with the vertical. (a) At what angle up from the bottom of the circle can the bead stay motionless relative to the turning circle? (b) **What IF?** Repeat the problem, this time taking the period of the circle's rotation as 0.850 s. (c) Describe how the solution to part (b) is different from the solution to part (a). (d) For any period or loop size, is there always an angle at which the bead can stand still relative to the loop? (e) Are there ever more than two angles? Arnold Arons suggested the idea for this problem.
69. The expression $F = arv + br^2v^2$ gives the magnitude of the resistive force (in newtons) exerted on a sphere of radius r (in meters) by a stream of air moving at speed v (in meters per second), where a and b are constants with appropriate SI units. Their numerical values are $a = 3.10 \times 10^{-4}$ and $b = 0.870$. Using this expression, find the terminal speed for water droplets falling under their own weight in air, taking the following values for the drop radii: (a) $10.0 \mu\text{m}$, (b) $100 \mu\text{m}$, (c) 1.00 mm . For parts (a) and (c), you can obtain accurate answers without solving a quadratic equation by considering which of the two contributions to the air resistance is dominant and ignoring the lesser contribution.
70. Because of the Earth's rotation, a plumb bob does not hang exactly along a line directed to the center of the Earth. How much does the plumb bob deviate from a radial line at 35.0° north latitude? Assume the Earth is spherical.

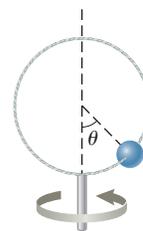


Figure P6.68

Energy of a System

CHAPTER

7



- 7.1 Systems and Environments
- 7.2 Work Done by a Constant Force
- 7.3 The Scalar Product of Two Vectors
- 7.4 Work Done by a Varying Force
- 7.5 Kinetic Energy and the Work–Kinetic Energy Theorem
- 7.6 Potential Energy of a System
- 7.7 Conservative and Nonconservative Forces
- 7.8 Relationship Between Conservative Forces and Potential Energy
- 7.9 Energy Diagrams and Equilibrium of a System

The definitions of quantities such as position, velocity, acceleration, and force and associated principles such as Newton's second law have allowed us to solve a variety of problems. Some problems that could theoretically be solved with Newton's laws, however, are very difficult in practice, but they can be made much simpler with a different approach. Here and in the following chapters, we will investigate this new approach, which will include definitions of quantities that may not be familiar to you. Other quantities may sound familiar, but they may have more specific meanings in physics than in everyday life. We begin this discussion by exploring the notion of *energy*.

The concept of energy is one of the most important topics in science and engineering. In everyday life, we think of energy in terms of fuel for transportation and heating, electricity for lights and appliances, and foods for consumption. These ideas, however, do not truly define energy. They merely tell us that fuels are needed to do a job and that those fuels provide us with something we call energy.

Energy is present in the Universe in various forms. Every physical process that occurs in the Universe involves energy and energy transfers or transformations. Unfortunately, despite its extreme importance, energy cannot be easily defined. The variables in previous chapters were relatively concrete; we have everyday experience with velocities and forces, for example. Although we have *experiences* with energy, such as running out of gasoline or losing our electrical service following a violent storm, the *notion* of energy is more abstract.

On a wind farm at the mouth of the River Mersey in Liverpool, England, the moving air does work on the blades of the windmills, causing the blades and the rotor of an electrical generator to rotate. Energy is transferred out of the system of the windmill by means of electricity.
(Christopher Furlong/Getty Images)

The concept of energy can be applied to mechanical systems without resorting to Newton's laws. Furthermore, the energy approach allows us to understand thermal and electrical phenomena in later chapters of the book in terms of the same models that we will develop here in our study of mechanics.

Our analysis models presented in earlier chapters were based on the motion of a *particle* or an object that could be modeled as a particle. We begin our new approach by focusing our attention on a new simplification model, a *system*, and analysis models based on the model of a system. These analysis models will be formally introduced in Chapter 8. In this chapter, we introduce systems and three ways to store energy in a system.

7.1 Systems and Environments

In the system model, we focus our attention on a small portion of the Universe—the **system**—and ignore details of the rest of the Universe outside of the system. A critical skill in applying the system model to problems is *identifying the system*.

A valid system

- may be a single object or particle
- may be a collection of objects or particles
- may be a region of space (such as the interior of an automobile engine combustion cylinder)
- may vary with time in size and shape (such as a rubber ball, which deforms upon striking a wall)

Identifying the need for a system approach to solving a problem (as opposed to a particle approach) is part of the Categorize step in the General Problem-Solving Strategy outlined in Chapter 2. Identifying the particular system is a second part of this step.

No matter what the particular system is in a given problem, we identify a **system boundary**, an imaginary surface (not necessarily coinciding with a physical surface) that divides the Universe into the system and the **environment** surrounding the system.

As an example, imagine a force applied to an object in empty space. We can define the object as the system and its surface as the system boundary. The force applied to it is an influence on the system from the environment that acts across the system boundary. We will see how to analyze this situation from a system approach in a subsequent section of this chapter.

Another example was seen in Example 5.10, where the system can be defined as the combination of the ball, the block, and the cord. The influence from the environment includes the gravitational forces on the ball and the block, the normal and friction forces on the block, and the force exerted by the pulley on the cord. The forces exerted by the cord on the ball and the block are internal to the system and therefore are not included as an influence from the environment.

There are a number of mechanisms by which a system can be influenced by its environment. The first one we shall investigate is *work*.

7.2 Work Done by a Constant Force

Almost all the terms we have used thus far—velocity, acceleration, force, and so on—convey a similar meaning in physics as they do in everyday life. Now, however, we encounter a term whose meaning in physics is distinctly different from its everyday meaning: work.

To understand what work as an influence on a system means to the physicist, consider the situation illustrated in Figure 7.1. A force \vec{F} is applied to a chalkboard

Pitfall Prevention 7.1

Identify the System The most important *first* step to take in solving a problem using the energy approach is to identify the appropriate system of interest.



Figure 7.1 An eraser being pushed along a chalkboard tray by a force acting at different angles with respect to the horizontal direction.

eraser, which we identify as the system, and the eraser slides along the tray. If we want to know how effective the force is in moving the eraser, we must consider not only the magnitude of the force but also its direction. Notice that the finger in Figure 7.1 applies forces in three different directions on the eraser. Assuming the magnitude of the applied force is the same in all three photographs, the push applied in Figure 7.1b does more to move the eraser than the push in Figure 7.1a. On the other hand, Figure 7.1c shows a situation in which the applied force does not move the eraser at all, regardless of how hard it is pushed (unless, of course, we apply a force so great that we break the chalkboard tray!). These results suggest that when analyzing forces to determine the influence they have on the system, we must consider the vector nature of forces. We must also consider the magnitude of the force. Moving a force with a magnitude of $|\vec{F}| = 2 \text{ N}$ through a displacement represents a greater influence on the system than moving a force of magnitude 1 N through the same displacement. The magnitude of the displacement is also important. Moving the eraser 3 m along the tray represents a greater influence than moving it 2 cm if the same force is used in both cases.

Let us examine the situation in Figure 7.2, where the object (the system) undergoes a displacement along a straight line while acted on by a constant force of magnitude F that makes an angle θ with the direction of the displacement.

The **work** W done on a system by an agent exerting a constant force on the system is the product of the magnitude F of the force, the magnitude Δr of the displacement of the point of application of the force, and $\cos \theta$, where θ is the angle between the force and displacement vectors:

$$W \equiv F \Delta r \cos \theta \quad (7.1)$$

Notice in Equation 7.1 that work is a scalar, even though it is defined in terms of two vectors, a force \vec{F} and a displacement $\Delta \vec{r}$. In Section 7.3, we explore how to combine two vectors to generate a scalar quantity.

Notice also that the displacement in Equation 7.1 is that of *the point of application of the force*. If the force is applied to a particle or a rigid object that can be modeled as a particle, this displacement is the same as that of the particle. For a deformable system, however, these displacements are not the same. For example, imagine pressing in on the sides of a balloon with both hands. The center of the balloon moves through zero displacement. The points of application of the forces from your hands on the sides of the balloon, however, do indeed move through a displacement as the balloon is compressed, and that is the displacement to be used in Equation 7.1. We will see other examples of deformable systems, such as springs and samples of gas contained in a vessel.

As an example of the distinction between the definition of work and our everyday understanding of the word, consider holding a heavy chair at arm's length for 3 min . At the end of this time interval, your tired arms may lead you to think you

Pitfall Prevention 7.2

Work Is Done by ... on ... Not only must you identify the system, you must also identify what agent in the environment is doing work on the system. When discussing work, always use the phrase, “the work done by ... on” After “by,” insert the part of the environment that is interacting directly with the system. After “on,” insert the system. For example, “the work done by the hammer on the nail” identifies the nail as the system, and the force from the hammer represents the influence from the environment.

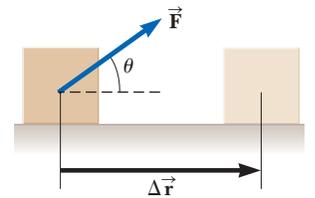


Figure 7.2 An object undergoes a displacement $\Delta \vec{r}$ under the action of a constant force \vec{F} .

◀ **Work done by a constant force**

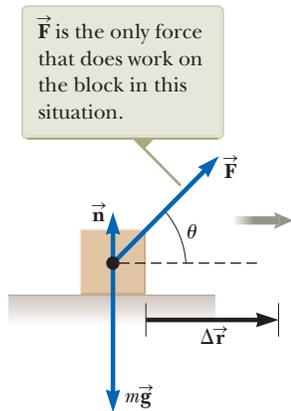


Figure 7.3 An object is displaced on a frictionless, horizontal surface. The normal force \vec{n} and the gravitational force $m\vec{g}$ do no work on the object.

Pitfall Prevention 7.3

Cause of the Displacement We can calculate the work done by a force on an object, but that force is *not* necessarily the cause of the object's displacement. For example, if you lift an object, (negative) work is done on the object by the gravitational force, although gravity is not the cause of the object moving upward!

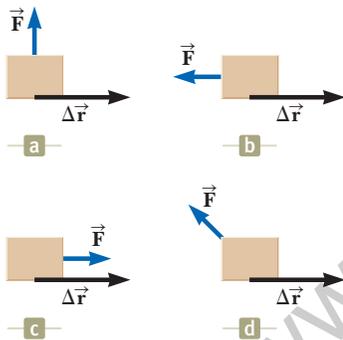


Figure 7.4 (Quick Quiz 7.2) A block is pulled by a force in four different directions. In each case, the displacement of the block is to the right and of the same magnitude.

have done a considerable amount of work on the chair. According to our definition, however, you have done no work on it whatsoever. You exert a force to support the chair, but you do not move it. A force does no work on an object if the force does not move through a displacement. If $\Delta r = 0$, Equation 7.1 gives $W = 0$, which is the situation depicted in Figure 7.1c.

Also notice from Equation 7.1 that the work done by a force on a moving object is zero when the force applied is perpendicular to the displacement of its point of application. That is, if $\theta = 90^\circ$, then $W = 0$ because $\cos 90^\circ = 0$. For example, in Figure 7.3, the work done by the normal force on the object and the work done by the gravitational force on the object are both zero because both forces are perpendicular to the displacement and have zero components along an axis in the direction of $\Delta\vec{r}$.

The sign of the work also depends on the direction of \vec{F} relative to $\Delta\vec{r}$. The work done by the applied force on a system is positive when the projection of \vec{F} onto $\Delta\vec{r}$ is in the same direction as the displacement. For example, when an object is lifted, the work done by the applied force on the object is positive because the direction of that force is upward, in the same direction as the displacement of its point of application. When the projection of \vec{F} onto $\Delta\vec{r}$ is in the direction opposite the displacement, W is negative. For example, as an object is lifted, the work done by the gravitational force on the object is negative. The factor $\cos \theta$ in the definition of W (Eq. 7.1) automatically takes care of the sign.

If an applied force \vec{F} is in the same direction as the displacement $\Delta\vec{r}$, then $\theta = 0$ and $\cos 0 = 1$. In this case, Equation 7.1 gives

$$W = F \Delta r$$

The units of work are those of force multiplied by those of length. Therefore, the SI unit of work is the **newton · meter** ($\text{N} \cdot \text{m} = \text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}^2$). This combination of units is used so frequently that it has been given a name of its own, the **joule** (J).

An important consideration for a system approach to problems is that **work is an energy transfer**. If W is the work done on a system and W is positive, energy is transferred *to* the system; if W is negative, energy is transferred *from* the system. Therefore, if a system interacts with its environment, this interaction can be described as a transfer of energy across the system boundary. The result is a change in the energy stored in the system. We will learn about the first type of energy storage in Section 7.5, after we investigate more aspects of work.

Quick Quiz 7.1 The gravitational force exerted by the Sun on the Earth holds the Earth in an orbit around the Sun. Let us assume that the orbit is perfectly circular. The work done by this gravitational force during a short time interval in which the Earth moves through a displacement in its orbital path is (a) zero (b) positive (c) negative (d) impossible to determine

Quick Quiz 7.2 Figure 7.4 shows four situations in which a force is applied to an object. In all four cases, the force has the same magnitude, and the displacement of the object is to the right and of the same magnitude. Rank the situations in order of the work done by the force on the object, from most positive to most negative.

Example 7.1

Mr. Clean

A man cleaning a floor pulls a vacuum cleaner with a force of magnitude $F = 50.0 \text{ N}$ at an angle of 30.0° with the horizontal (Fig. 7.5). Calculate the work done by the force on the vacuum cleaner as the vacuum cleaner is displaced 3.00 m to the right.

7.1 continued

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Figure 7.5 helps conceptualize the situation. Think about an experience in your life in which you pulled an object across the floor with a rope or cord.

Categorize We are asked for the work done on an object by a force and are given the force on the object, the displacement of the object, and the angle between the two vectors, so we categorize this example as a substitution problem. We identify the vacuum cleaner as the system.

Use the definition of work (Eq. 7.1):

$$W = F \Delta r \cos \theta = (50.0 \text{ N})(3.00 \text{ m})(\cos 30.0^\circ) = 130 \text{ J}$$

Notice in this situation that the normal force \vec{n} and the gravitational $\vec{F}_g = m\vec{g}$ do no work on the vacuum cleaner because these forces are perpendicular to the displacements of their points of application. Furthermore, there was no mention of whether there was friction between the vacuum cleaner and the floor. The presence or absence of friction is not important when calculating the work done by the applied force. In addition, this work does not depend on whether the vacuum moved at constant velocity or if it accelerated.

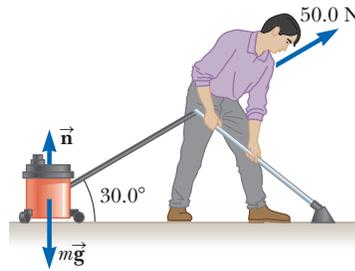


Figure 7.5 (Example 7.1) A vacuum cleaner being pulled at an angle of 30.0° from the horizontal.

7.3 The Scalar Product of Two Vectors

Because of the way the force and displacement vectors are combined in Equation 7.1, it is helpful to use a convenient mathematical tool called the **scalar product** of two vectors. We write this scalar product of vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} as $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$. (Because of the dot symbol, the scalar product is often called the **dot product**.)

The scalar product of any two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} is defined as a scalar quantity equal to the product of the magnitudes of the two vectors and the cosine of the angle θ between them:

$$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} \equiv AB \cos \theta \quad (7.2)$$

As is the case with any multiplication, \vec{A} and \vec{B} need not have the same units.

By comparing this definition with Equation 7.1, we can express Equation 7.1 as a scalar product:

$$W = F \Delta r \cos \theta = \vec{F} \cdot \Delta \vec{r} \quad (7.3)$$

In other words, $\vec{F} \cdot \Delta \vec{r}$ is a shorthand notation for $F \Delta r \cos \theta$.

Before continuing with our discussion of work, let us investigate some properties of the dot product. Figure 7.6 shows two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} and the angle θ between them used in the definition of the dot product. In Figure 7.6, $B \cos \theta$ is the projection of \vec{B} onto \vec{A} . Therefore, Equation 7.2 means that $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$ is the product of the magnitude of \vec{A} and the projection of \vec{B} onto \vec{A} .¹

From the right-hand side of Equation 7.2, we also see that the scalar product is **commutative**.² That is,

$$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = \vec{B} \cdot \vec{A}$$

¹This statement is equivalent to stating that $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$ equals the product of the magnitude of \vec{B} and the projection of \vec{A} onto \vec{B} .

²In Chapter 11, you will see another way of combining vectors that proves useful in physics and is not commutative.

Pitfall Prevention 7.4

Work Is a Scalar Although Equation 7.3 defines the work in terms of two vectors, *work is a scalar*; there is no direction associated with it. All types of energy and energy transfer are scalars. This fact is a major advantage of the energy approach because we don't need vector calculations!

Scalar product of any two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B}

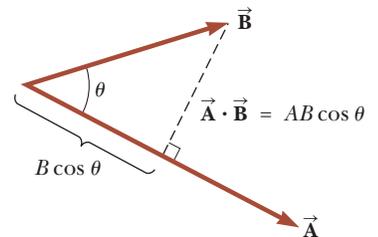


Figure 7.6 The scalar product $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$ equals the magnitude of \vec{A} multiplied by $B \cos \theta$, which is the projection of \vec{B} onto \vec{A} .

Finally, the scalar product obeys the **distributive law of multiplication**, so

$$\vec{A} \cdot (\vec{B} + \vec{C}) = \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} + \vec{A} \cdot \vec{C}$$

The scalar product is simple to evaluate from Equation 7.2 when \vec{A} is either perpendicular or parallel to \vec{B} . If \vec{A} is perpendicular to \vec{B} ($\theta = 90^\circ$), then $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$. (The equality $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$ also holds in the more trivial case in which either \vec{A} or \vec{B} is zero.) If vector \vec{A} is parallel to vector \vec{B} and the two point in the same direction ($\theta = 0$), then $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = AB$. If vector \vec{A} is parallel to vector \vec{B} but the two point in opposite directions ($\theta = 180^\circ$), then $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = -AB$. The scalar product is negative when $90^\circ < \theta \leq 180^\circ$.

The unit vectors \hat{i} , \hat{j} , and \hat{k} , which were defined in Chapter 3, lie in the positive x , y , and z directions, respectively, of a right-handed coordinate system. Therefore, it follows from the definition of $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$ that the scalar products of these unit vectors are

$$\hat{i} \cdot \hat{i} = \hat{j} \cdot \hat{j} = \hat{k} \cdot \hat{k} = 1 \quad (7.4)$$

$$\hat{i} \cdot \hat{j} = \hat{i} \cdot \hat{k} = \hat{j} \cdot \hat{k} = 0 \quad (7.5)$$

Scalar products of
unit vectors

Equations 3.18 and 3.19 state that two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} can be expressed in unit-vector form as

$$\vec{A} = A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k}$$

$$\vec{B} = B_x \hat{i} + B_y \hat{j} + B_z \hat{k}$$

Using these expressions for the vectors and the information given in Equations 7.4 and 7.5 shows that the scalar product of \vec{A} and \vec{B} reduces to

$$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = A_x B_x + A_y B_y + A_z B_z \quad (7.6)$$

(Details of the derivation are left for you in Problem 7 at the end of the chapter.) In the special case in which $\vec{A} = \vec{B}$, we see that

$$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{A} = A_x^2 + A_y^2 + A_z^2 = A^2$$

- Quick Quiz 7.3** Which of the following statements is true about the relationship between the dot product of two vectors and the product of the magnitudes of the vectors? (a) $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$ is larger than AB . (b) $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$ is smaller than AB . (c) $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$ could be larger or smaller than AB , depending on the angle between the vectors. (d) $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$ could be equal to AB .

Example 7.2 The Scalar Product

The vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} are given by $\vec{A} = 2\hat{i} + 3\hat{j}$ and $\vec{B} = -\hat{i} + 2\hat{j}$.

(A) Determine the scalar product $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize There is no physical system to imagine here. Rather, it is purely a mathematical exercise involving two vectors.

Categorize Because we have a definition for the scalar product, we categorize this example as a substitution problem.

Substitute the specific vector expressions for \vec{A} and \vec{B} :

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} &= (2\hat{i} + 3\hat{j}) \cdot (-\hat{i} + 2\hat{j}) \\ &= -2\hat{i} \cdot \hat{i} + 2\hat{i} \cdot 2\hat{j} - 3\hat{j} \cdot \hat{i} + 3\hat{j} \cdot 2\hat{j} \\ &= -2(1) + 4(0) - 3(0) + 6(1) = -2 + 6 = 4 \end{aligned}$$

The same result is obtained when we use Equation 7.6 directly, where $A_x = 2$, $A_y = 3$, $B_x = -1$, and $B_y = 2$.

7.2 continued

(B) Find the angle θ between $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ and $\vec{\mathbf{B}}$.

SOLUTION

Evaluate the magnitudes of $\vec{\mathbf{A}}$ and $\vec{\mathbf{B}}$ using the Pythagorean theorem:

$$A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2} = \sqrt{(2)^2 + (3)^2} = \sqrt{13}$$

$$B = \sqrt{B_x^2 + B_y^2} = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + (2)^2} = \sqrt{5}$$

Use Equation 7.2 and the result from part (A) to find the angle:

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{\mathbf{A}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{B}}}{AB} = \frac{4}{\sqrt{13}\sqrt{5}} = \frac{4}{\sqrt{65}}$$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \frac{4}{\sqrt{65}} = 60.3^\circ$$

Example 7.3 Work Done by a Constant Force

A particle moving in the xy plane undergoes a displacement given by $\Delta\vec{\mathbf{r}} = (2.0\hat{\mathbf{i}} + 3.0\hat{\mathbf{j}})$ m as a constant force $\vec{\mathbf{F}} = (5.0\hat{\mathbf{i}} + 2.0\hat{\mathbf{j}})$ N acts on the particle. Calculate the work done by $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ on the particle.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Although this example is a little more physical than the previous one in that it identifies a force and a displacement, it is similar in terms of its mathematical structure.

Categorize Because we are given force and displacement vectors and asked to find the work done by this force on the particle, we categorize this example as a substitution problem.

Substitute the expressions for $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ and $\Delta\vec{\mathbf{r}}$ into Equation 7.3 and use Equations 7.4 and 7.5:

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \Delta\vec{\mathbf{r}} = [(5.0\hat{\mathbf{i}} + 2.0\hat{\mathbf{j}}) \text{ N}] \cdot [(2.0\hat{\mathbf{i}} + 3.0\hat{\mathbf{j}}) \text{ m}] \\ &= (5.0\hat{\mathbf{i}} \cdot 2.0\hat{\mathbf{i}} + 5.0\hat{\mathbf{i}} \cdot 3.0\hat{\mathbf{j}} + 2.0\hat{\mathbf{j}} \cdot 2.0\hat{\mathbf{i}} + 2.0\hat{\mathbf{j}} \cdot 3.0\hat{\mathbf{j}}) \text{ N} \cdot \text{m} \\ &= [10 + 0 + 0 + 6] \text{ N} \cdot \text{m} = 16 \text{ J} \end{aligned}$$

7.4 Work Done by a Varying Force

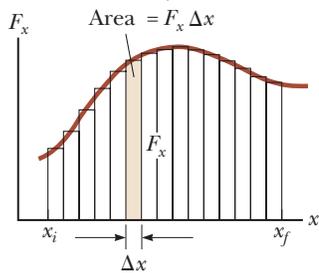
Consider a particle being displaced along the x axis under the action of a force that varies with position. In such a situation, we cannot use Equation 7.1 to calculate the work done by the force because this relationship applies only when $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ is constant in magnitude and direction. Figure 7.7a (page 184) shows a varying force applied on a particle that moves from initial position x_i to final position x_f . Imagine a particle undergoing a very small displacement Δx , shown in the figure. The x component F_x of the force is approximately constant over this small interval; for this small displacement, we can approximate the work done on the particle by the force using Equation 7.1 as

$$W \approx F_x \Delta x$$

which is the area of the shaded rectangle in Figure 7.7a. If the F_x versus x curve is divided into a large number of such intervals, the total work done for the displacement from x_i to x_f is approximately equal to the sum of a large number of such terms:

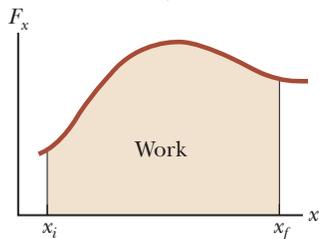
$$W \approx \sum_{x_i}^{x_f} F_x \Delta x$$

The total work done for the displacement from x_i to x_f is approximately equal to the sum of the areas of all the rectangles.



a

The work done by the component F_x of the varying force as the particle moves from x_i to x_f is exactly equal to the area under the curve.



b

Figure 7.7 (a) The work done on a particle by the force component F_x for the small displacement Δx is $F_x \Delta x$, which equals the area of the shaded rectangle. (b) The width Δx of each rectangle is shrunk to zero.

If the size of the small displacements is allowed to approach zero, the number of terms in the sum increases without limit but the value of the sum approaches a definite value equal to the area bounded by the F_x curve and the x axis:

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{x_i}^{x_f} F_x \Delta x = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} F_x dx$$

Therefore, we can express the work done by F_x on the system of the particle as it moves from x_i to x_f as

$$W = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} F_x dx \quad (7.7)$$

This equation reduces to Equation 7.1 when the component $F_x = F \cos \theta$ remains constant.

If more than one force acts on a system *and the system can be modeled as a particle*, the total work done on the system is just the work done by the net force. If we express the net force in the x direction as ΣF_x , the total work, or *net work*, done as the particle moves from x_i to x_f is

$$\Sigma W = W_{\text{ext}} = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} (\Sigma F_x) dx \quad (\text{particle})$$

For the general case of a net force $\Sigma \vec{F}$ whose magnitude and direction may both vary, we use the scalar product,

$$\Sigma W = W_{\text{ext}} = \int (\Sigma \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{r} \quad (\text{particle}) \quad (7.8)$$

where the integral is calculated over the path that the particle takes through space. The subscript “ext” on work reminds us that the net work is done by an *external* agent on the system. We will use this notation in this chapter as a reminder and to differentiate this work from an *internal* work to be described shortly.

If the system cannot be modeled as a particle (for example, if the system is deformable), we cannot use Equation 7.8 because different forces on the system may move through different displacements. In this case, we must evaluate the work done by each force separately and then add the works algebraically to find the net work done on the system:

$$\Sigma W = W_{\text{ext}} = \sum_{\text{forces}} \left(\int \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} \right) \quad (\text{deformable system})$$

Example 7.4 Calculating Total Work Done from a Graph

A force acting on a particle varies with x as shown in Figure 7.8. Calculate the work done by the force on the particle as it moves from $x = 0$ to $x = 6.0$ m.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Imagine a particle subject to the force in Figure 7.8. The force remains constant as the particle moves through the first 4.0 m and then decreases linearly to zero at 6.0 m. In terms of earlier discussions of motion, the particle could be modeled as a particle under constant acceleration for the first 4.0 m because the force is constant. Between 4.0 m and 6.0 m, however, the motion does not fit into one of our earlier analysis models because the acceleration of the particle is changing. If the particle starts from rest, its speed increases throughout the motion, and the particle is always moving in the positive x direction. These details about its speed and direction are not necessary for the calculation of the work done, however.

Categorize Because the force varies during the motion of the particle, we must use the techniques for work done by varying forces. In this case, the graphical representation in Figure 7.8 can be used to evaluate the work done.

The net work done by this force is the area under the curve.

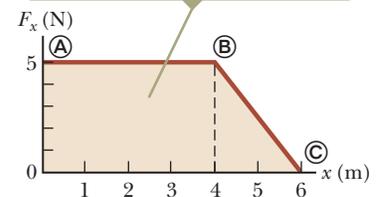


Figure 7.8 (Example 7.4) The force acting on a particle is constant for the first 4.0 m of motion and then decreases linearly with x from $x_{\text{B}} = 4.0$ m to $x_{\text{C}} = 6.0$ m.

7.4 continued

Analyze The work done by the force is equal to the area under the curve from $x_{\text{A}} = 0$ to $x_{\text{C}} = 6.0$ m. This area is equal to the area of the rectangular section from **A** to **B** plus the area of the triangular section from **B** to **C**.

Evaluate the area of the rectangle:

$$W_{\text{A to B}} = (5.0 \text{ N})(4.0 \text{ m}) = 20 \text{ J}$$

Evaluate the area of the triangle:

$$W_{\text{B to C}} = \frac{1}{2}(5.0 \text{ N})(2.0 \text{ m}) = 5.0 \text{ J}$$

Find the total work done by the force on the particle:

$$W_{\text{A to C}} = W_{\text{A to B}} + W_{\text{B to C}} = 20 \text{ J} + 5.0 \text{ J} = 25 \text{ J}$$

Finalize Because the graph of the force consists of straight lines, we can use rules for finding the areas of simple geometric models to evaluate the total work done in this example. If a force does not vary linearly as in Figure 7.7, such rules cannot be used and the force function must be integrated as in Equation 7.7 or 7.8.

Work Done by a Spring

A model of a common physical system on which the force varies with position is shown in Figure 7.9. The system is a block on a frictionless, horizontal surface and connected to a spring. For many springs, if the spring is either stretched or compressed a small distance from its unstretched (equilibrium) configuration, it exerts on the block a force that can be mathematically modeled as

$$F_s = -kx$$

(7.9)

◀ Spring force

where x is the position of the block relative to its equilibrium ($x = 0$) position and k is a positive constant called the **force constant** or the **spring constant** of the spring. In other words, the force required to stretch or compress a spring is proportional to the amount of stretch or compression x . This force law for springs is known as **Hooke's law**. The value of k is a measure of the *stiffness* of the spring. Stiff springs have large k values, and soft springs have small k values. As can be seen from Equation 7.9, the units of k are N/m.

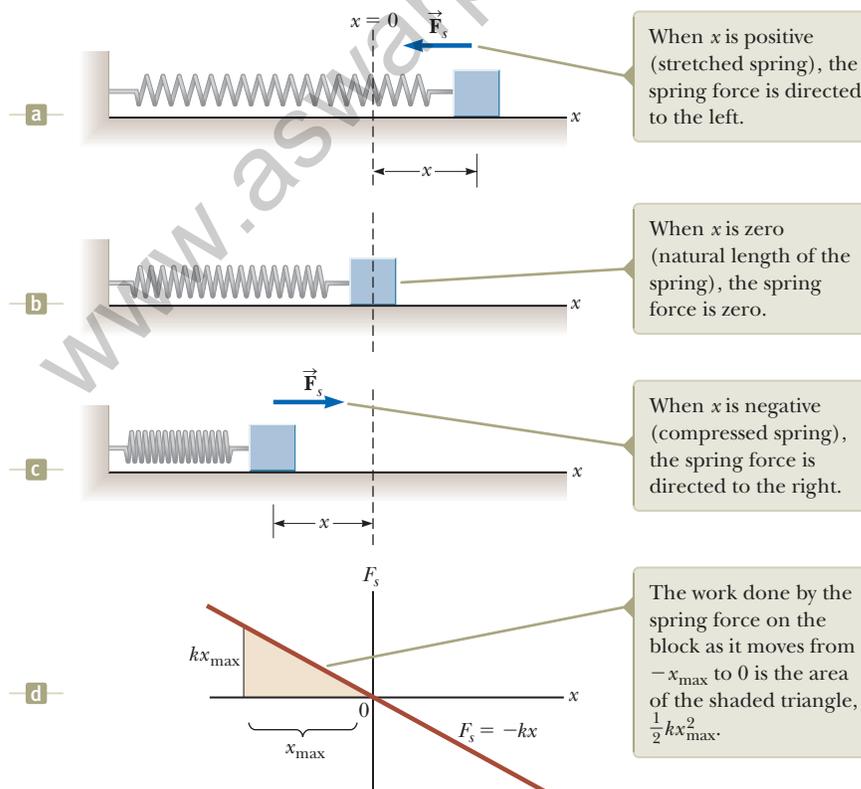


Figure 7.9 The force exerted by a spring on a block varies with the block's position x relative to the equilibrium position $x = 0$. (a) x is positive. (b) x is zero. (c) x is negative. (d) Graph of F_s versus x for the block–spring system.

The vector form of Equation 7.9 is

$$\vec{\mathbf{F}}_s = F_s \hat{\mathbf{i}} = -kx \hat{\mathbf{i}} \quad (7.10)$$

where we have chosen the x axis to lie along the direction the spring extends or compresses.

The negative sign in Equations 7.9 and 7.10 signifies that the force exerted by the spring is always directed *opposite* the displacement from equilibrium. When $x > 0$ as in Figure 7.9a so that the block is to the right of the equilibrium position, the spring force is directed to the left, in the negative x direction. When $x < 0$ as in Figure 7.9c, the block is to the left of equilibrium and the spring force is directed to the right, in the positive x direction. When $x = 0$ as in Figure 7.9b, the spring is unstretched and $F_s = 0$. Because the spring force always acts toward the equilibrium position ($x = 0$), it is sometimes called a *restoring force*.

If the spring is compressed until the block is at the point $-x_{\max}$ and is then released, the block moves from $-x_{\max}$ through zero to $+x_{\max}$. It then reverses direction, returns to $-x_{\max}$, and continues oscillating back and forth. We will study these oscillations in more detail in Chapter 15. For now, let's investigate the work done by the spring on the block over small portions of one oscillation.

Suppose the block has been pushed to the left to a position $-x_{\max}$ and is then released. We identify the block as our system and calculate the work W_s done by the spring force on the block as the block moves from $x_i = -x_{\max}$ to $x_f = 0$. Applying Equation 7.8 and assuming the block may be modeled as a particle, we obtain

$$W_s = \int \vec{\mathbf{F}}_s \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{r}} = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} (-kx \hat{\mathbf{i}}) \cdot (dx \hat{\mathbf{i}}) = \int_{-x_{\max}}^0 (-kx) dx = \frac{1}{2} kx_{\max}^2 \quad (7.11)$$

where we have used the integral $\int x^n dx = x^{n+1}/(n+1)$ with $n = 1$. The work done by the spring force is positive because the force is in the same direction as its displacement (both are to the right). Because the block arrives at $x = 0$ with some speed, it will continue moving until it reaches a position $+x_{\max}$. The work done by the spring force on the block as it moves from $x_i = 0$ to $x_f = x_{\max}$ is $W_s = -\frac{1}{2} kx_{\max}^2$. The work is negative because for this part of the motion the spring force is to the left and its displacement is to the right. Therefore, the *net* work done by the spring force on the block as it moves from $x_i = -x_{\max}$ to $x_f = x_{\max}$ is *zero*.

Figure 7.9d is a plot of F_s versus x . The work calculated in Equation 7.11 is the area of the shaded triangle, corresponding to the displacement from $-x_{\max}$ to 0. Because the triangle has base x_{\max} and height kx_{\max} , its area is $\frac{1}{2} kx_{\max}^2$, agreeing with the work done by the spring as given by Equation 7.11.

If the block undergoes an arbitrary displacement from $x = x_i$ to $x = x_f$, the work done by the spring force on the block is

Work done by a spring ►

$$W_s = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} (-kx) dx = \frac{1}{2} kx_i^2 - \frac{1}{2} kx_f^2 \quad (7.12)$$

From Equation 7.12, we see that the work done by the spring force is zero for any motion that ends where it began ($x_i = x_f$). We shall make use of this important result in Chapter 8 when we describe the motion of this system in greater detail.

Equations 7.11 and 7.12 describe the work done by the spring on the block. Now let us consider the work done on the block by an *external agent* as the agent applies a force on the block and the block moves *very slowly* from $x_i = -x_{\max}$ to $x_f = 0$ as in Figure 7.10. We can calculate this work by noting that at any value of the position, the *applied force* $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{\text{app}}$ is equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to the spring force $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_s$, so $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{\text{app}} = F_{\text{app}} \hat{\mathbf{i}} = -\vec{\mathbf{F}}_s = -(-kx \hat{\mathbf{i}}) = kx \hat{\mathbf{i}}$. Therefore, the work done by this applied force (the external agent) on the system of the block is

$$W_{\text{ext}} = \int \vec{\mathbf{F}}_{\text{app}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{r}} = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} (kx \hat{\mathbf{i}}) \cdot (dx \hat{\mathbf{i}}) = \int_{-x_{\max}}^0 kx dx = -\frac{1}{2} kx_{\max}^2$$

This work is equal to the negative of the work done by the spring force for this displacement (Eq. 7.11). The work is negative because the external agent must push inward on the spring to prevent it from expanding, and this direction is opposite the direction of the displacement of the point of application of the force as the block moves from $-x_{\max}$ to 0.

For an arbitrary displacement of the block, the work done on the system by the external agent is

$$W_{\text{ext}} = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} kx \, dx = \frac{1}{2}kx_f^2 - \frac{1}{2}kx_i^2 \quad (7.13)$$

Notice that this equation is the negative of Equation 7.12.

- Quick Quiz 7.4** A dart is inserted into a spring-loaded dart gun by pushing the spring in by a distance x . For the next loading, the spring is compressed a distance $2x$. How much work is required to load the second dart compared with that required to load the first? (a) four times as much (b) two times as much (c) the same (d) half as much (e) one-fourth as much

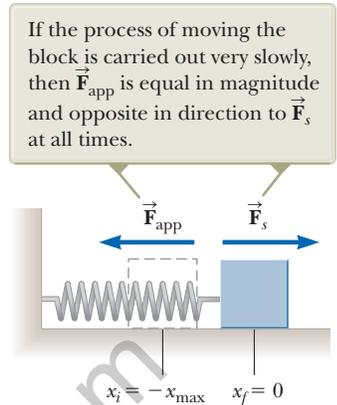


Figure 7.10 A block moves from $x_i = -x_{\max}$ to $x_f = 0$ on a frictionless surface as a force \vec{F}_{app} is applied to the block.

Example 7.5 Measuring k for a Spring AM

A common technique used to measure the force constant of a spring is demonstrated by the setup in Figure 7.11. The spring is hung vertically (Fig. 7.11a), and an object of mass m is attached to its lower end. Under the action of the “load” mg , the spring stretches a distance d from its equilibrium position (Fig. 7.11b).

(A) If a spring is stretched 2.0 cm by a suspended object having a mass of 0.55 kg, what is the force constant of the spring?

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Figure 7.11b shows what happens to the spring when the object is attached to it. Simulate this situation by hanging an object on a rubber band.

Categorize The object in Figure 7.11b is at rest and not accelerating, so it is modeled as a *particle in equilibrium*.

Analyze Because the object is in equilibrium, the net force on it is zero and the upward spring force balances the downward gravitational force $m\vec{g}$ (Fig. 7.11c).

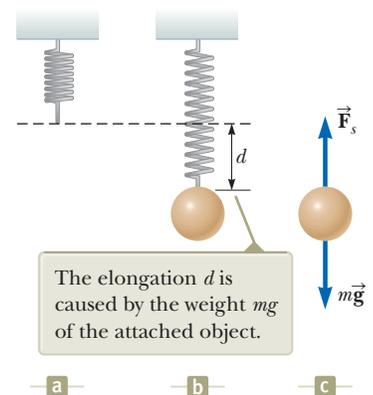


Figure 7.11 (Example 7.5) Determining the force constant k of a spring.

Apply the particle in equilibrium model to the object:

$$\vec{F}_s + m\vec{g} = 0 \rightarrow F_s - mg = 0 \rightarrow F_s = mg$$

Apply Hooke’s law to give $F_s = kd$ and solve for k :

$$k = \frac{mg}{d} = \frac{(0.55 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)}{2.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}} = 2.7 \times 10^2 \text{ N/m}$$

(B) How much work is done by the spring on the object as it stretches through this distance?

SOLUTION

Use Equation 7.12 to find the work done by the spring on the object:

$$W_s = 0 - \frac{1}{2}kd^2 = -\frac{1}{2}(2.7 \times 10^2 \text{ N/m})(2.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m})^2 = -5.4 \times 10^{-2} \text{ J}$$

Finalize This work is negative because the spring force acts upward on the object, but its point of application (where the spring attaches to the object) moves downward. As the object moves through the 2.0-cm distance, the gravitational force also does work on it. This work is positive because the gravitational force is downward and so is the displacement

continued

7.5 continued

of the point of application of this force. Would we expect the work done by the gravitational force, as the applied force in a direction opposite to the spring force, to be the negative of the answer above? Let's find out.

Evaluate the work done by the gravitational force on the object:

$$W = \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \Delta\vec{\mathbf{r}} = (mg)(d) \cos 0 = mgd \\ = (0.55 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(2.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}) = 1.1 \times 10^{-1} \text{ J}$$

If you expected the work done by gravity simply to be that done by the spring with a positive sign, you may be surprised by this result! To understand why that is not the case, we need to explore further, as we do in the next section.

7.5 Kinetic Energy and the Work–Kinetic Energy Theorem

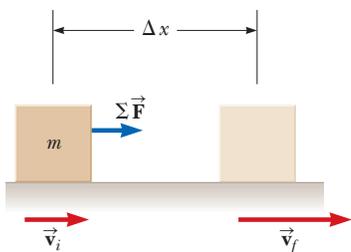


Figure 7.12 An object undergoing a displacement $\Delta\vec{\mathbf{r}} = \Delta x\hat{\mathbf{i}}$ and a change in velocity under the action of a constant net force $\Sigma\vec{\mathbf{F}}$.

We have investigated work and identified it as a mechanism for transferring energy into a system. We have stated that work is an influence on a system from the environment, but we have not yet discussed the *result* of this influence on the system. One possible result of doing work on a system is that the system changes its speed. In this section, we investigate this situation and introduce our first type of energy that a system can possess, called *kinetic energy*.

Consider a system consisting of a single object. Figure 7.12 shows a block of mass m moving through a displacement directed to the right under the action of a net force $\Sigma\vec{\mathbf{F}}$, also directed to the right. We know from Newton's second law that the block moves with an acceleration $\vec{\mathbf{a}}$. If the block (and therefore the force) moves through a displacement $\Delta\vec{\mathbf{r}} = \Delta x\hat{\mathbf{i}} = (x_f - x_i)\hat{\mathbf{i}}$, the net work done on the block by the external net force $\Sigma\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ is

$$W_{\text{ext}} = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} \Sigma F dx \quad (7.14)$$

Using Newton's second law, we substitute for the magnitude of the net force $\Sigma F = ma$ and then perform the following chain-rule manipulations on the integrand:

$$W_{\text{ext}} = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} ma dx = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} m \frac{dv}{dt} dx = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} m \frac{dv}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt} dx = \int_{v_i}^{v_f} mv dv \\ W_{\text{ext}} = \frac{1}{2}mv_f^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_i^2 \quad (7.15)$$

where v_i is the speed of the block at $x = x_i$ and v_f is its speed at x_f .

Equation 7.15 was generated for the specific situation of one-dimensional motion, but it is a general result. It tells us that the work done by the net force on a particle of mass m is equal to the difference between the initial and final values of a quantity $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$. This quantity is so important that it has been given a special name, **kinetic energy**:

Kinetic energy ►

$$K \equiv \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \quad (7.16)$$

Kinetic energy represents the energy associated with the motion of the particle. Note that kinetic energy is a scalar quantity and has the same units as work. For example, a 2.0-kg object moving with a speed of 4.0 m/s has a kinetic energy of 16 J. Table 7.1 lists the kinetic energies for various objects.

Equation 7.15 states that the work done on a particle by a net force $\Sigma\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ acting on it equals the change in kinetic energy of the particle. It is often convenient to write Equation 7.15 in the form

$$W_{\text{ext}} = K_f - K_i = \Delta K \quad (7.17)$$

Another way to write it is $K_f = K_i + W_{\text{ext}}$, which tells us that the final kinetic energy of an object is equal to its initial kinetic energy plus the change in energy due to the net work done on it.

Table 7.1 Kinetic Energies for Various Objects

| Object | Mass (kg) | Speed (m/s) | Kinetic Energy (J) |
|-------------------------------|-----------|-------------|--------------------|
| Earth orbiting the Sun | 5.97 | 2.98 | 2.65 |
| Moon orbiting the Earth | 7.35 | 1.02 | 3.82 ²⁸ |
| Rocket moving at escape speed | 500 | 1.12 | 3.14 |
| Automobile at 65 mi/h | 1000 | 29 | 8.4 |
| Running athlete | 70 | 10 | 3 500 |
| Stone dropped from 10 m | 1.0 | 14 | 98 |
| Golf ball at terminal speed | 0.046 | 44 | 45 |
| Raindrop at terminal speed | 3.5 | 9.0 | 1.4 |
| Oxygen molecule in air | 5.3 | 500 | 6.6 ²¹ |

Escape speed is the minimum speed an object must reach near the Earth's surface to move infinitely far away from the Earth.

We have generated Equation 7.17 by imagining doing work on a particle. We could also do work on a deformable system, in which parts of the system move with respect to one another. In this case, we also find that Equation 7.17 is valid as long as the net work is found by adding up the works done by each force and adding, as discussed earlier with regard to Equation 7.8.

Equation 7.17 is an important result known as the **work–kinetic energy theorem**:

When work is done on a system and the only change in the system is in its speed, the net work done on the system equals the change in kinetic energy of the system, as expressed by Equation 7.17:

◀ **Work–kinetic energy theorem**

The work–kinetic energy theorem indicates that the speed of a system *increases* if the net work done on it is *positive* because the final kinetic energy is greater than the initial kinetic energy. The speed *decreases* if the net work is *negative* because the final kinetic energy is less than the initial kinetic energy.

Because we have so far only investigated translational motion through space, we arrived at the work–kinetic energy theorem by analyzing situations involving translational motion. Another type of motion is *rotational motion*, in which an object spins about an axis. We will study this type of motion in Chapter 10. The work–kinetic energy theorem is also valid for systems that undergo a change in the rotational speed due to work done on the system. The windmill in the photograph at the beginning of this chapter is an example of work causing rotational motion.

The work–kinetic energy theorem will clarify a result seen earlier in this chapter that may have seemed odd. In Section 7.4, we arrived at a result of zero net work done when we let a spring push a block from x_{max} to x_{max} . Notice that because the speed of the block is continually changing, it may seem complicated to analyze this process. The quantity W in the work–kinetic energy theorem, however, only refers to the initial and final points for the speeds; it does not depend on details of the path followed between these points. Therefore, because the speed is zero at both the initial and final points of the motion, the net work done on the block is zero. We will often see this concept of path independence in similar approaches to problems.

Let us also return to the mystery in the Finalize step at the end of Example 7.5. Why was the work done by gravity not just the value of the work done by the spring with a positive sign? Notice that the work done by gravity is larger than the magnitude of the work done by the spring. Therefore, the total work done by all forces on the object is positive. Imagine now how to create the situation in which the *only* forces on the object are the spring force and the gravitational force. You must support the object at the highest point and then remove your hand and let the object fall. If you do so, you know that when the object reaches a position 2.0 cm below your hand, it will be *moving*, which is consistent with Equation 7.17. Positive net

Pitfall Prevention 7.5

Conditions for the Work–Kinetic Energy Theorem The work–kinetic energy theorem is important but limited in its application; it is not a general principle. In many situations, other changes in the system occur besides its speed, and there are other interactions with the environment besides work. A more general principle involving energy is *conservation of energy* in Section 8.1.

Pitfall Prevention 7.6

The Work–Kinetic Energy Theorem: Speed, not Velocity The work–kinetic energy theorem relates work to a change in the *speed* of a system, not a change in its velocity. For example, if an object is in uniform circular motion, its speed is constant. Even though its velocity is changing, no work is done on the object by the force causing the circular motion.

work is done on the object, and the result is that it has a kinetic energy as it passes through the 2.0-cm point.

The only way to prevent the object from having a kinetic energy after moving through 2.0 cm is to slowly lower it with your hand. Then, however, there is a third force doing work on the object, the normal force from your hand. If this work is calculated and added to that done by the spring force and the gravitational force, the net work done on the object is zero, which is consistent because it is not moving at the 2.0-cm point.

Earlier, we indicated that work can be considered as a mechanism for transferring energy into a system. Equation 7.17 is a mathematical statement of this concept. When work W_{ext} is done on a system, the result is a transfer of energy across the boundary of the system. The result on the system, in the case of Equation 7.17, is a change ΔK in kinetic energy. In the next section, we investigate another type of energy that can be stored in a system as a result of doing work on the system.

- Quick Quiz 7.5** A dart is inserted into a spring-loaded dart gun by pushing the spring in by a distance x . For the next loading, the spring is compressed a distance $2x$. How much faster does the second dart leave the gun compared with the first? (a) four times as fast (b) two times as fast (c) the same (d) half as fast (e) one-fourth as fast

Example 7.6

A Block Pulled on a Frictionless Surface **AM**

A 6.0-kg block initially at rest is pulled to the right along a frictionless, horizontal surface by a constant horizontal force of magnitude 12 N. Find the block's speed after it has moved through a horizontal distance of 3.0 m.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Figure 7.13 illustrates this situation. Imagine pulling a toy car across a table with a horizontal rubber band attached to the front of the car. The force is maintained constant by ensuring that the stretched rubber band always has the same length.

Categorize We could apply the equations of kinematics to determine the answer, but let us practice the energy approach. The block is the system, and three external forces act on the system. The normal force balances the gravitational force on the block, and neither of these vertically acting forces does work on the block because their points of application are horizontally displaced.

Analyze The net external force acting on the block is the horizontal 12-N force.

Use the work–kinetic energy theorem for the block, noting that its initial kinetic energy is zero:

$$W_{\text{ext}} = \Delta K = K_f - K_i = \frac{1}{2}mv_f^2 - 0 = \frac{1}{2}mv_f^2$$

Solve for v_f and use Equation 7.1 for the work done on the block by \vec{F} :

$$v_f = \sqrt{\frac{2W_{\text{ext}}}{m}} = \sqrt{\frac{2F\Delta x}{m}}$$

Substitute numerical values:

$$v_f = \sqrt{\frac{2(12\text{ N})(3.0\text{ m})}{6.0\text{ kg}}} = 3.5\text{ m/s}$$

Finalize You should solve this problem again by modeling the block as a *particle under a net force* to find its acceleration and then as a *particle under constant acceleration* to find its final velocity. In Chapter 8, we will see that the energy procedure followed above is an example of the analysis model of the *nonisolated system*.

WHAT IF? Suppose the magnitude of the force in this example is doubled to $F' = 2F$. The 6.0-kg block accelerates to 3.5 m/s due to this applied force while moving through a displacement $\Delta x'$. How does the displacement $\Delta x'$ compare with the original displacement Δx ?

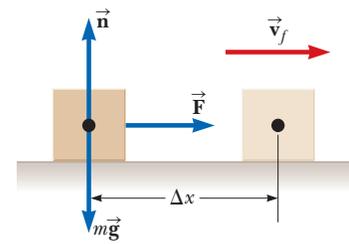


Figure 7.13 (Example 7.6) A block pulled to the right on a frictionless surface by a constant horizontal force.

7.6 continued

Answer If we pull harder, the block should accelerate to a given speed in a shorter distance, so we expect that $\Delta x' < \Delta x$. In both cases, the block experiences the same change in kinetic energy ΔK . Mathematically, from the work–kinetic energy theorem, we find that

$$W_{\text{ext}} = F' \Delta x' = \Delta K = F \Delta x$$

$$\Delta x' = \frac{F}{F'} \Delta x = \frac{F}{2F} \Delta x = \frac{1}{2} \Delta x$$

and the distance is shorter as suggested by our conceptual argument.

Conceptual Example 7.7

Does the Ramp Lessen the Work Required?

A man wishes to load a refrigerator onto a truck using a ramp at angle θ as shown in Figure 7.14. He claims that less work would be required to load the truck if the length L of the ramp were increased. Is his claim valid?

SOLUTION

No. Suppose the refrigerator is wheeled on a hand truck up the ramp at constant speed. In this case, for the system of the refrigerator and the hand truck, $\Delta K = 0$. The normal force exerted by the ramp on the system is directed at 90° to the displacement of its point of application and so does no work on the system. Because $\Delta K = 0$, the work–kinetic energy theorem gives

$$W_{\text{ext}} = W_{\text{by man}} + W_{\text{by gravity}} = 0$$

The work done by the gravitational force equals the product of the weight mg of the system, the distance L through which the refrigerator is displaced, and $\cos(\theta + 90^\circ)$. Therefore,

$$W_{\text{by man}} = -W_{\text{by gravity}} = -(mg)(L)[\cos(\theta + 90^\circ)]$$

$$= mgL \sin \theta = mgh$$

where $h = L \sin \theta$ is the height of the ramp. Therefore, the man must do the same amount of work mgh on the system *regardless* of the length of the ramp. The work depends only on the height of the ramp. Although less force is required with a longer ramp, the point of application of that force moves through a greater displacement.

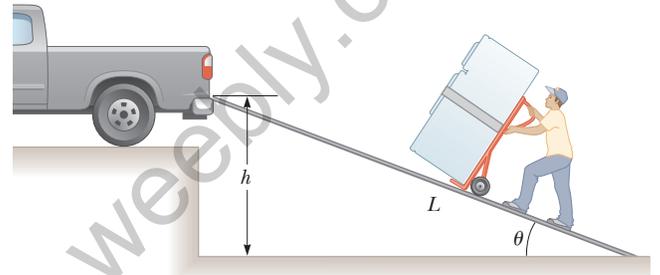


Figure 7.14 (Conceptual Example 7.7) A refrigerator attached to a frictionless, wheeled hand truck is moved up a ramp at constant speed.

7.6 Potential Energy of a System

So far in this chapter, we have defined a system in general, but have focused our attention primarily on single particles or objects under the influence of external forces. Let us now consider systems of two or more particles or objects interacting via a force that is *internal* to the system. The kinetic energy of such a system is the algebraic sum of the kinetic energies of all members of the system. There may be systems, however, in which one object is so massive that it can be modeled as stationary and its kinetic energy can be neglected. For example, if we consider a ball–Earth system as the ball falls to the Earth, the kinetic energy of the system can be considered as just the kinetic energy of the ball. The Earth moves so slowly in this process that we can ignore its kinetic energy. On the other hand, the kinetic energy of a system of two electrons must include the kinetic energies of both particles.

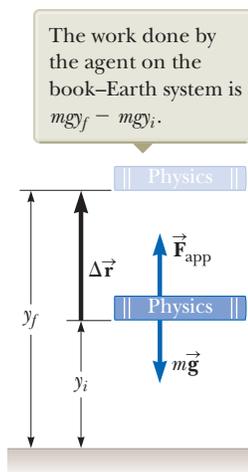


Figure 7.15 An external agent lifts a book slowly from a height y_i to a height y_f .

Pitfall Prevention 7.7

Potential Energy The phrase *potential energy* does not refer to something that has the potential to become energy. Potential energy *is* energy.

Pitfall Prevention 7.8

Potential Energy Belongs to a System Potential energy is always associated with a *system* of two or more interacting objects. When a small object moves near the surface of the Earth under the influence of gravity, we may sometimes refer to the potential energy “associated with the object” rather than the more proper “associated with the system” because the Earth does not move significantly. We will not, however, refer to the potential energy “of the object” because this wording ignores the role of the Earth.

Gravitational potential energy ▶

Let us imagine a system consisting of a book and the Earth, interacting via the gravitational force. We do some work on the system by lifting the book slowly from rest through a vertical displacement $\Delta\vec{r} = (y_f - y_i)\hat{j}$ as in Figure 7.15. According to our discussion of work as an energy transfer, this work done on the system must appear as an increase in energy of the system. The book is at rest before we perform the work and is at rest after we perform the work. Therefore, there is no change in the kinetic energy of the system.

Because the energy change of the system is not in the form of kinetic energy, the work-kinetic energy theorem does not apply here and the energy change must appear as some form of energy storage other than kinetic energy. After lifting the book, we could release it and let it fall back to the position y_i . Notice that the book (and therefore, the system) now has kinetic energy and that its source is in the work that was done in lifting the book. While the book was at the highest point, the system had the *potential* to possess kinetic energy, but it did not do so until the book was allowed to fall. Therefore, we call the energy storage mechanism before the book is released **potential energy**. We will find that the potential energy of a system can only be associated with specific types of forces acting between members of a system. The amount of potential energy in the system is determined by the *configuration* of the system. Moving members of the system to different positions or rotating them may change the configuration of the system and therefore its potential energy.

Let us now derive an expression for the potential energy associated with an object at a given location above the surface of the Earth. Consider an external agent lifting an object of mass m from an initial height y_i above the ground to a final height y_f as in Figure 7.15. We assume the lifting is done slowly, with no acceleration, so the applied force from the agent is equal in magnitude to the gravitational force on the object: the object is modeled as a particle in equilibrium moving at constant velocity. The work done by the external agent on the system (object and the Earth) as the object undergoes this upward displacement is given by the product of the upward applied force \vec{F}_{app} and the upward displacement of this force, $\Delta\vec{r} = \Delta y\hat{j}$:

$$W_{\text{ext}} = (\vec{F}_{\text{app}}) \cdot \Delta\vec{r} = (mg\hat{j}) \cdot [(y_f - y_i)\hat{j}] = mgy_f - mgy_i \quad (7.18)$$

where this result is the net work done on the system because the applied force is the only force on the system from the environment. (Remember that the gravitational force is *internal* to the system.) Notice the similarity between Equation 7.18 and Equation 7.15. In each equation, the work done on a system equals a difference between the final and initial values of a quantity. In Equation 7.15, the work represents a transfer of energy into the system and the increase in energy of the system is kinetic in form. In Equation 7.18, the work represents a transfer of energy into the system and the system energy appears in a different form, which we have called potential energy.

Therefore, we can identify the quantity mgy as the **gravitational potential energy** U_g of the system of an object of mass m and the Earth:

$$U_g \equiv mgy \quad (7.19)$$

The units of gravitational potential energy are joules, the same as the units of work and kinetic energy. Potential energy, like work and kinetic energy, is a scalar quantity. Notice that Equation 7.19 is valid only for objects near the surface of the Earth, where g is approximately constant.³

Using our definition of gravitational potential energy, Equation 7.18 can now be rewritten as

$$W_{\text{ext}} = \Delta U_g \quad (7.20)$$

which mathematically describes that the net external work done on the system in this situation appears as a change in the gravitational potential energy of the system.

Equation 7.20 is similar in form to the work-kinetic energy theorem, Equation 7.17. In Equation 7.17, work is done on a system and energy appears in the system as

³The assumption that g is constant is valid as long as the vertical displacement of the object is small compared with the Earth's radius.

kinetic energy, representing *motion* of the members of the system. In Equation 7.20, work is done on the system and energy appears in the system as potential energy, representing a change in the *configuration* of the members of the system.

Gravitational potential energy depends only on the vertical height of the object above the surface of the Earth. The same amount of work must be done on an object–Earth system whether the object is lifted vertically from the Earth or is pushed starting from the same point up a frictionless incline, ending up at the same height. We verified this statement for a specific situation of rolling a refrigerator up a ramp in Conceptual Example 7.7. This statement can be shown to be true in general by calculating the work done on an object by an agent moving the object through a displacement having both vertical and horizontal components:

$$W_{\text{ext}} = (\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{\text{app}}) \cdot \Delta\vec{\mathbf{r}} = (mg\hat{\mathbf{j}}) \cdot [(x_f - x_i)\hat{\mathbf{i}} + (y_f - y_i)\hat{\mathbf{j}}] = mgy_f - mgy_i$$

where there is no term involving x in the final result because $\hat{\mathbf{j}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{i}} = 0$.

In solving problems, you must choose a reference configuration for which the gravitational potential energy of the system is set equal to some reference value, which is normally zero. The choice of reference configuration is completely arbitrary because the important quantity is the *difference* in potential energy, and this difference is independent of the choice of reference configuration.

It is often convenient to choose as the reference configuration for zero gravitational potential energy the configuration in which an object is at the surface of the Earth, but this choice is not essential. Often, the statement of the problem suggests a convenient configuration to use.

- Quick Quiz 7.6** Choose the correct answer. The gravitational potential energy of a system (a) is always positive (b) is always negative (c) can be negative or positive

Example 7.8 The Proud Athlete and the Sore Toe

A trophy being shown off by a careless athlete slips from the athlete's hands and drops on his foot. Choosing floor level as the $y = 0$ point of your coordinate system, estimate the change in gravitational potential energy of the trophy–Earth system as the trophy falls. Repeat the calculation, using the top of the athlete's head as the origin of coordinates.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize The trophy changes its vertical position with respect to the surface of the Earth. Associated with this change in position is a change in the gravitational potential energy of the trophy–Earth system.

Categorize We evaluate a change in gravitational potential energy defined in this section, so we categorize this example as a substitution problem. Because there are no numbers provided in the problem statement, it is also an estimation problem.

The problem statement tells us that the reference configuration of the trophy–Earth system corresponding to zero potential energy is when the bottom of the trophy is at the floor. To find the change in potential energy for the system, we need to estimate a few values. Let's say the trophy has a mass of approximately 2 kg, and the top of a person's foot is about 0.05 m above the floor. Also, let's assume the trophy falls from a height of 1.4 m.

Calculate the gravitational potential energy of the trophy–Earth system just before the trophy is released:

$$U_i = mgy_i = (2 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(1.4 \text{ m}) = 27.4 \text{ J}$$

Calculate the gravitational potential energy of the trophy–Earth system when the trophy reaches the athlete's foot:

$$U_f = mgy_f = (2 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(0.05 \text{ m}) = 0.98 \text{ J}$$

Evaluate the change in gravitational potential energy of the trophy–Earth system:

$$\Delta U_g = 0.98 \text{ J} - 27.4 \text{ J} = -26.4 \text{ J}$$

continued

7.8 continued

We should probably keep only two digits because of the roughness of our estimates; therefore, we estimate that the change in gravitational potential energy is -26 J . The system had about 27 J of gravitational potential energy before the trophy began its fall and approximately 1 J of potential energy as the trophy reaches the top of the foot.

The second case presented indicates that the reference configuration of the system for zero potential energy is chosen to be when the trophy is on the athlete's head (even though the trophy is never at this position in its motion). We estimate this position to be 2.0 m above the floor).

Calculate the gravitational potential energy of the trophy–Earth system just before the trophy is released from its position 0.6 m below the athlete's head:

$$U_i = mgy_i = (2 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(-0.6 \text{ m}) = -11.8 \text{ J}$$

Calculate the gravitational potential energy of the trophy–Earth system when the trophy reaches the athlete's foot located 1.95 m below its initial position:

$$U_f = mgy_f = (2 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(-1.95 \text{ m}) = -38.2 \text{ J}$$

Evaluate the change in gravitational potential energy of the trophy–Earth system:

$$\Delta U_g = -38.2 \text{ J} - (-11.8 \text{ J}) = -26.4 \text{ J} \approx -26 \text{ J}$$

This value is the same as before, as it must be. The change in potential energy is independent of the choice of configuration of the system representing the zero of potential energy. If we wanted to keep only one digit in our estimates, we could write the final result as $3 \times 10^1 \text{ J}$.

Elastic Potential Energy

Because members of a system can interact with one another by means of different types of forces, it is possible that there are different types of potential energy in a system. We have just become familiar with gravitational potential energy of a system in which members interact via the gravitational force. Let us explore a second type of potential energy that a system can possess.

Consider a system consisting of a block and a spring as shown in Figure 7.16. In Section 7.4, we identified *only* the block as the system. Now we include both the block and the spring in the system and recognize that the spring force is the interaction between the two members of the system. The force that the spring exerts on the block is given by $F_s = -kx$ (Eq. 7.9). The external work done by an applied force F_{app} on the block–spring system is given by Equation 7.13:

$$W_{\text{ext}} = \frac{1}{2}kx_f^2 - \frac{1}{2}kx_i^2 \quad (7.21)$$

In this situation, the initial and final x coordinates of the block are measured from its equilibrium position, $x = 0$. Again (as in the gravitational case, Eq. 7.18) the work done on the system is equal to the difference between the initial and final values of an expression related to the system's configuration. The **elastic potential energy** function associated with the block–spring system is defined by

Elastic potential energy ►

$$U_s \equiv \frac{1}{2}kx^2 \quad (7.22)$$

Equation 7.21 can be expressed as

$$W_{\text{ext}} = \Delta U_s \quad (7.23)$$

Compare this equation to Equations 7.17 and 7.20. In all three situations, external work is done on a system and a form of energy storage in the system changes as a result.

The elastic potential energy of the system can be thought of as the energy stored in the deformed spring (one that is either compressed or stretched from its equilibrium position). The elastic potential energy stored in a spring is zero whenever the spring is undeformed ($x = 0$). Energy is stored in the spring only when the spring is

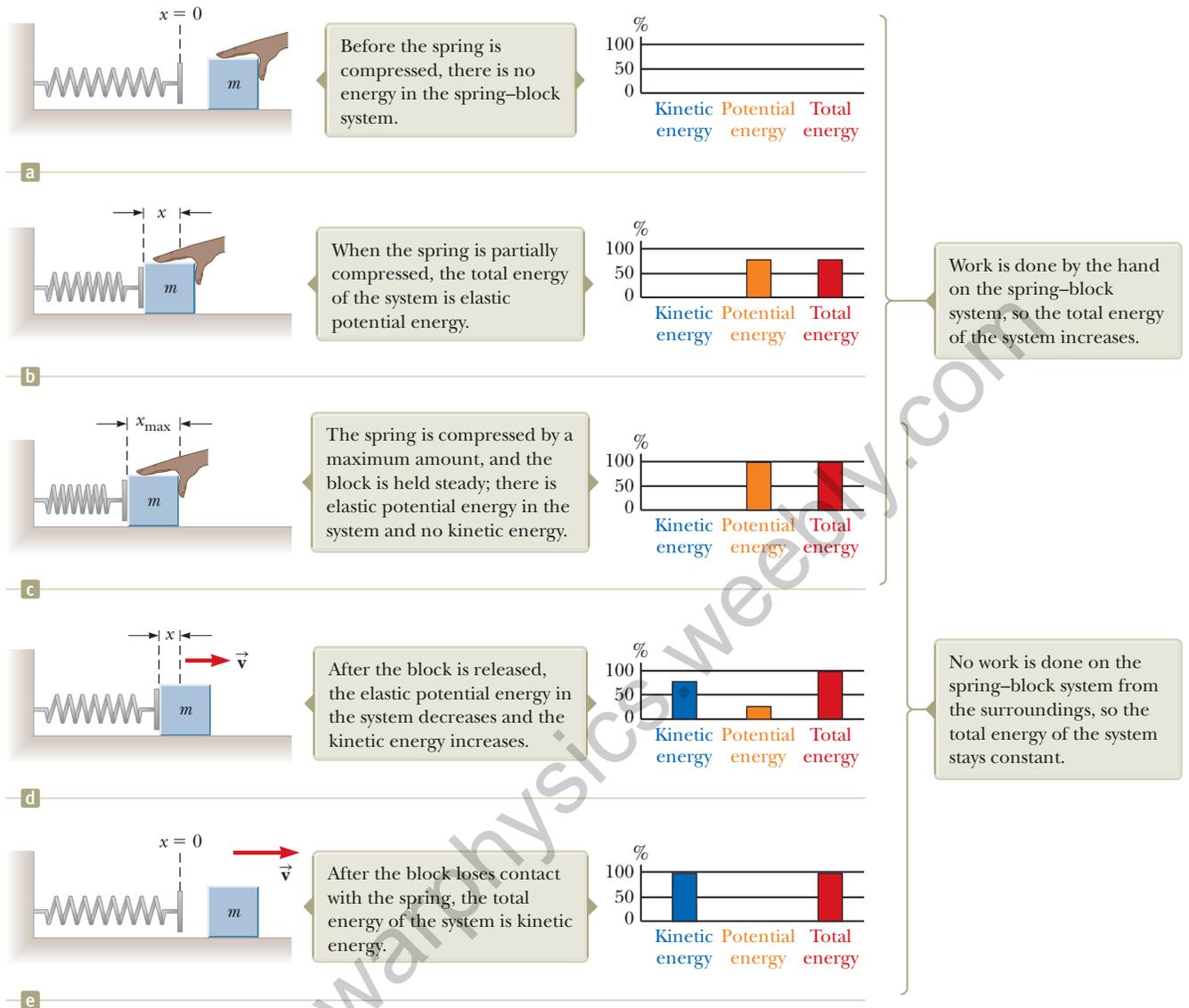


Figure 7.16 A spring on a frictionless, horizontal surface is compressed a distance x_{\max} when a block of mass m is pushed against it. The block is then released and the spring pushes it to the right, where the block eventually loses contact with the spring. Parts (a) through (e) show various instants in the process. Energy bar charts on the right of each part of the figure help keep track of the energy in the system.

either stretched or compressed. Because the elastic potential energy is proportional to x^2 , we see that U_s is always positive in a deformed spring. Everyday examples of the storage of elastic potential energy can be found in old-style clocks or watches that operate from a wound-up spring and small wind-up toys for children.

Consider Figure 7.16 once again, which shows a spring on a frictionless, horizontal surface. When a block is pushed against the spring by an external agent, the elastic potential energy and the total energy of the system increase as indicated in Figure 7.16b. When the spring is compressed a distance x_{\max} (Fig. 7.16c), the elastic potential energy stored in the spring is $\frac{1}{2}kx_{\max}^2$. When the block is released from rest, the spring exerts a force on the block and pushes the block to the right. The elastic potential energy of the system decreases, whereas the kinetic energy increases and the total energy remains fixed (Fig. 7.16d). When the spring returns to its original length, the stored elastic potential energy is completely transformed into kinetic energy of the block (Fig. 7.16e).



Figure 7.17 (Quick Quiz 7.7) A ball connected to a massless spring suspended vertically. What forms of potential energy are associated with the system when the ball is displaced downward?

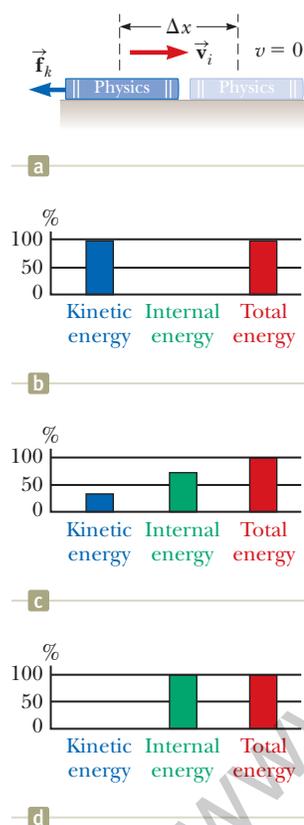


Figure 7.18 (a) A book sliding to the right on a horizontal surface slows down in the presence of a force of kinetic friction acting to the left. (b) An energy bar chart showing the energy in the system of the book and the surface at the initial instant of time. The energy of the system is all kinetic energy. (c) While the book is sliding, the kinetic energy of the system decreases as it is transformed to internal energy. (d) After the book has stopped, the energy of the system is all internal energy.

- Quick Quiz 7.7** A ball is connected to a light spring suspended vertically as shown in Figure 7.17. When pulled downward from its equilibrium position and released, the ball oscillates up and down. (i) In the system of *the ball, the spring, and the Earth*, what forms of energy are there during the motion? (a) kinetic and elastic potential (b) kinetic and gravitational potential (c) kinetic, elastic potential, and gravitational potential (d) elastic potential and gravitational potential (ii) In the system of *the ball and the spring*, what forms of energy are there during the motion? Choose from the same possibilities (a) through (d).

Energy Bar Charts

Figure 7.16 shows an important graphical representation of information related to energy of systems called an **energy bar chart**. The vertical axis represents the amount of energy of a given type in the system. The horizontal axis shows the types of energy in the system. The bar chart in Figure 7.16a shows that the system contains zero energy because the spring is relaxed and the block is not moving. Between Figure 7.16a and Figure 7.16c, the hand does work on the system, compressing the spring and storing elastic potential energy in the system. In Figure 7.16d, the block has been released and is moving to the right while still in contact with the spring. The height of the bar for the elastic potential energy of the system decreases, the kinetic energy bar increases, and the total energy bar remains fixed. In Figure 7.16e, the spring has returned to its relaxed length and the system now contains only kinetic energy associated with the moving block.

Energy bar charts can be a very useful representation for keeping track of the various types of energy in a system. For practice, try making energy bar charts for the book–Earth system in Figure 7.15 when the book is dropped from the higher position. Figure 7.17 associated with Quick Quiz 7.7 shows another system for which drawing an energy bar chart would be a good exercise. We will show energy bar charts in some figures in this chapter. Some figures will not show a bar chart in the text but will include one in animated versions that appear in Enhanced WebAssign.

7.7 Conservative and Nonconservative Forces

We now introduce a third type of energy that a system can possess. Imagine that the book in Figure 7.18a has been accelerated by your hand and is now sliding to the right on the surface of a heavy table and slowing down due to the friction force. Suppose the *surface* is the system. Then the friction force from the sliding book does work on the surface. The force on the surface is to the right and the displacement of the point of application of the force is to the right because the book has moved to the right. The work done on the surface is therefore positive, but the surface is not moving after the book has stopped. Positive work has been done on the surface, yet there is no increase in the surface's kinetic energy or the potential energy of any system. So where is the energy?

From your everyday experience with sliding over surfaces with friction, you can probably guess that the surface will be *warmer* after the book slides over it. The work that was done on the surface has gone into warming the surface rather than increasing its speed or changing the configuration of a system. We call the energy associated with the temperature of a system its **internal energy**, symbolized E_{int} . (We will define internal energy more generally in Chapter 20.) In this case, the work done on the surface does indeed represent energy transferred into the system, but it appears in the system as internal energy rather than kinetic or potential energy.

Now consider the book and the surface in Figure 7.18a together as a system. Initially, the system has kinetic energy because the book is moving. While the book is sliding, the internal energy of the system increases: the book and the surface are warmer than before. When the book stops, the kinetic energy has been completely

transformed to internal energy. We can consider the nonconservative force within the system—that is, between the book and the surface—as a *transformation mechanism* for energy. This nonconservative force transforms the kinetic energy of the system into internal energy. Rub your hands together briskly to experience this effect!

Figures 7.18b through 7.18d show energy bar charts for the situation in Figure 7.18a. In Figure 7.18b, the bar chart shows that the system contains kinetic energy at the instant the book is released by your hand. We define the reference amount of internal energy in the system as zero at this instant. Figure 7.18c shows the kinetic energy transforming to internal energy as the book slows down due to the friction force. In Figure 7.18d, after the book has stopped sliding, the kinetic energy is zero, and the system now contains only internal energy E_{int} . Notice that the total energy bar in red has not changed during the process. The amount of internal energy in the system after the book has stopped is equal to the amount of kinetic energy in the system at the initial instant. This equality is described by an important principle called *conservation of energy*. We will explore this principle in Chapter 8.

Now consider in more detail an object moving downward near the surface of the Earth. The work done by the gravitational force on the object does not depend on whether it falls vertically or slides down a sloping incline with friction. All that matters is the change in the object's elevation. The energy transformation to internal energy due to friction on that incline, however, depends very much on the distance the object slides. The longer the incline, the more potential energy is transformed to internal energy. In other words, the path makes no difference when we consider the work done by the gravitational force, but it does make a difference when we consider the energy transformation due to friction forces. We can use this varying dependence on path to classify forces as either *conservative* or *nonconservative*. Of the two forces just mentioned, the gravitational force is conservative and the friction force is nonconservative.

Conservative Forces

Conservative forces have these two equivalent properties:

1. The work done by a conservative force on a particle moving between any two points is independent of the path taken by the particle.
2. The work done by a conservative force on a particle moving through any closed path is zero. (A closed path is one for which the beginning point and the endpoint are identical.)

The gravitational force is one example of a conservative force; the force that an ideal spring exerts on any object attached to the spring is another. The work done by the gravitational force on an object moving between any two points near the Earth's surface is $W_g = -mg\hat{\mathbf{j}} \cdot [(y_f - y_i)\hat{\mathbf{j}}] = mgy_i - mgy_f$. From this equation, notice that W_g depends only on the initial and final y coordinates of the object and hence is independent of the path. Furthermore, W_g is zero when the object moves over any closed path (where $y_i = y_f$).

For the case of the object–spring system, the work W_s done by the spring force is given by $W_s = \frac{1}{2}kx_i^2 - \frac{1}{2}kx_f^2$ (Eq. 7.12). We see that the spring force is conservative because W_s depends only on the initial and final x coordinates of the object and is zero for any closed path.

We can associate a potential energy for a system with a force acting between members of the system, but we can do so only if the force is conservative. In general, the work W_{int} done by a conservative force on an object that is a member of a system as the system changes from one configuration to another is equal to the initial value of the potential energy of the system minus the final value:

$$W_{\text{int}} = U_i - U_f = -\Delta U \quad (7.24)$$

The subscript “int” in Equation 7.24 reminds us that the work we are discussing is done by one member of the system on another member and is therefore *internal* to

Properties of conservative forces

Pitfall Prevention 7.9

Similar Equation Warning Compare Equation 7.24 with Equation 7.20. These equations are similar except for the negative sign, which is a common source of confusion. Equation 7.20 tells us that positive work done *by an outside agent* on a system causes an increase in the potential energy of the system (with no change in the kinetic or internal energy). Equation 7.24 states that positive work done on a component of a system by a conservative force *internal to the system* causes a decrease in the potential energy of the system.

the system. It is different from the work W_{ext} done *on* the system as a whole by an external agent. As an example, compare Equation 7.24 with the equation for the work done by an external agent on a block–spring system (Eq. 7.23) as the extension of the spring changes.

Nonconservative Forces

A force is **nonconservative** if it does not satisfy properties 1 and 2 above. The work done by a nonconservative force is path-dependent. We define the sum of the kinetic and potential energies of a system as the **mechanical energy** of the system:

$$E_{\text{mech}} \equiv K + U \quad (7.25)$$

where K includes the kinetic energy of all moving members of the system and U includes all types of potential energy in the system. For a book falling under the action of the gravitational force, the mechanical energy of the book–Earth system remains fixed; gravitational potential energy transforms to kinetic energy, and the total energy of the system remains constant. Nonconservative forces acting within a system, however, cause a *change* in the mechanical energy of the system. For example, for a book sent sliding on a horizontal surface that is not frictionless (Fig. 7.18a), the mechanical energy of the book–surface system is transformed to internal energy as we discussed earlier. Only part of the book’s kinetic energy is transformed to internal energy in the book. The rest appears as internal energy in the surface. (When you trip and slide across a gymnasium floor, not only does the skin on your knees warm up, so does the floor!) Because the force of kinetic friction transforms the mechanical energy of a system into internal energy, it is a nonconservative force.

As an example of the path dependence of the work for a nonconservative force, consider Figure 7.19. Suppose you displace a book between two points on a table. If the book is displaced in a straight line along the blue path between points Ⓐ and Ⓑ in Figure 7.19, you do a certain amount of work against the kinetic friction force to keep the book moving at a constant speed. Now, imagine that you push the book along the brown semicircular path in Figure 7.19. You perform more work against friction along the curved path than along the straight path because the curved path is longer. The work done on the book depends on the path, so the friction force *cannot* be conservative.

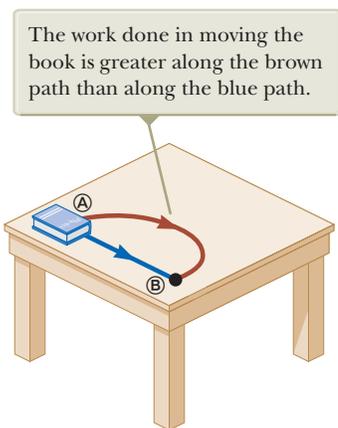


Figure 7.19 The work done against the force of kinetic friction depends on the path taken as the book is moved from Ⓐ to Ⓑ.

7.8 Relationship Between Conservative Forces and Potential Energy

In the preceding section, we found that the work done on a member of a system by a conservative force between the members of the system does not depend on the path taken by the moving member. The work depends only on the initial and final coordinates. For such a system, we can define a **potential energy function** U such that the work done within the system by the conservative force equals the negative of the change in the potential energy of the system according to Equation 7.24. Let us imagine a system of particles in which a conservative force \vec{F} acts between the particles. Imagine also that the configuration of the system changes due to the motion of one particle along the x axis. Then we can evaluate the internal work done by this force as the particle moves along the x axis⁴ using Equations 7.7 and 7.24:

$$W_{\text{int}} = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} F_x dx = -\Delta U \quad (7.26)$$

⁴For a general displacement, the work done in two or three dimensions also equals $-\Delta U$, where $U = U(x, y, z)$. We write this equation formally as $W_{\text{int}} = \int_i^f \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = U_i - U_f$.

where F_x is the component of \vec{F} in the direction of the displacement. We can also express Equation 7.26 as

$$\Delta U = U_f - U_i = - \int_{x_i}^{x_f} F_x dx \quad (7.27)$$

Therefore, ΔU is negative when F_x and dx are in the same direction, as when an object is lowered in a gravitational field or when a spring pushes an object toward equilibrium.

It is often convenient to establish some particular location x_i of one member of a system as representing a reference configuration and measure all potential energy differences with respect to it. We can then define the potential energy function as

$$U_f(x) = - \int_{x_i}^{x_f} F_x dx + U_i \quad (7.28)$$

The value of U_i is often taken to be zero for the reference configuration. It does not matter what value we assign to U_i because any nonzero value merely shifts $U_f(x)$ by a constant amount and only the *change* in potential energy is physically meaningful.

If the point of application of the force undergoes an infinitesimal displacement dx , we can express the infinitesimal change in the potential energy of the system dU as

$$dU = -F_x dx$$

Therefore, the conservative force is related to the potential energy function through the relationship⁵

$$F_x = - \frac{dU}{dx} \quad (7.29)$$

That is, the x component of a conservative force acting on a member within a system equals the negative derivative of the potential energy of the system with respect to x .

We can easily check Equation 7.29 for the two examples already discussed. In the case of the deformed spring, $U_s = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$; therefore,

$$F_s = - \frac{dU_s}{dx} = - \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{2}kx^2 \right) = -kx$$

which corresponds to the restoring force in the spring (Hooke's law). Because the gravitational potential energy function is $U_g = mgy$, it follows from Equation 7.29 that $F_g = -mg$ when we differentiate U_g with respect to y instead of x .

We now see that U is an important function because a conservative force can be derived from it. Furthermore, Equation 7.29 should clarify that adding a constant to the potential energy is unimportant because the derivative of a constant is zero.

- Quick Quiz 7.8** What does the slope of a graph of $U(x)$ versus x represent? (a) the magnitude of the force on the object (b) the negative of the magnitude of the force on the object (c) the x component of the force on the object (d) the negative of the x component of the force on the object

7.9 Energy Diagrams and Equilibrium of a System

The motion of a system can often be understood qualitatively through a graph of its potential energy versus the position of a member of the system. Consider the potential

⁵In three dimensions, the expression is

$$\vec{F} = - \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \hat{i} - \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} \hat{j} - \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \hat{k}$$

where $(\partial U/\partial x)$ and so forth are partial derivatives. In the language of vector calculus, \vec{F} equals the negative of the *gradient* of the scalar quantity $U(x, y, z)$.

◀ Relation of force between members of a system to the potential energy of the system

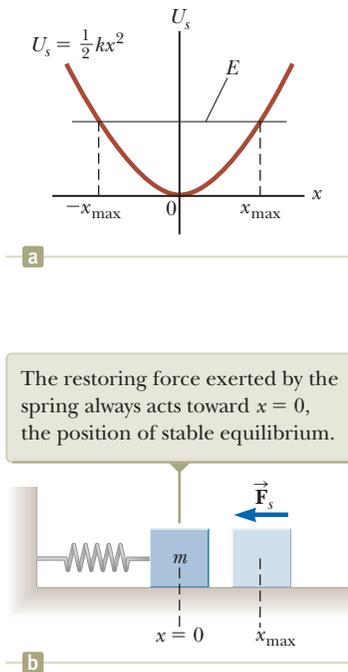


Figure 7.20 (a) Potential energy as a function of x for the frictionless block–spring system shown in (b). For a given energy E of the system, the block oscillates between the turning points, which have the coordinates $x = \pm x_{\max}$.

Pitfall Prevention 7.10

Energy Diagrams A common mistake is to think that potential energy on the graph in an energy diagram represents the height of some object. For example, that is not the case in Figure 7.20, where the block is only moving horizontally.

energy function for a block–spring system, given by $U_s = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$. This function is plotted versus x in Figure 7.20a, where x is the position of the block. The force F_s exerted by the spring on the block is related to U_s through Equation 7.29:

$$F_s = -\frac{dU_s}{dx} = -kx$$

As we saw in Quick Quiz 7.8, the x component of the force is equal to the negative of the slope of the U -versus- x curve. When the block is placed at rest at the equilibrium position of the spring ($x = 0$), where $F_s = 0$, it will remain there unless some external force F_{ext} acts on it. If this external force stretches the spring from equilibrium, x is positive and the slope dU/dx is positive; therefore, the force F_s exerted by the spring is negative and the block accelerates back toward $x = 0$ when released. If the external force compresses the spring, x is negative and the slope is negative; therefore, F_s is positive and again the mass accelerates toward $x = 0$ upon release.

From this analysis, we conclude that the $x = 0$ position for a block–spring system is one of **stable equilibrium**. That is, any movement away from this position results in a force directed back toward $x = 0$. In general, configurations of a system in stable equilibrium correspond to those for which $U(x)$ for the system is a minimum.

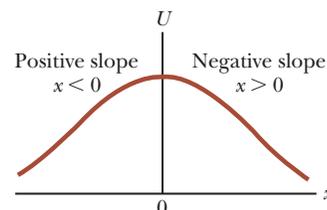
If the block in Figure 7.20 is moved to an initial position x_{\max} and then released from rest, its total energy initially is the potential energy $\frac{1}{2}kx_{\max}^2$ stored in the spring. As the block starts to move, the system acquires kinetic energy and loses potential energy. The block oscillates (moves back and forth) between the two points $x = -x_{\max}$ and $x = +x_{\max}$, called the *turning points*. In fact, because no energy is transformed to internal energy due to friction, the block oscillates between $-x_{\max}$ and $+x_{\max}$ forever. (We will discuss these oscillations further in Chapter 15.)

Another simple mechanical system with a configuration of stable equilibrium is a ball rolling about in the bottom of a bowl. Anytime the ball is displaced from its lowest position, it tends to return to that position when released.

Now consider a particle moving along the x axis under the influence of a conservative force F_x , where the U -versus- x curve is as shown in Figure 7.21. Once again, $F_x = 0$ at $x = 0$, and so the particle is in equilibrium at this point. This position, however, is one of **unstable equilibrium** for the following reason. Suppose the particle is displaced to the right ($x > 0$). Because the slope is negative for $x > 0$, $F_x = -dU/dx$ is positive and the particle accelerates away from $x = 0$. If instead the particle is at $x = 0$ and is displaced to the left ($x < 0$), the force is negative because the slope is positive for $x < 0$ and the particle again accelerates away from the equilibrium position. The position $x = 0$ in this situation is one of unstable equilibrium because for any displacement from this point, the force pushes the particle farther away from equilibrium and toward a position of lower potential energy. A pencil balanced on its point is in a position of unstable equilibrium. If the pencil is displaced slightly from its absolutely vertical position and is then released, it will surely fall over. In general, configurations of a system in unstable equilibrium correspond to those for which $U(x)$ for the system is a maximum.

Finally, a configuration called **neutral equilibrium** arises when U is constant over some region. Small displacements of an object from a position in this region produce neither restoring nor disrupting forces. A ball lying on a flat, horizontal surface is an example of an object in neutral equilibrium.

Figure 7.21 A plot of U versus x for a particle that has a position of unstable equilibrium located at $x = 0$. For any finite displacement of the particle, the force on the particle is directed away from $x = 0$.



Example 7.9 Force and Energy on an Atomic Scale

The potential energy associated with the force between two neutral atoms in a molecule can be modeled by the Lennard–Jones potential energy function:

$$U(x) = 4\epsilon \left[\left(\frac{\sigma}{x} \right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma}{x} \right)^6 \right]$$

where x is the separation of the atoms. The function $U(x)$ contains two parameters σ and ϵ that are determined from experiments. Sample values for the interaction between two atoms in a molecule are $\sigma = 0.263$ nm and $\epsilon = 1.51 \times 10^{-22}$ J. Using a spreadsheet or similar tool, graph this function and find the most likely distance between the two atoms.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize We identify the two atoms in the molecule as a system. Based on our understanding that stable molecules exist, we expect to find stable equilibrium when the two atoms are separated by some equilibrium distance.

Categorize Because a potential energy function exists, we categorize the force between the atoms as conservative. For a conservative force, Equation 7.29 describes the relationship between the force and the potential energy function.

Analyze Stable equilibrium exists for a separation distance at which the potential energy of the system of two atoms (the molecule) is a minimum.

Take the derivative of the function $U(x)$:

$$\frac{dU(x)}{dx} = 4\epsilon \frac{d}{dx} \left[\left(\frac{\sigma}{x} \right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma}{x} \right)^6 \right] = 4\epsilon \left[\frac{-12\sigma^{12}}{x^{13}} + \frac{6\sigma^6}{x^7} \right]$$

Minimize the function $U(x)$ by setting its derivative equal to zero:

$$4\epsilon \left[\frac{-12\sigma^{12}}{x_{\text{eq}}^{13}} + \frac{6\sigma^6}{x_{\text{eq}}^7} \right] = 0 \rightarrow x_{\text{eq}} = (2)^{1/6}\sigma$$

Evaluate x_{eq} , the equilibrium separation of the two atoms in the molecule:

$$x_{\text{eq}} = (2)^{1/6}(0.263 \text{ nm}) = 2.95 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

We graph the Lennard–Jones function on both sides of this critical value to create our energy diagram as shown in Figure 7.22.

Finalize Notice that $U(x)$ is extremely large when the atoms are very close together, is a minimum when the atoms are at their critical separation, and then increases again as the atoms move apart. When $U(x)$ is a minimum, the atoms are in stable equilibrium, indicating that the most likely separation between them occurs at this point.

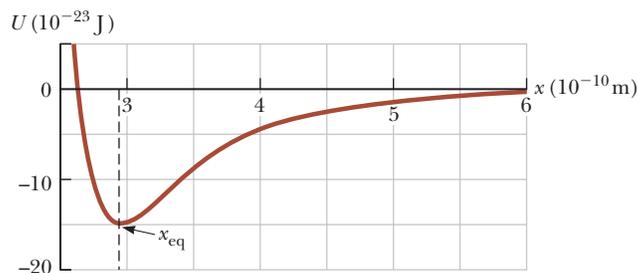


Figure 7.22 (Example 7.9) Potential energy curve associated with a molecule. The distance x is the separation between the two atoms making up the molecule.

Summary

Definitions

■ A **system** is most often a single particle, a collection of particles, or a region of space, and may vary in size and shape. A **system boundary** separates the system from the **environment**.

■ The **work** W done on a system by an agent exerting a constant force \vec{F} on the system is the product of the magnitude Δr of the displacement of the point of application of the force and the component $F \cos \theta$ of the force along the direction of the displacement $\Delta \vec{r}$:

$$W \equiv F \Delta r \cos \theta \quad (7.1)$$

continued

If a varying force does work on a particle as the particle moves along the x axis from x_i to x_f , the work done by the force on the particle is given by

$$W = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} F_x dx \quad (7.7)$$

where F_x is the component of force in the x direction.

The **kinetic energy** of a particle of mass m moving with a speed v is

$$K \equiv \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \quad (7.16)$$

If a particle of mass m is at a distance y above the Earth's surface, the **gravitational potential energy** of the particle–Earth system is

$$U_g \equiv mgy \quad (7.19)$$

The **elastic potential energy** stored in a spring of force constant k is

$$U_s \equiv \frac{1}{2}kx^2 \quad (7.22)$$

A force is **conservative** if the work it does on a particle that is a member of the system as the particle moves between two points is independent of the path the particle takes between the two points. Furthermore, a force is conservative if the work it does on a particle is zero when the particle moves through an arbitrary closed path and returns to its initial position. A force that does not meet these criteria is said to be **nonconservative**.

The **total mechanical energy of a system** is defined as the sum of the kinetic energy and the potential energy:

$$E_{\text{mech}} \equiv K + U \quad (7.25)$$

Concepts and Principles

The **work–kinetic energy theorem** states that if work is done on a system by external forces and the only change in the system is in its speed,

$$W_{\text{ext}} = K_f - K_i = \Delta K = \frac{1}{2}mv_f^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_i^2 \quad (7.15, 7.17)$$

A **potential energy function** U can be associated only with a conservative force. If a conservative force \vec{F} acts between members of a system while one member moves along the x axis from x_i to x_f , the change in the potential energy of the system equals the negative of the work done by that force:

$$U_f - U_i = - \int_{x_i}^{x_f} F_x dx \quad (7.27)$$

Systems can be in three types of equilibrium configurations when the net force on a member of the system is zero. Configurations of **stable equilibrium** correspond to those for which $U(x)$ is a minimum.

Configurations of **unstable equilibrium** correspond to those for which $U(x)$ is a maximum.

Neutral equilibrium arises when U is constant as a member of the system moves over some region.

Objective Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

1. Alex and John are loading identical cabinets onto a truck. Alex lifts his cabinet straight up from the ground to the bed of the truck, whereas John slides his cabinet up a rough ramp to the truck. Which statement is correct about the work done on the cabinet–Earth system? (a) Alex and John do the same amount of work. (b) Alex does more work than John. (c) John does more work than Alex. (d) None of those state-

ments is necessarily true because the force of friction is unknown. (e) None of those statements is necessarily true because the angle of the incline is unknown.

2. If the net work done by external forces on a particle is zero, which of the following statements about the particle must be true? (a) Its velocity is zero. (b) Its velocity is decreased. (c) Its velocity is unchanged. (d) Its speed is unchanged. (e) More information is needed.

3. A worker pushes a wheelbarrow with a horizontal force of 50 N on level ground over a distance of 5.0 m. If a friction force of 43 N acts on the wheelbarrow in a direction opposite that of the worker, what work is done on the wheelbarrow by the worker? (a) 250 J (b) 215 J (c) 35 J (d) 10 J (e) None of those answers is correct.
4. A cart is set rolling across a level table, at the same speed on every trial. If it runs into a patch of sand, the cart exerts on the sand an average horizontal force of 6 N and travels a distance of 6 cm through the sand as it comes to a stop. If instead the cart runs into a patch of gravel on which the cart exerts an average horizontal force of 9 N, how far into the gravel will the cart roll before stopping? (a) 9 cm (b) 6 cm (c) 4 cm (d) 3 cm (e) none of those answers
5. Let \hat{N} represent the direction horizontally north, \hat{NE} represent northeast (halfway between north and east), and so on. Each direction specification can be thought of as a unit vector. Rank from the largest to the smallest the following dot products. Note that zero is larger than a negative number. If two quantities are equal, display that fact in your ranking. (a) $\hat{N} \cdot \hat{N}$ (b) $\hat{N} \cdot \hat{NE}$ (c) $\hat{N} \cdot \hat{S}$ (d) $\hat{N} \cdot \hat{E}$ (e) $\hat{SE} \cdot \hat{S}$
6. Is the work required to be done by an external force on an object on a frictionless, horizontal surface to accelerate it from a speed v to a speed $2v$ (a) equal to the work required to accelerate the object from $v = 0$ to v , (b) twice the work required to accelerate the object from $v = 0$ to v , (c) three times the work required to accelerate the object from $v = 0$ to v , (d) four times the work required to accelerate the object from 0 to v , or (e) not known without knowledge of the acceleration?
7. A block of mass m is dropped from the fourth floor of an office building and hits the sidewalk below at speed v . From what floor should the block be dropped to double that impact speed? (a) the sixth floor (b) the eighth floor (c) the tenth floor (d) the twelfth floor (e) the sixteenth floor
8. As a simple pendulum swings back and forth, the forces acting on the suspended object are (a) the gravitational force, (b) the tension in the supporting cord, and (c) air resistance. (i) Which of these forces, if any, does no work on the pendulum at any time? (ii) Which of these forces does negative work on the pendulum at all times during its motion?
9. Bullet 2 has twice the mass of bullet 1. Both are fired so that they have the same speed. If the kinetic energy of bullet 1 is K , is the kinetic energy of bullet 2 (a) $0.25K$, (b) $0.5K$, (c) $0.71K$, (d) K , or (e) $2K$?
10. Figure OQ7.10 shows a light extended spring exerting a force F_s to the left on a block. (i) Does the block exert a force on the spring? Choose every correct answer. (a) No, it doesn't. (b) Yes, it does, to the left. (c) Yes, it does, to the right. (d) Yes, it does, and its magnitude is larger than F_s . (e) Yes, it does, and its magnitude is equal to F_s . (ii) Does the spring exert a force

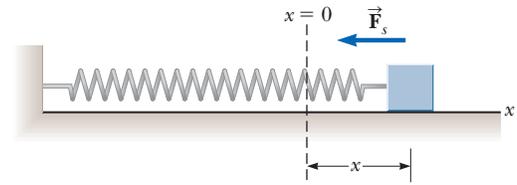


Figure OQ7.10

on the wall? Choose your answers from the same list (a) through (e).

11. If the speed of a particle is doubled, what happens to its kinetic energy? (a) It becomes four times larger. (b) It becomes two times larger. (c) It becomes $\sqrt{2}$ times larger. (d) It is unchanged. (e) It becomes half as large.
12. Mark and David are loading identical cement blocks onto David's pickup truck. Mark lifts his block straight up from the ground to the truck, whereas David slides his block up a ramp containing frictionless rollers. Which statement is true about the work done on the block–Earth system? (a) Mark does more work than David. (b) Mark and David do the same amount of work. (c) David does more work than Mark. (d) None of those statements is necessarily true because the angle of the incline is unknown. (e) None of those statements is necessarily true because the mass of one block is not given.
13. (i) Rank the gravitational accelerations you would measure for the following falling objects: (a) a 2-kg object 5 cm above the floor, (b) a 2-kg object 120 cm above the floor, (c) a 3-kg object 120 cm above the floor, and (d) a 3-kg object 80 cm above the floor. List the one with the largest magnitude of acceleration first. If any are equal, show their equality in your list. (ii) Rank the gravitational forces on the same four objects, listing the one with the largest magnitude first. (iii) Rank the gravitational potential energies (of the object–Earth system) for the same four objects, largest first, taking $y = 0$ at the floor.
14. A certain spring that obeys Hooke's law is stretched by an external agent. The work done in stretching the spring by 10 cm is 4 J. How much additional work is required to stretch the spring an additional 10 cm? (a) 2 J (b) 4 J (c) 8 J (d) 12 J (e) 16 J
15. A cart is set rolling across a level table, at the same speed on every trial. If it runs into a patch of sand, the cart exerts on the sand an average horizontal force of 6 N and travels a distance of 6 cm through the sand as it comes to a stop. If instead the cart runs into a patch of flour, it rolls an average of 18 cm before stopping. What is the average magnitude of the horizontal force the cart exerts on the flour? (a) 2 N (b) 3 N (c) 6 N (d) 18 N (e) none of those answers
16. An ice cube has been given a push and slides without friction on a level table. Which is correct? (a) It is in stable equilibrium. (b) It is in unstable equilibrium. (c) It is in neutral equilibrium. (d) It is not in equilibrium.

Conceptual Questions

1. denotes answer available in *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

- Can a normal force do work? If not, why not? If so, give an example.
- Object 1 pushes on object 2 as the objects move together, like a bulldozer pushing a stone. Assume object 1 does 15.0 J of work on object 2. Does object 2 do work on object 1? Explain your answer. If possible, determine how much work and explain your reasoning.
- A student has the idea that the total work done on an object is equal to its final kinetic energy. Is this idea true always, sometimes, or never? If it is sometimes true, under what circumstances? If it is always or never true, explain why.
- (a) For what values of the angle θ between two vectors is their scalar product positive? (b) For what values of θ is their scalar product negative?
- Can kinetic energy be negative? Explain.
- Discuss the work done by a pitcher throwing a baseball. What is the approximate distance through which the force acts as the ball is thrown?
- Discuss whether any work is being done by each of the following agents and, if so, whether the work is positive or negative. (a) a chicken scratching the ground (b) a person studying (c) a crane lifting a bucket of concrete (d) the gravitational force on the bucket in part (c) (e) the leg muscles of a person in the act of sitting down
- If only one external force acts on a particle, does it necessarily change the particle's (a) kinetic energy? (b) Its velocity?
- Preparing to clean them, you pop all the removable keys off a computer keyboard. Each key has the shape of a tiny box with one side open. By accident, you spill the keys onto the floor. Explain why many more keys land letter-side down than land open-side down.
- You are reshelving books in a library. You lift a book from the floor to the top shelf. The kinetic energy of the book on the floor was zero and the kinetic energy of the book on the top shelf is zero, so no change occurs in the kinetic energy, yet you did some work in lifting the book. Is the work–kinetic energy theorem violated? Explain.
- A certain uniform spring has spring constant k . Now the spring is cut in half. What is the relationship between k and the spring constant k' of each resulting smaller spring? Explain your reasoning.
- What shape would the graph of U versus x have if a particle were in a region of neutral equilibrium?
- Does the kinetic energy of an object depend on the frame of reference in which its motion is measured? Provide an example to prove this point.
- Cite two examples in which a force is exerted on an object without doing any work on the object.

Problems

ENHANCED
WebAssign

The problems found in this chapter may be assigned online in Enhanced WebAssign

AMT

Analysis Model tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

GP

Guided Problem

M

Master It tutorial available in Enhanced WebAssign

W

Watch It video solution available in Enhanced WebAssign

1. straightforward; 2. intermediate;
3. challenging

1. full solution available in the *Student Solutions Manual/Study Guide*

Section 7.2 Work Done by a Constant Force

- A shopper in a supermarket pushes a cart with a force of 35.0 N directed at an angle of 25.0° below the horizontal. The force is just sufficient to balance various friction forces, so the cart moves at constant speed. (a) Find the work done by the shopper on the cart as she moves down a 50.0-m-long aisle. (b) The shopper goes down the next aisle, pushing horizontally and maintaining the same speed as before. If the friction force doesn't change, would the shopper's applied force be larger, smaller, or the same? (c) What about the work done on the cart by the shopper?
- A raindrop of mass 3.35×10^{-5} kg falls vertically at **W** constant speed under the influence of gravity and air resistance. Model the drop as a particle. As it falls 100 m, what is the work done on the raindrop (a) by the gravitational force and (b) by air resistance?
- In 1990, Walter Arfeuille of Belgium lifted a 281.5-kg object through a distance of 17.1 cm using only his teeth. (a) How much work was done on the object by Arfeuille in this lift, assuming the object was lifted at constant speed? (b) What total force was exerted on Arfeuille's teeth during the lift?
- The record number of boat lifts, including the boat and its ten crew members, was achieved by Sami Heino and Juha Räsänen of Sweden in 2000. They lifted a total mass of 653.2 kg approximately 4 in. off the ground a total of 24 times. Estimate the total work done by the two men on the boat in this record lift, ignoring the negative work done by the men when they lowered the boat back to the ground.

5. A block of mass $m = 2.50$ kg is pushed a distance $d = 2.20$ m along a frictionless, horizontal table by a constant applied force of magnitude $F = 16.0$ N directed at an angle $\theta = 25.0^\circ$ below the horizontal as shown in Figure P7.5. Determine the work done on the block by (a) the applied force, (b) the normal force exerted by the table, (c) the gravitational force, and (d) the net force on the block.

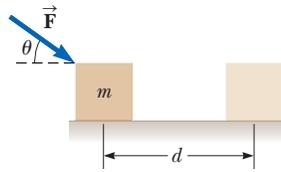


Figure P7.5

6. Spiderman, whose mass is 80.0 kg, is dangling on the free end of a 12.0-m-long rope, the other end of which is fixed to a tree limb above. By repeatedly bending at the waist, he is able to get the rope in motion, eventually getting it to swing enough that he can reach a ledge when the rope makes a 60.0° angle with the vertical. How much work was done by the gravitational force on Spiderman in this maneuver?

Section 7.3 The Scalar Product of Two Vectors

7. For any two vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} , show that $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = A_x B_x + A_y B_y + A_z B_z$. *Suggestions:* Write \vec{A} and \vec{B} in unit-vector form and use Equations 7.4 and 7.5.
8. Vector \vec{A} has a magnitude of 5.00 units, and vector \vec{B} has a magnitude of 9.00 units. The two vectors make an angle of 50.0° with each other. Find $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$.

Note: In Problems 9 through 12, calculate numerical answers to three significant figures as usual.

9. For $\vec{A} = 3\hat{i} + \hat{j} - \hat{k}$, $\vec{B} = -\hat{i} + 2\hat{j} + 5\hat{k}$, and $\vec{C} = 2\hat{j} - 3\hat{k}$, find $\vec{C} \cdot (\vec{A} - \vec{B})$.
10. Find the scalar product of the vectors in Figure P7.10.

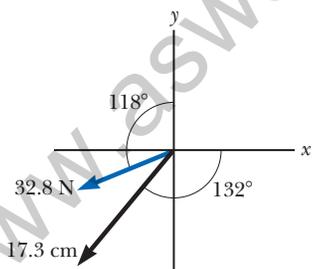


Figure P7.10

11. A force $\vec{F} = (6\hat{i} - 2\hat{j})$ N acts on a particle that undergoes a displacement $\Delta\vec{r} = (3\hat{i} + \hat{j})$ m. Find (a) the work done by the force on the particle and (b) the angle between \vec{F} and $\Delta\vec{r}$.
12. Using the definition of the scalar product, find the angles between (a) $\vec{A} = 3\hat{i} - 2\hat{j}$ and $\vec{B} = 4\hat{i} - 4\hat{j}$, (b) $\vec{A} = -2\hat{i} + 4\hat{j}$ and $\vec{B} = 3\hat{i} - 4\hat{j} + 2\hat{k}$, and (c) $\vec{A} = \hat{i} - 2\hat{j} + 2\hat{k}$ and $\vec{B} = 3\hat{j} + 4\hat{k}$.
13. Let $\vec{B} = 5.00$ m at 60.0° . Let the vector \vec{C} have the same magnitude as \vec{A} and a direction angle greater than that of \vec{A} by 25.0° . Let $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = 30.0$ m² and $\vec{B} \cdot \vec{C} = 35.0$ m². Find the magnitude and direction of \vec{A} .

Section 7.4 Work Done by a Varying Force

14. The force acting on a particle varies as shown in Figure P7.14. Find the work done by the force on the particle as it moves (a) from $x = 0$ to $x = 8.00$ m, (b) from $x = 8.00$ m to $x = 10.0$ m, and (c) from $x = 0$ to $x = 10.0$ m.

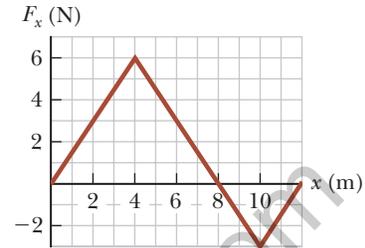


Figure P7.14

15. A particle is subject to a force F_x that varies with position as shown in Figure P7.15. Find the work done by the force on the particle as it moves (a) from $x = 0$ to $x = 5.00$ m, (b) from $x = 5.00$ m to $x = 10.0$ m, and (c) from $x = 10.0$ m to $x = 15.0$ m. (d) What is the total work done by the force over the distance $x = 0$ to $x = 15.0$ m?

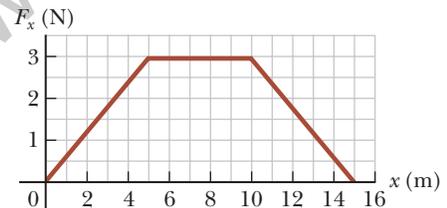


Figure P7.15 Problems 15 and 34.

16. In a control system, an accelerometer consists of a 4.70-g object sliding on a calibrated horizontal rail. A low-mass spring attaches the object to a flange at one end of the rail. Grease on the rail makes static friction negligible, but rapidly damps out vibrations of the sliding object. When subject to a steady acceleration of 0.800g, the object should be at a location 0.500 cm away from its equilibrium position. Find the force constant of the spring required for the calibration to be correct.
17. When a 4.00-kg object is hung vertically on a certain light spring that obeys Hooke's law, the spring stretches 2.50 cm. If the 4.00-kg object is removed, (a) how far will the spring stretch if a 1.50-kg block is hung on it? (b) How much work must an external agent do to stretch the same spring 4.00 cm from its unstretched position?
18. Hooke's law describes a certain light spring of unstretched length 35.0 cm. When one end is attached to the top of a doorframe and a 7.50-kg object is hung from the other end, the length of the spring is 41.5 cm. (a) Find its spring constant. (b) The load and the spring are taken down. Two people pull in opposite directions on the ends of the spring, each with a force of 190 N. Find the length of the spring in this situation.
19. An archer pulls her bowstring back 0.400 m by exerting a force that increases uniformly from zero to 230 N. (a) What is the equivalent spring constant of the bow?

- (b) How much work does the archer do on the string in drawing the bow?
20. A light spring with spring constant $1\,200\text{ N/m}$ is hung from an elevated support. From its lower end hangs a second light spring, which has spring constant $1\,800\text{ N/m}$. An object of mass 1.50 kg is hung at rest from the lower end of the second spring. (a) Find the total extension distance of the pair of springs. (b) Find the effective spring constant of the pair of springs as a system. We describe these springs as *in series*.
21. A light spring with spring constant k_1 is hung from an elevated support. From its lower end a second light spring is hung, which has spring constant k_2 . An object of mass m is hung at rest from the lower end of the second spring. (a) Find the total extension distance of the pair of springs. (b) Find the effective spring constant of the pair of springs as a system.
22. Express the units of the force constant of a spring in SI fundamental units.
23. A cafeteria tray dispenser supports a stack of trays on a shelf that hangs from four identical spiral springs under tension, one near each corner of the shelf. Each tray is rectangular, 45.3 cm by 35.6 cm , 0.450 cm thick, and with mass 580 g . (a) Demonstrate that the top tray in the stack can always be at the same height above the floor, however many trays are in the dispenser. (b) Find the spring constant each spring should have for the dispenser to function in this convenient way. (c) Is any piece of data unnecessary for this determination?
24. A light spring with force constant 3.85 N/m is compressed by 8.00 cm as it is held between a 0.250-kg block on the left and a 0.500-kg block on the right, both resting on a horizontal surface. The spring exerts a force on each block, tending to push the blocks apart. The blocks are simultaneously released from rest. Find the acceleration with which each block starts to move, given that the coefficient of kinetic friction between each block and the surface is (a) 0 , (b) 0.100 , and (c) 0.462 .
25. A small particle of mass m is pulled to the top of a frictionless half-cylinder (of radius R) by a light cord that passes over the top of the cylinder as illustrated in Figure P7.25. (a) Assuming the particle moves at a constant speed, show that $F = mg \cos \theta$. *Note:* If the particle moves at constant speed, the component of its acceleration tangent to the cylinder must be zero at all times. (b) By directly integrating $W = \int \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$, find the work done in moving the particle at constant speed from the bottom to the top of the half-cylinder.

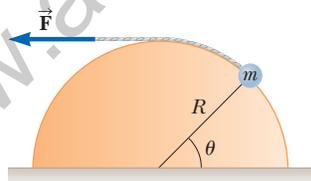


Figure P7.25

26. The force acting on a particle is $F_x = (8x - 16)$, where F is in newtons and x is in meters. (a) Make a plot of this force versus x from $x = 0$ to $x = 3.00\text{ m}$. (b) From your graph, find the net work done by this force on the particle as it moves from $x = 0$ to $x = 3.00\text{ m}$.

27. When different loads hang on a spring, the spring stretches to different lengths as shown in the following table. (a) Make a graph of the applied force versus the extension of the spring. (b) By least-squares fitting, determine the straight line that best fits the data. (c) To complete part (b), do you want to use all the data points, or should you ignore some of them? Explain. (d) From the slope of the best-fit line, find the spring constant k . (e) If the spring is extended to 105 mm , what force does it exert on the suspended object?

| F (N) | 2.0 | 4.0 | 6.0 | 8.0 | 10 | 12 | 14 | 16 | 18 | 20 | 22 |
|----------|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| L (mm) | 15 | 32 | 49 | 64 | 79 | 98 | 112 | 126 | 149 | 175 | 190 |

28. A 100-g bullet is fired from a rifle having a barrel 0.600 m long. Choose the origin to be at the location where the bullet begins to move. Then the force (in newtons) exerted by the expanding gas on the bullet is $15\,000 + 10\,000x - 25\,000x^2$, where x is in meters. (a) Determine the work done by the gas on the bullet as the bullet travels the length of the barrel. (b) **What If?** If the barrel is 1.00 m long, how much work is done, and (c) how does this value compare with the work calculated in part (a)?

29. A force $\vec{F} = (4x\hat{i} + 3y\hat{j})$, where \vec{F} is in newtons and x and y are in meters, acts on an object as the object moves in the x direction from the origin to $x = 5.00\text{ m}$. Find the work $W = \int \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$ done by the force on the object.

30. **Review.** The graph in Figure P7.30 specifies a functional relationship between the two variables u and v . (a) Find $\int_a^b u\,dv$. (b) Find $\int_b^a u\,dv$. (c) Find $\int_a^b v\,du$.

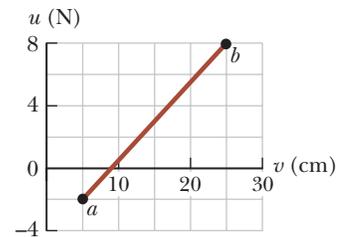


Figure P7.30

Section 7.5 Kinetic Energy and the Work–Kinetic Energy Theorem

31. A 3.00-kg object has a velocity $(6.00\hat{i} - 2.00\hat{j})\text{ m/s}$. (a) What is its kinetic energy at this moment? (b) What is the net work done on the object if its velocity changes to $(8.00\hat{i} + 4.00\hat{j})\text{ m/s}$? (*Note:* From the definition of the dot product, $v^2 = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}$.)
32. A worker pushing a 35.0-kg wooden crate at a constant speed for 12.0 m along a wood floor does 350 J of work by applying a constant horizontal force of magnitude F on the crate. (a) Determine the value of F . (b) If the worker now applies a force greater than F , describe the subsequent motion of the crate. (c) Describe what would happen to the crate if the applied force is less than F .
33. A 0.600-kg particle has a speed of 2.00 m/s at point **A** and kinetic energy of 7.50 J at point **B**. What is (a) its kinetic energy at **A**, (b) its speed at **B**, and (c) the net work done on the particle by external forces as it moves from **A** to **B**?

34. A 4.00-kg particle is subject to a net force that varies with position as shown in Figure P7.15. The particle starts from rest at $x = 0$. What is its speed at (a) $x = 5.00$ m, (b) $x = 10.0$ m, and (c) $x = 15.0$ m?

35. **M** A 2 100-kg pile driver is used to drive a steel I-beam into the ground. The pile driver falls 5.00 m before coming into contact with the top of the beam, and it drives the beam 12.0 cm farther into the ground before coming to rest. Using energy considerations, calculate the average force the beam exerts on the pile driver while the pile driver is brought to rest.

36. **AMT** **Review.** In an electron microscope, there is an electron gun that contains two charged metallic plates 2.80 cm apart. An electric force accelerates each electron in the beam from rest to 9.60% of the speed of light over this distance. (a) Determine the kinetic energy of the electron as it leaves the electron gun. Electrons carry this energy to a phosphorescent viewing screen where the microscope's image is formed, making it glow. For an electron passing between the plates in the electron gun, determine (b) the magnitude of the constant electric force acting on the electron, (c) the acceleration of the electron, and (d) the time interval the electron spends between the plates.

37. **GP** **Review.** You can think of the work–kinetic energy theorem as a second theory of motion, parallel to Newton's laws in describing how outside influences affect the motion of an object. In this problem, solve parts (a), (b), and (c) separately from parts (d) and (e) so you can compare the predictions of the two theories. A 15.0-g bullet is accelerated from rest to a speed of 780 m/s in a rifle barrel of length 72.0 cm. (a) Find the kinetic energy of the bullet as it leaves the barrel. (b) Use the work–kinetic energy theorem to find the net work that is done on the bullet. (c) Use your result to part (b) to find the magnitude of the average net force that acted on the bullet while it was in the barrel. (d) Now model the bullet as a particle under constant acceleration. Find the constant acceleration of a bullet that starts from rest and gains a speed of 780 m/s over a distance of 72.0 cm. (e) Modeling the bullet as a particle under a net force, find the net force that acted on it during its acceleration. (f) What conclusion can you draw from comparing your results of parts (c) and (e)?

38. **Review.** A 7.80-g bullet moving at 575 m/s strikes the hand of a superhero, causing the hand to move 5.50 cm in the direction of the bullet's velocity before stopping. (a) Use work and energy considerations to find the average force that stops the bullet. (b) Assuming the force is constant, determine how much time elapses between the moment the bullet strikes the hand and the moment it stops moving.

39. **Review.** A 5.75-kg object passes through the origin at time $t = 0$ such that its x component of velocity is 5.00 m/s and its y component of velocity is -3.00 m/s. (a) What is the kinetic energy of the object at this time? (b) At a later time $t = 2.00$ s, the particle is located at $x = 8.50$ m and $y = 5.00$ m. What constant force acted

on the object during this time interval? (c) What is the speed of the particle at $t = 2.00$ s?

Section 7.6 Potential Energy of a System

40. **M** A 1 000-kg roller coaster car is initially at the top of a rise, at point **A**. It then moves 135 ft, at an angle of 40.0° below the horizontal, to a lower point **B**. (a) Choose the car at point **B** to be the zero configuration for gravitational potential energy of the roller coaster–Earth system. Find the potential energy of the system when the car is at points **A** and **B**, and the change in potential energy as the car moves between these points. (b) Repeat part (a), setting the zero configuration with the car at point **A**.

41. A 0.20-kg stone is held 1.3 m above the top edge of a water well and then dropped into it. The well has a depth of 5.0 m. Relative to the configuration with the stone at the top edge of the well, what is the gravitational potential energy of the stone–Earth system (a) before the stone is released and (b) when it reaches the bottom of the well? (c) What is the change in gravitational potential energy of the system from release to reaching the bottom of the well?

42. **M** A 400-N child is in a swing that is attached to a pair of ropes 2.00 m long. Find the gravitational potential energy of the child–Earth system relative to the child's lowest position when (a) the ropes are horizontal, (b) the ropes make a 30.0° angle with the vertical, and (c) the child is at the bottom of the circular arc.

Section 7.7 Conservative and Nonconservative Forces

43. **M** A 4.00-kg particle moves from the origin to position **C**, having coordinates $x = 5.00$ m and $y = 5.00$ m (Fig. P7.43). One force on the particle is the gravitational force acting in the negative y direction. Using Equation 7.3, calculate the work done by the gravitational force on the particle as it goes from **O** to **C** along (a) the purple path, (b) the red path, and (c) the blue path. (d) Your results should all be identical. Why?

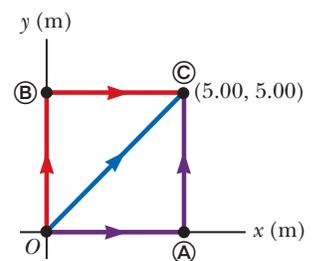


Figure P7.43

Problems 43 through 46.

44. (a) Suppose a constant force acts on an object. The force does not vary with time or with the position or the velocity of the object. Start with the general definition for work done by a force

$$W = \int_i^f \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{r}}$$

and show that the force is conservative. (b) As a special case, suppose the force $\vec{\mathbf{F}} = (3\hat{\mathbf{i}} + 4\hat{\mathbf{j}})$ N acts on a particle that moves from **O** to **C** in Figure P7.43. Calculate the work done by $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ on the particle as it moves along each one of the three paths shown in the figure

and show that the work done along the three paths is identical.

45. A force acting on a particle moving in the xy plane is given by $\vec{F} = (2y\hat{i} + x^2\hat{j})$, where \vec{F} is in newtons and x and y are in meters. The particle moves from the origin to a final position having coordinates $x = 5.00$ m and $y = 5.00$ m as shown in Figure P7.43. Calculate the work done by \vec{F} on the particle as it moves along (a) the purple path, (b) the red path, and (c) the blue path. (d) Is \vec{F} conservative or nonconservative? (e) Explain your answer to part (d).

46. An object moves in the xy plane in Figure P7.43 and experiences a friction force with constant magnitude 3.00 N, always acting in the direction opposite the object's velocity. Calculate the work that you must do to slide the object at constant speed against the friction force as the object moves along (a) the purple path O to \textcircled{A} followed by a return purple path to O , (b) the purple path O to \textcircled{C} followed by a return blue path to O , and (c) the blue path O to \textcircled{C} followed by a return blue path to O . (d) Each of your three answers should be nonzero. What is the significance of this observation?

Section 7.8 Relationship Between Conservative Forces and Potential Energy

47. The potential energy of a system of two particles separated by a distance r is given by $U(r) = A/r$, where A is a constant. Find the radial force \vec{F}_r that each particle exerts on the other.

48. Why is the following situation impossible? A librarian lifts a book from the ground to a high shelf, doing 20.0 J of work in the lifting process. As he turns his back, the book falls off the shelf back to the ground. The gravitational force from the Earth on the book does 20.0 J of work on the book while it falls. Because the work done was 20.0 J + 20.0 J = 40.0 J, the book hits the ground with 40.0 J of kinetic energy.

49. A potential energy function for a system in which a two-dimensional force acts is of the form $U = 3x^3y - 7x$. Find the force that acts at the point (x, y) .

50. A single conservative force acting on a particle within a system varies as $\vec{F} = (-Ax + Bx^2)\hat{i}$, where A and B are constants, \vec{F} is in newtons, and x is in meters. (a) Calculate the potential energy function $U(x)$ associated with this force for the system, taking $U = 0$ at $x = 0$. Find (b) the change in potential energy and (c) the change in kinetic energy of the system as the particle moves from $x = 2.00$ m to $x = 3.00$ m.

51. A single conservative force acts on a 5.00-kg particle within a system due to its interaction with the rest of the system. The equation $F_x = 2x + 4$ describes the force, where F_x is in newtons and x is in meters. As the particle moves along the x axis from $x = 1.00$ m to $x = 5.00$ m, calculate (a) the work done by this force on the particle, (b) the change in the potential energy of the system, and (c) the kinetic energy the particle has at $x = 5.00$ m if its speed is 3.00 m/s at $x = 1.00$ m.

Section 7.9 Energy Diagrams and Equilibrium of a System

52. For the potential energy curve shown in Figure P7.52, (a) determine whether the force F_x is positive, negative, or zero at the five points indicated. (b) Indicate points of stable, unstable, and neutral equilibrium. (c) Sketch the curve for F_x versus x from $x = 0$ to $x = 9.5$ m.

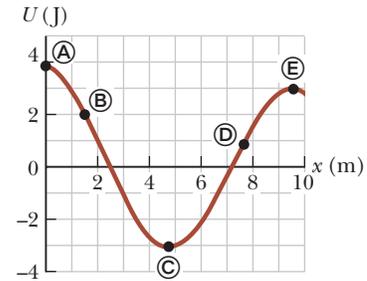


Figure P7.52

53. A right circular cone can theoretically be balanced on a horizontal surface in three different ways. Sketch these three equilibrium configurations and identify them as positions of stable, unstable, or neutral equilibrium.

Additional Problems

54. The potential energy function for a system of particles is given by $U(x) = -x^3 + 2x^2 + 3x$, where x is the position of one particle in the system. (a) Determine the force F_x on the particle as a function of x . (b) For what values of x is the force equal to zero? (c) Plot $U(x)$ versus x and F_x versus x and indicate points of stable and unstable equilibrium.

55. Review. A baseball outfielder throws a 0.150-kg baseball at a speed of 40.0 m/s and an initial angle of 30.0° to the horizontal. What is the kinetic energy of the baseball at the highest point of its trajectory?

56. A particle moves along the x axis from $x = 12.8$ m to $x = 23.7$ m under the influence of a force

$$F = \frac{375}{x^3 + 3.75x}$$

where F is in newtons and x is in meters. Using numerical integration, determine the work done by this force on the particle during this displacement. Your result should be accurate to within 2%.

57. Two identical steel balls, each of diameter 25.4 mm and moving in opposite directions at 5 m/s, run into each other head-on and bounce apart. Prior to the collision, one of the balls is squeezed in a vise while precise measurements are made of the resulting amount of compression. The results show that Hooke's law is a fair model of the ball's elastic behavior. For one datum, a force of 16 kN exerted by each jaw of the vise results in a 0.2-mm reduction in the diameter. The diameter returns to its original value when the force is removed. (a) Modeling the ball as a spring, find its spring constant. (b) Does the interaction of the balls during the collision last only for an instant or for a nonzero time interval? State your evidence. (c) Compute an estimate for the kinetic energy of each of the balls before they collide. (d) Compute an estimate for the maximum amount of compression each ball undergoes when the balls collide. (e) Compute an order-of-magnitude estimate for the time interval for which the balls are in

contact. (In Chapter 15, you will learn to calculate the contact time interval precisely.)

58. When an object is displaced by an amount x from stable equilibrium, a restoring force acts on it, tending to return the object to its equilibrium position. The magnitude of the restoring force can be a complicated function of x . In such cases, we can generally imagine the force function $F(x)$ to be expressed as a power series in x as $F(x) = -(k_1x + k_2x^2 + k_3x^3 + \dots)$. The first term here is just Hooke's law, which describes the force exerted by a simple spring for small displacements. For small excursions from equilibrium, we generally ignore the higher-order terms, but in some cases it may be desirable to keep the second term as well. If we model the restoring force as $F = -(k_1x + k_2x^2)$, how much work is done on an object in displacing it from $x = 0$ to $x = x_{\max}$ by an applied force $-F$?
59. A 6 000-kg freight car rolls along rails with negligible friction. The car is brought to rest by a combination of two coiled springs as illustrated in Figure P7.59. Both springs are described by Hooke's law and have spring constants $k_1 = 1\,600\text{ N/m}$ and $k_2 = 3\,400\text{ N/m}$. After the first spring compresses a distance of 30.0 cm, the second spring acts with the first to increase the force as additional compression occurs as shown in the graph. The car comes to rest 50.0 cm after first contacting the two-spring system. Find the car's initial speed.

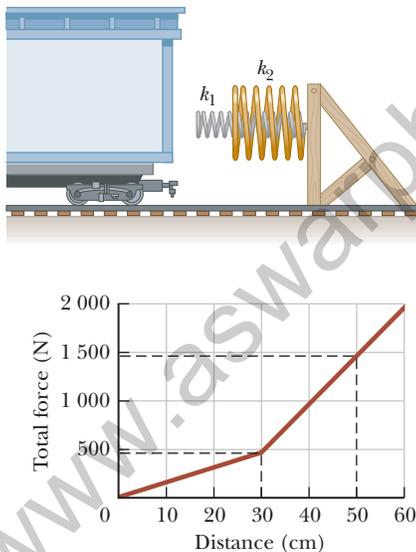


Figure P7.59

60. Why is the following situation impossible? In a new casino, an advertising boasts that a professional basketball player can lie on top of the machine and his head and feet will not hang off the edge! The ball launcher in the machine sends metal balls up one side of the machine and then into play. The spring in the launcher (Fig. P7.60) has a force constant of 1.20 N/cm. The surface on which the ball moves is inclined $\theta = 10.0^\circ$ with respect to the horizontal. The spring is initially compressed its maximum distance $d = 5.00\text{ cm}$. A

ball of mass 100 g is projected into play by releasing the plunger. Casino visitors find the play of the giant machine quite exciting.

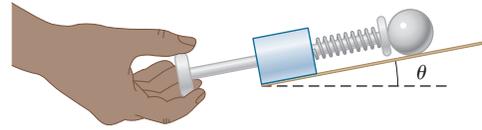


Figure P7.60

61. **Review.** Two constant forces act on an object of mass $m = 5.00\text{ kg}$ moving in the xy plane as shown in Figure P7.61. Force \vec{F}_1 is 25.0 N at 35.0° , and force \vec{F}_2 is 42.0 N at 150° . At time $t = 0$, the object is at the origin and has velocity $(4.00\hat{i} + 2.50\hat{j})\text{ m/s}$. (a) Express the two forces in unit-vector notation. Use unit-vector notation for your other answers. (b) Find the total force exerted on the object. (c) Find the object's acceleration. Now, considering the instant $t = 3.00\text{ s}$, find (d) the object's velocity, (e) its position, (f) its kinetic energy from $\frac{1}{2}mv_f^2$, and (g) its kinetic energy from $\frac{1}{2}mv_i^2 + \sum \vec{F} \cdot \Delta\vec{r}$. (h) What conclusion can you draw by comparing the answers to parts (f) and (g)?

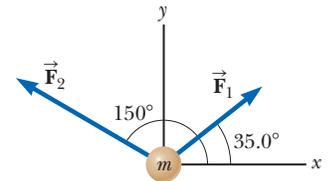


Figure P7.61

62. The spring constant of an automotive suspension spring increases with increasing load due to a spring coil that is widest at the bottom, smoothly tapering to a smaller diameter near the top. The result is a softer ride on normal road surfaces from the wider coils, but the car does not bottom out on bumps because when the lower coils collapse, the stiffer coils near the top absorb the load. For such springs, the force exerted by the spring can be empirically found to be given by $F = ax^b$. For a tapered spiral spring that compresses 12.9 cm with a 1 000-N load and 31.5 cm with a 5 000-N load, (a) evaluate the constants a and b in the empirical equation for F and (b) find the work needed to compress the spring 25.0 cm.

63. An inclined plane of angle $\theta = 20.0^\circ$ has a spring of force constant $k = 500\text{ N/m}$ fastened securely at the bottom so that the spring is parallel to the surface as shown in Figure P7.63. A block of mass $m = 2.50\text{ kg}$ is placed on the plane at a distance $d = 0.300\text{ m}$ from the spring. From this position, the block is projected downward toward the spring with speed $v = 0.750\text{ m/s}$. By what distance is the spring compressed when the block momentarily comes to rest?

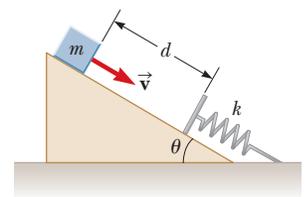


Figure P7.63

Problems 63 and 64.

64. An inclined plane of angle θ has a spring of force constant k fastened securely at the bottom so that the